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***Specialised lexicon: a corpus-based  
study of adjectives in adventure tourism***

*Léxico especializado: un estudio basado en  
corpus sobre adjetivos en el turismo de aventura*

Author: Paula Prieto Mayo

Director: Isabel Durán Muñoz

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## **ABSTRACT**

**English:** The purpose of this paper is to explore the use of adjectives in specialised languages, specifically in the language of adventure tourism. The terms are extracted from the ADVENCOR corpus, a corpus of original and complete promotional texts in English on the named subdomain of tourism: adventure tourism. For this purpose, an analysis, and a classification of the referring adjectives according to their meaning is first accomplished, differentiating the adjectives into two elementary groups: descriptive and evaluative. Then, a more specific semantic categorisation is carried out for each of them, which permits a description of the linguistic characterisation of this tourism discourse according to lexical choices and recurrent patterns, as well as a discussion in terms of frequency effects. The study exposes the impact of the use of certain adjectives in this specific subdomain, corroborating that tourism language is significantly persuasive.

**Keywords:** adjectivisation, semantic meaning, adventure tourism, corpus-assisted study

**Spanish:** El objeto del presente trabajo es explorar el uso de adjetivos en lenguajes especializados, concretamente en el lenguaje del turismo de aventura. Los términos son extraídos del corpus ADVENCOR, un corpus de textos promocionales, originales y completos en inglés sobre el nombrado subdominio particular del turismo: el turismo de aventura. Para ello, se realiza en primer lugar un análisis y una clasificación de los adjetivos referentes de acuerdo con su significado, difiriendo los adjetivos en dos grupos elementales: descriptivos y evaluativos. Luego, se lleva a cabo una categorización semántica más específica para cada uno de ellos, lo cual permite describir la caracterización lingüística del discurso turístico conforme a las elecciones léxicas y patrones recurrentes, así como una discusión en términos de efectos de frecuencia. El estudio expone la repercusión que tiene el empleo de determinados adjetivos en este subdominio específico, corroborando que el lenguaje de turismo es significativamente persuasivo.

**Palabras clave:** adjetivación, significado semántico, turismo de aventura, estudio basado en corpus

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## 1. INTRODUCTION<sup>1</sup>

It is widely known that the Information Technologies and Communications, and more concretely, the Internet, have fostered social changes in our lives, particularly in the way we contact and communicate with each other, among other things. This has brought multiple benefits for all of us, but one of the areas that makes the most of it is commerce, since the cyberspace offers a wide range of possibilities for promotion.

Explicitly, the tourism industry fully takes advantage of this, since it enables it to expand globally (Pierini, 2009), which is radical in this field, as its related services are intangible, and therefore, require accurate, current, ample, and specific information to effectively promote and success (Edo Marzá, 2011). In agreement with this convenience, it is noticed how, progressively, the adventure tourism is gaining ground within this business. This is explained since more and more individuals are engaging in sports, nature-related activities, and sustainability, and are constantly seeking out active vacation options rather than traditional ones (Durán Muñoz & L'Homme, 2020).

Besides the evident significance of the Internet, and from a linguistic perspective, language also plays a fundamental role in the tourist promotion. It not only allows us to describe an entity, but also to express emotions (Thu, 2021), which configures a key feature in persuading potential tourists. To fulfil this function clearly and effectively, the adjectives usage results in the best fallback option, as they can convey multiple meaning in brief (Edo Marzá, 2012). As a matter of fact, a distinction is made between descriptive adjectives, which grant objective descriptions about certain items, and evaluative adjectives, with which subjective judgments can be made (Pierini, 2009).

In short, the use, and accordingly, the study of adjectives should be considered an essential aspect of language, especially in view of their predominance and substantiality regarding specific domains and subdomains, such as tourism and adventure tourism, respectively (Durán Muñoz, 2019).

Nonetheless, the adjective class is not yet fully recognised, but rather rejected as far as linguistic studies are concerned (Dixon, 2004). Consequently, investigation of adjectives in relation to specialised discourses is quite scarce. In this sense, there is a clear

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need for carrying out studies about the adjectivisation in specific domain discourses as a crucial feature of the language used in such domains.

Particularly, an examination of the adjective's usage in tourism discourse, with a special focus on the adventure tourism subdomain is provided in this work as a means to contribute to their lexico-semantic characterisation, as well as to cooperate to define in detail the referent specialised language.

This descriptive paper is structured as follows. Section 2 determines the goals of the study in a more precise way; the next section provides a literary review about the adjective class, with a particular view to qualifying adjectives and their respective features, and also their importance in relation to tourism and adventure tourism; the third section presents the methodology followed to achieve the study, which describes the base corpus, the procedure to select the candidate adjectives and to classify them, first in descriptive or evaluative, and then in concrete semantic categories; section 4 analyses the results and findings, and finally, the last sections reveals the chief conclusions along with the limitations found and future research lines.

## **2. OBJETIVES**

Taking into consideration the importance of adjectivisation in language and the necessity to conduct studies on its use in specific domains, this work aims to analyse the way these terms are employed in tourism discourse, particularly in the subdomain of adventure tourism.

The chief goal is to contribute to a better understanding of their semantics, as well as the specification of this particularised language. Accordingly, this study intends to reach the following specific objectives: 1) to determine what types of adjectives, descriptive or evaluative, are more frequent in this subdomain; 2) to review and provide a mainly semantic/pragmatic classification of descriptive and evaluative adjectives for a better understanding of their role on persuasion; 3) to understand the main differences in their usage; and last, 4) to confirm or reject previous assumptions according to the usage and frequency of adjectives and adjectival patterns by means of a quantitative procedure.

Once we have set the work objectives, the following section is devoted to reviewing the main characteristics of the adjective as a grammatical category, as well as

its different approaches. Additionally, a literature review of previous works that deal with adjectives, both in the language of tourism in general and adventure tourism in particular, is implemented.

### **3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

Data from several studies on the class of adjectives, with a special focus on qualifying adjectives and their distinctive features is next issued. Further, the significance of adjectives in the concrete context of tourism and adventure tourism is revealed.

#### **3.1. The adjective class**

##### ***3.1.1. Adjectives and word classes***

To begin with, it is necessary to review the three main lexical categories in human language, namely nouns, verbs, and adjectives, regarding their similarities, but above all, the differences which stand for this word class classification. This will allow us to better understand the existence of lexical categories and, concretely, the prevalence of adjectives as a distinguishable class, which this project is concerned with.

It goes without saying that the main function of language is to favour people to communicate (Dixon, 2004). As stated by these authors, meaning is transferred from speaker to recipient by words, which encode basic concepts that relate together within the grammar. These concepts are found in the structure of each human language as implicit, “distinct categories or parts of speech” (Baker, 2003, p. 1), that is, nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

Nouns and verbs have always been considered two independent categories in Linguistics (Calvo Pérez, 1986). It was recognised that some words, i.e., nouns, inflected for case; other words, i.e., verbs, inflected for tense and person (Baker, 2003). This latter author claims that this superficial morphological distinction was parallel to the definition of nouns as words determining concrete or abstract elements and verbs having been established for activities or processes performed or undergone.

The issue comes when considering the adjective class. This one has every so often been suggested of not taking part into the universal property of language (Dixon, 2004). It is in the 18th century when adjectives began to be set as a proper category (Calvo Pérez,

1986). Forsooth, Latin grammarians established the triad of nouns, verbs, and adjectives (Bhat, 1994). Plus, Sechehaye's later discussion about the logical categories of grammar helped this last-mentioned kind of words to be treated as a central category of human language (Sechehaye, 1926, as cited in Calvo Pérez, 1986). This former author argues that, in a sense, people have a contemplative attitude towards the world, which courses into quality, that is, the intimate nature of the adjective. In other words, this way of observing the world considers each analogy and difference that particularise the integral entities of reality and because of this, the adjective class results strictly necessary (Calvo Pérez, 1986). Therefore, a distinct word class 'adjectives' can be recognised for every language, although sometimes the criteria for distinguishing the adjective class from the other two classes (nouns and verbs) might be rather subtle (Dixon, 2004). In this regard, there are some grammarians who still consider adjectives to be a mixed category (Bhat, 1994). According to Bhat (ibid.), they hold Chomsky's original analysis of syntax features, which clearly distinguishes nouns from verbs as basic categories, whereas adjectives appear to show characteristics with both nouns and verbs. Overall, the adjective class results harder to be recognised (Dixon, 2004).

To differentiate adjectives in a broad sense, let us examine two aspects revealed by Dixon (2004):

First, in terms of its monomorphemic members, both noun and verb categories are considerably large and open in most languages, whereas the class of adjectives is for the most part smaller than these. In fact, the smallest classes acknowledged account for less than five constituents. Nonetheless, adjectives stems can generally be formed through derivational processes from nouns (1) and/or verbs (2). To put it another way, thanks to certain morphological processes, this limited adjective class can be lengthened almost indefinitely by deriving its stems from roots of nouns and verbs.

(1) child > *childish*

(2) use > *useful*

Second, functional possibilities are different within these word classes. In general terms, even though there are varieties within languages, considering clause structure, the noun class is always identified in the arguments of the predicate, and the verb class relates directly to the predicate. The adjective class can accomplish the following roles (either one, a few, or all of them), which are usually more complex and varied:

- a. It states that something has a specific property (e.g., The dog is *small*).
- b. It exposes a concrete condition that helps identifies the referent in a noun phrase (argument predicate); the adjective functions as a modifier (e.g., The *small* dog barked.).
- c. It establishes a comparison (e.g., The dog is *smaller than* the cat.).

These last two features ('b' and 'c') lead us to meditate about the traditional approaches to adjectives. By way of explanation, adjectives are substantially defined as “the prototypical modifiers of natural language” and characterised as “inherently gradable predicates” (Baker, 2003, pp. 190-191). However, this author alleges that these are not concrete attributes to define what an adjective is on its own. Hence, he exposes in a more specific way the structures in syntax in which only adjectives are possible, or in which neither nouns nor verbs can be used:

- 1. Direct modifiers of nouns in attributive position:
  - a. a *smart* (adjective) woman
  - b. \*a *genius* (noun) woman
  - c. \*a *shine* (verb) coin
- 2. Complements of degree expressions such as *so*, *as*, *too*, and *how*:
  - a. Mary is *too smart* (adjective) for her own good.
  - b. \*Mary is (*a*) *too genius* (noun) for her own good.
  - c. \*If you polish it, the coin *will too shine* (verb) in the dark.
- 3. Resultative secondary predicates:
  - a. They beat the metal *flat* (adjective).
  - b. \*They beat the metal *a sword* (noun).
  - c. \*They polished the coin *shine* (verb).

Briefly, Baker (2003) asserts that the verb class is easily identified as it is the only one that syntactically reflects a theme or agent theta-role (verbs roll predicates); exactly alike, nouns are recognized as devices used to indicate references. Anyhow, he supports that the adjective class emerges not because of having a special property, but because it is the only category that can be used in determined conditions.



### 3.1.2. How do adjectives differ from nouns?

Conforming to Ferris (2014), humans present a simple mechanism of thought for description, which allows us to differentiate linguistically between two main types of elements: entities and properties. As a matter of course, nouns (or substantives) would simply designate those entities and adjectives would designate the so-called properties (Wierzbicka, 1986). Since this distinction could not be aleatory, Jespersen (1968, as cited in Wierzbicka, *ibid.*) added the semantic question: while the substantive integrates various characteristics that identify a kind of person or thing, the adjective only stands for a single feature.

Nonetheless, there are some exceptions that make it difficult to establish this distinction between nouns and adjectives based on semantics (Bhat, 1994). Focusing on instances within one language, in this case English, there are pairs of synonymous in which one word is a noun and the other an adjective (e.g.: *circle* and *round*, respectively) (Wierzbicka, 1986). The same happens with antonyms (e.g.: *child* and *grown-up*) or cohyponyms (e.g.: *cripple* and *sick*, *hunchback* and *deaf*), as reported by this author.

Accordingly, Lyons (1977) affirms that nouns cannot be distinguished from adjectives just because of their semantics; the boundary between these classes is rather inconsistent. He exposes a way out to separate the noun class from the adjective one on formal grounds, that is, establishing a semantic common core for each of them. Like so, Dixon (2004) determines that “certain types have prototypical association with a given word class” (p. 3):

**Table 1.** Core semantics of nouns and adjectives

WORD CLASS	SEMANTIC TYPES	
<b>Nouns</b>	Concrete Reference	Humans (e.g.: ‘woman’), body and other parts (e.g.: ‘arm’), flora (e.g.: ‘tree’), fauna (e.g.: ‘horse’), celestial (e.g.: ‘star’), environment (e.g.: ‘water’), and artefacts (e.g.: ‘house’).
	Others	Mental states (e.g.: ‘love’), physical states (e.g.: ‘ache’), activities (e.g.: ‘game’), and speech acts (e.g.: ‘answer’).
<b>Adjectives</b>	Core semantic types	Dimension (e.g.: ‘small’), age (e.g.: ‘new’), value (e.g.: ‘important’), and colour (e.g.: ‘red’).

	Peripheral semantic types	Physical (and corporeal) property (e.g.: ‘soft’, ‘tired’), human propensity (e.g.: ‘generous’), and speed (e.g.: ‘fast’).
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Note. Adapted from Dixon (2004, pp. 3-4)

This classification helps to clarify to a certain extent. However, if we recall the previous examples *circle* and *round*, *cripple* and *sick*, or *hunchback* and *deaf*, “there is no semantic rationale for giving some quality concepts a nominal, rather than an adjectival, designation” (Wierzbicka, 1986, p. 355).

Wierzbicka (ibid.) goes further in the semantic reason for distinguishing the nominal and the adjectival designation. She makes a difference between “temporary state” (p. 356), designed by adjectives (*sick*), and “permanent condition” (p. 356), designed by nouns (*cripple*). Moreover, this writer affirms that nouns also refer to the conditions that are perceptible to our eyes, that is why *hunchback* is a noun, whereas *deaf* is an adjective. As a result of this, it could be stated that adjectives describe, and nouns categorise (ibid.). In the first case, describing may include a few characteristics, but all of them are relevant in the same way: “this person is X, Y, Z” (p. 358). Secondly, to categorise is to label a person, that is, to put a person into a concrete, unique category: “a kind of (person, thing, or whatever)” (p. 359).

All things considered, nouns are differentiated from adjectives on their semantic basis, since the first ones create a category, and the latter ones add single features to enrich the referent evoked by the noun (ibid.).

In conclusion, the “non-arbitrariness of grammar” (ibid., p. 380) is revealed. This article (ibid.) proves that the semantic differences between nouns and adjectives and their respective common cores, together with their unlike syntactic behaviours (previously seen) constitute sufficient fundamentals for “postulating the existence of two distinct classes” (p. 381).

### 3.2. Qualifying adjectives

For the time being, the adjective class as a major word class in English should be conveniently identifiable. Nonetheless, qualifying adjectives are going to be analysed in a narrow sense.

Adjectives combine with semantic objects to denote existing conditions (Martínez del Castillo, 1999). The author suggests that they reveal our mind elaboration in which relations of meaning are reflected. Thus, he regards adjectives as linguistic elements of information in a double sense: at the language level as a suitable linguistic category, and on the historical level since the meanings they evoke are related to tradition. Particularly, as its name implies, qualifying adjectives provide descriptions or specifications about a quality of the noun or pronoun that they modify, resolving in such manner the next questions: “what kind?, how many?, or which ones?” (Southeastern Writing Center [SWC], 2011, p.1)

There are three classes of adjective features that allow us to classify them regarding their morphology, their syntax, and their semantics.

### **3.2.1. Morphology**

Morphology is the branch of linguistics concerned with the formation of words; it considers how new words are originated within the different languages and how word formation varies depending on their usage (Lieber, 2009, as cited in Dewi et al., 2021).

“Words are made up of morphemes” (Dewi et al., 2021, p. 199). This study states that, from one side, a word can be constituted by only one morpheme, i.e., “free morpheme” (p. 199). This kind of words are called “content words” (Master, 2017, p. 3). With respect to adjectives, some examples of content words would be *quick*, *soft*, or *red*. Opposite, several morphemes are attached to other morphemes or affixes, i.e., “bound morpheme” (Dewi et al., 2021, p. 199). Concurrently, bound morphemes can undergo different processes of formation: inflection or word-formation, the latter one divided into derivation and composition (Bauer, 1983). Instances for bound morphemes adjectives are *smallest*, *childish*, or *good-looking*, respectively.

With respect to the main morphological properties of adjectives, inflection and derivation should be highlighted.

First, “the function of inflectional affixes is to indicate grammatical meaning” (Dewi et al., 2021, p. 200). Inflection for adjectives in English is quite simpler than inflection for nouns or verbs (Yordchim, 2021). This is explained since adjectives in the English language “are not marked inflectionally for number, gender, case, etc.” (Tucker, 1998, p. 57). Nonetheless, adjectives are inflected for “reflecting the degree or intensity

with which they hold” (Peters & Peters, n.d., Morphological Issues, para. 2). In other words, “adjectives are inflected for comparative and superlative forms” (Tucker, 1998, p. 57). To structure these two forms, *-er* and *-est* suffixes are added to one-syllable or a fair few two-syllable adjectives, severally (Yordchim, 2021). In order to clarify, an example is given: *thick* (adjective in its neutral form) – *thicker* (comparative form) – *thickest* (superlative form). However, not all adjectives permit inflection (*beautiful*), nor do all adjectives can be intensified (*atomic*) (Peters & Peters, n.d.). Hence, in the first case, these forms are made by adding the modifiers *more* for the comparative and *most* for the superlative forms, while the second case responds to a minority of irregular adjectives (Yordchim, 2021). All in all, concerning the identification of adjectives, they do not stand out because of their inflectional morphemes, since they only apply when a comparison is needed (Master, 2017).

Adjectives are a richer class if derivational morphology is considered (Tucker, 1998). This study sets three groups: adjectives to which a neo-classical suffix is bound (*-al*, *-ic*, *-iv(e)*, and *-ous*), for example, *criminal*, *heroic*, *sensitive*, and *virtuous*; adjectives derived from nouns, for example, *wooden*; and adjectives derived from verbs, for example, *possesive*. Based on Quirk et al. (1985, as cited in Dewi et al., 2021), it accounts for ten chief, distinctive adjectival suffixes than can be bound to a noun or a verb so that an adjective is formed. A classification of these is presented:

- Denominal adjectives: the morphological construction of these resultant adjectives consists of “a nominal basis, the base noun”, plus a suffix (Fradin, 2007, p. 84). The possible suffixes for attachment are eight: *-ful* (*helpful*), *-less* (*fearless*), *-y* (*lovely*), *-y* (*salty*), *-al* (*personal*), *-ial* (*artificial*), *-ic* (*basic*), and *-ous* (*dangerous*) (Dewi et al., 2021).

Further, denominal adjectives can be classified as belonging to “common nouns” (*dusty*), or to “proper nouns” (*Russian*) (Peters & Peters, n.d., Morphological Issues section).

- Deverbal adjectives: the morphological construction of these resultant adjectives consists of a verb basis, the base verb, plus a suffix. In this case, the possible suffixes for attachment are two: *-able* (*readable*), and *-ive* (*attractive*) (Dewi et al., 2021).

Last, word-formation also includes compounding, as stated before. Compounds are the result of linking two existing lexical items, which give rise to “new complex formations” (Conti, 2007, p. 2). With respect to the morphological constituents structuring compound adjectives, there are different patterns: noun/verb/adjective + adjective (*nationwide, shrink-proof, shocking pink*), noun/adverb/adjective/other + present/past participle (*time-consuming, far-fetched, good-looking, self-made*), verb + noun (*tell-tale*), and some other non-prototypical compounds (*electromagnetic*).

### 3.2.2. Syntax

Syntax is commonly defined as “the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence” (Matthews, 1981, p. 1).

It is acknowledged that adjectives only modify nouns, of which they bring to light diverse qualities (Master, 2017). They do not modify other word classes, viz., verbs, adverbs, and other adjectives (SWC, 2011). Particularly, adjectives can occupy different positions in a phrase or sentence (Peters & Peters, n.d.). As claimed by Quirk et al. (1985, as cited in Peters & Peters, n.d.), adjectives can perform attributively, predicatively, or both attributively and predicatively. In English language, most of the adjectives come right before the noun, that is, they are attributive adjectives (e.g.: *wonderful news*) (Master, 2017). This kind of adjectives are said to “restrict the reference of a noun” (Blackwell, 1998, p. 4). However, adjectives might not appear next to the respective noun, but after a copulative verb, that is, they are predicative adjectives (e.g.: *That man is handsome*) (Master, 2017). That being the case, “adjectives tend to characterize” (Blackwell, 1998, p. 4). Whether the bulk of adjectives can be used attributively, there are only a small number of adjectives that can be used predicatively (Miller & Fellbaum, 1991). In this way, a classification is made (Peters & Peters, n.d.):

- Adjectives that can be used exclusively in attributive position. For example, the *chemical engineer* (\*the engineer is *chemical*).
- Adjectives that can be used exclusively in predicative position. For example, the man is *alive* (\*the *alive* man).
- Adjectives that can be used either in attributive or predicative position, and even “as an object complement when postmodifying a noun in object position”. For

example, the *beautiful* actress, the actress is *beautiful*, we found her *beautiful*, respectively.

Adjectives that can be used just attributively or predicatively are called ‘peripheral’, while adjectives that can occur in both attributive and predicative positions are called ‘central’ (Blackwell, 1998).

Since some adjectives can function attributively as well as predicatively, the distinction between attributive and predicative adjectives is complex (Miller & Fellbaum, 1991). Levi (1978, as cited in Miller & Fellbaum, 1991) has compiled the main distinctive features contributed by other linguists:

1. Predicative adjectives cannot appear together with attributive-only adjectives (\*the *tall* and *corporate* lawyer).
2. Attributive-only adjectives are not gradable (\*the extremely *natal* day).
3. Attributive-only adjectives cannot be nominalized. Evaluate the difference of usage within the adjective *nervous*: in ‘a *nervous* person’, the construction ‘the person’s nervousness’ is admitted; in ‘a *nervous* disorder’ (the adjective *nervous* here is functioning as attributive-only), the construction ‘the disorder’s nervousness’ is odd.

In short, it seems that attributive-only adjectives “resemble nouns that are used as adjectives”, and so, they give the impression of being semantically identical to the nominal meanings (Miller & Fellbaum, 1991, p. 209). Thus, this type of adjectives might be assumed to be “stylistic variants of modifying nouns” (p. 210), according to these authors.

### **3.2.3. Semantics**

Semantics is the part of linguistics that studies meaning in language (Palmer, 1981). Indisputably, semantic theory arises as “the interface between cognitive psychology and linguistic theory” (Limber, 1969, p. 5). In this context, this study marks that meaning theories must elucidate what correlation exists between a message and its signal (Limber, 1969). As a matter of fact, “meaning research must be concerned with explicating the character and components of the human semantic system” (p. 5), advocating, to the furthest extent, for an “universal semantic theory” (p. 4).

Particularly, the semantic function of adjectives is related to the qualities of things, by way of explanation, the content enclosed by adjectives refers to “the attributes or properties associated with things” (Tucker, 1998, p. 57). Accordingly, it is assumed that all adjectives satisfy a series of general properties to be a member of this word class (Tucker, 1998). Nevertheless, there is always a certain amount of members that do not “share the same set of properties associated with the class” (Tucker, 1998, p. 51). Tucker (ibid.) stated that the adjectives that do have most or all the significant properties are more representative examples than others; they are known as ‘prototypical adjectives’, such as *happy, big, old*, etc.

Furthermore, pertaining to the semantics of adjectives, different functions can be linked to them: subclassifying, identifying, or describing (Tucker, 1998). One single adjective can indeed serve more than one of these functions. Along similar lines, a particular adjective might be able to inspire different properties of a noun depending on the context in which it appears (Raskin & Nirenburg, n.d.).

Given this complexity, different lexical authors have tried to carry out semantic classifications of adjectives regarding their features and behaviour (Peters & Peters, n.d.). On that account, numerous and diverse semantic networks are found over time.

To start with, let us have a look to the three dimensions established by Peters and Peters (n.d.), since they configure a regular semantic subclassification to all adjectives:

1. Stative/ Dynamic:

As stated before, most adjectives consist of a derivation from another word class, namely, nouns and verbs. More precisely, most of them are derived from nouns, so they are frequently stative in meaning, which means they call up stable qualities of the nouns (e.g.: *natural*) (Peters & Peters, n.d.). Besides, there are other dynamic adjectives that refer to temporary conditions (e.g.: *rude*).

2. Gradable/ Non-gradable:

Gradeability implies ordering or grading properties (Kennedy, 1999). Thus, gradable adjectives permit being ordered according to a specific measure because their meanings include a gradient feature, for example, the adjective *tall* can be ordered regarding height. Gradation is made noticeable by means of modifiers (*very, quite, fairly...*) or by the already seen morphological processes for the comparative and

superlative forms (Peters & Peters, n.d.). Opposite, some adjectives are not former to varying degrees, for example, *dead*. In case these latter ones convey a gradable interpretation, a sense of irony is implied (Kennedy, 1999).

### 3. Inherent/ Non-inherent:

The main difference within this division is that inherent adjectives “characterize the referent of the noun directly” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 435, as cited in Peters & Peters, n.d). To clarify, an example is provided:

- a) the *old* man
- b) my *old* friend

In 3(a) *old* characterizes the man, while in 3(b) *old* is understood to characterize not the friend, but the friendship (Peters & Peters, 1999).

In agreement with Nagórko (1983), a fourth subcategory is added:

### 4. Relative/ Absolute:

In this case, the key distinction between relative and absolute adjectives lies in the fact that the former ones are reckon in relation to an established norm dependent on the context, in such a manner that they imply a comparison, while the latter ones cannot be modified or compared. For example:

- a) John is *tall*.
- b) John is *sick*.

In 4(a) it is presupposed that John is taller than the average. 4(b) is incomparable; John is either sick or healthy.

In the second place, other types of semantic distribution of English adjectives can be settle depending on their usage. Explicitly, considering similarities and differences between meanings, intuitive relationships among members can be observed (Limber, 1969).

It is understood that the word class ‘adjective’ is arranged because all its members share basic meaning elements or components that differ from the other subclasses (nouns, verbs, adverbs...), which leads to a first basic relationship between meaning and distribution (Limber, 1969). On this basis, additional features would then have to be



analysed to point out the obvious differences between meanings of adjectives until all meaning differences are accounted for, as stated by this author.

Since there are countless adjectives, the first step to organize them in sets of words would be to separate those constituents of which the meaning belongs to the actual word or phrase from which they are transformed (Limber, 1969). In other words, as the great bulk of adjectives are not original, but derived from other word classes, English adjectives cannot be considered semantic ‘primitives’, rather they maintain the semantic structure from the word they are derived (Givón, 1970). That is, both have the same semantic interpretation, but with different performance characteristics (Limber, 1969). For example, from the noun *danger*, the resultant derived adjective is *dangerous*; the two words imply ‘adverse consequences’. The very same happens with the following phrase: *someone to rely on* > *reliable* (Limber, 1969). Then, the author declares that this would reduce the number of lexical items to classify significantly.

Be that as it may, there is still a great deal of remaining adjectives that need a semantic theory to be interpreted and grouped (Limber, 1969). Considering the semantically contextual features within meanings, this study proposes the following distribution:

**Table 2.** *Semantic categorisation of adjectives by Limber*

CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES
<b>Sensory-physical adjectives</b>	They contain sensory predicates related to human sensory systems. They are mainly associated to physical objects.	<i>narrow, round, soft, colourful, strong...</i>
<b>Polar meaning scale adjectives</b>	Pairs of adjectives evoking opposite meanings within a scale of values. Both underlie the extremes of the polar scale.	<i>tall-short, good-bad, active-passive...</i>
<b>Abstract judgment adjectives</b>	They reflect a particular cognitive perspective, either a reaction or a judgment.	<i>important, easy, strange, surprising, beautiful...</i>
<b>Emotion adjectives</b>	They refer to emotional states or feeling reactions resulting from a particular thought or belief.	<i>happy, calm, angry, eager, guilty...</i>

<b>Personal performance or animate adjectives</b>	They recall judgments or evaluations of agents about specific or general acts of those agents.	<i>brave, clever, violent, dumb, reckless...</i>
<b>Activity adjectives</b>	They report animate nouns along action. In turn, they can be easily divided in other semantic sub-groups.	‘Rate’: <i>fast, slow...</i> ‘Sound’: <i>loud, quiet, noisy...</i>

Note. Adapted from Limber (1969, pp. 139-171)

Far more adjective classes relying on the semantic content have been formulated by different authors over time. A review of Dixon’s typology is displayed as considered to be related to the preceding one, but more specified and actualised:

**Table 3.** *Semantic categorisation of adjectives by Dixon*

CATEGORY	EXAMPLES
<b>Dimension</b>	<i>big, small, wide...</i>
<b>Physical property</b>	<i>hard, smooth, heavy...</i>
<b>Colour</b>	<i>red, blue, yellow...</i>
<b>Human propensity</b>	<i>intelligent, jealous, pretty...</i>
<b>Age</b>	<i>new, old, young...</i>
<b>Value</b>	<i>good, excellent, terrible...</i>
<b>Speed</b>	<i>quick, fast, slow...</i>

Note. Adapted from Dixon (1977, p. 31)

Last, an ultimate, most recent, and overly detailed classification is outlined, the one proposed by Krzysztof, who orders adjectives in eight different groups, each of them divided into classes, which are further divided into subclasses, resulting in a total of sixty-eight semantic categories. In the current study, only the focal eight types are shown:

**Table 4.** *Semantic categorisation of adjectives by Krzysztof*

CATEGORY	EXAMPLES
<b>Adjectives usually referring to humans</b>	<i>angry, competent, well-known...</i>
<b>Adjectives describing subjective characteristics of non-human objects</b>	<i>desirable, incomprehensible, successful...</i>
<b>Adjectives describing relations between two non-abstracts objects</b>	<i>isolated, distant, parallel...</i>
<b>Adjectives referring to various types of objects</b>	<i>equivalent, familiar, contradictory...</i>

<b>Unmarked spatial adjectives</b>	<i>long, wide, late...</i>
<b>Deverbal adjectives (participles)</b>	<i>terrified, worried, limited...</i>
<b>Other classes of collocations</b>	<i>dependent, keen, capable...</i>
<b>Adjectives which do not govern other categories</b>	<i>next, above-mentioned, absolute...</i>

Note. Adapted from Krzysztof (2002, pp. 27-39)

In conclusion, semantics of individual lexical items have abstract internal structure and even though intuitively adequate meaning distributions can be drawn, it is quite complex to give an account of all the relations between existing adjectives, so there might be exceptions undoubtedly (Limber, 1969).

The present proposal attempts to classify adjectives in accordance with a specific domain, namely, the adventure tourism. In this regard, the given suggested categories are to be considered to assess to which extent they are suitable for the discerned adjectives, or if they need to be modified or supplemented.

### **3.3. Adjectives in tourism discourse**

#### ***3.3.1. Tourism and technology***

What is known as tourism today has its beginnings in the Industrial Revolution (19<sup>th</sup> century), since it propelled displacements for a great variety of motives: leisure, rest, culture, health, business, or family relations (Edo Marzá, 2012).

For business to run, marketing plays an essential role (Maasalmi, 2013). Until recent years, tourism promotion was done by means of traditional brochures, which were mainly addressed to concrete markets (Edo Marzá, 2012). As stated by this author, nowadays, the Information and Communication Technologies, and concretely, the Internet, have become an indispensable platform for the industry of tourism in general, and for the promotion of tourist destinations in particular. In other words, “the tourism industry is a global enterprise that has captured the relevance of the Web as a new mass medium for contacting potential receivers all over the world and promoting tourist products both in domestic and international markets” (Pierini, 2009, p. 95). This is explained considering that tourist “products and/or services are intangible goods that need

reliable, up-to-date, abundant and detailed information for their promotion, as well as optimal commercialisation” (Edo Marzá, 2011, p. 98).

Thus, websites emerge as the tangible device needed for promotion in the tourism field (Calvi, 2010). In this article, websites are considered a macro gender since they include multiple typologies, such as descriptive guides, blogs, travellers’ forums, and so on. Plus, as it is evident, they can be broadcasted by national or regional institutions, market organisations, or travellers’ communities. Hence, (potential) tourists not only consume information, but they also generate it by sharing their experiences, informing, and helping others (Goethals, 2013). Altogether, the communication in the tourism marketing results to be either from business to consumer (B2C) or from consumer to consumer (C2C) (Suau Jiménez, 2012).

In conclusion:

This is a relatively new phenomenon, as not so long ago the tourism industry relied on (or could only rely on) traditional brochures to promote its destinations and corresponding accommodation. Brochures, of course, have not disappeared but promotion through the web is becoming increasingly common because of its scope, immediacy, economy, speed and visual potential, among many other advantages. (Edo Marzá, 2011, p. 98)

### ***3.3.2. Language of tourism: the use of adjectives***

As it stands, tourism marketing goes hand in hand with websites these days (Edo Marzá, 2012, p. 54). In this regard, “the Internet is acknowledged to significantly contribute to the way people do business” (Thu, 2021, p. 188). Besides, this author suggests that language mechanisms also play an important role as a means to provoke “certain communicative effects” (p. 188). In the case of the industry of tourism, language is essential for transmitting and receiving information adequately, and thus, attracting the potential tourists (Edo Marzá, 2012). This becomes more evident if we consider that certain characteristics can only be made explicit by language, conforming to the author. Based on this, she infers that what tourist information seeks is to provide the potential tourists with the required details to increase their interest for new experiences.

Taking into consideration the many registers related to tourism, Dann (1996, as cited in Pierini, 2009) reflects on the richness and complexity of tourist communication

and language. This is explained as “promotional messages target different people with different strategies emphasising different values” (Pierini, 2009, p. 107). Concerning this question, tourism texts do not only provide descriptions about a certain destination, but also, they constitute a way to express feelings and grab the attention of the readers (Thu, 2021). Nonetheless, despite its various configurations, “tourism discourse has a unifying communicative purpose – persuasion” (Pavličková & Rázusová, n.d., p. 1). These authors declare that this task is met by using the correct linguistic elements. This idea is reinforced by Durán Muñoz (2012), who asserts that one of the main functions of the language of tourism is persuasive.

Leaving aside its variability, the English language of tourism in websites tries to reach all kind of audiences, among them, non-specialists (Pierini, 2009). For this reason, discourse is generally less formal and shows a medium to low level of specialization, being like everyday language (Pierini, 2009; Thu, 2021). After all, tourism texts must ensure “effective and clear communication” (Durán Muñoz, 2012, p. 336) between the persuader and the recipient.

Concretely, in the tourism commerce, it is the “image of the destination” (Reilly, 1990, p. 21) what contains major significance in this sense. Among the various markers, adjectives are conceived as the type of words which best condense this information into one lexeme, apart from the fact that they are the responsible for modifying the meaning of nominal expression giving rise to descriptions and classifications (Edo Marzá, 2011; Thu, 2021). Additionally, adjectives have a “strong interpersonal dimension” (Edo Marzá, 2011, p. 100) and are always used for convincing, reasoning, narrating, and telling (Thu, 2021), since they can express multiple significances: sensorial, emotional, descriptive... (Edo Marzá, 2012). In this sense, this author states that adjectives can perfectly fulfil the persuasion goal by transmitting an adequate image able to attract the potential tourist at issue.

As follows, “since the message has a persuasive purpose, the encoder tries to reassure the receiver by selectively highlighting the positive, brighter aspects of the product” (Pierini, 2009, p. 109). In other words, adjectives are utilized in this context to “present the beauty, allure, and uniqueness of destinations or of attractions” (Manca, 2012, p. 79). With this aim, adjectives are carefully chosen to highlight the positive characteristics of the promoted product and attract the reader, converting him/her in an actual tourist. (Edo Marzá, 2012; Thu, 2021).

In conclusion, lexical choices are dependent on the “domain, discourse type, content of message and medium” (Pierini, 2009, p. 113). With respect to promotional texts, the category of adjectives results to be the most efficient (Edo Marzá, 2011). Thus, the presence of adjectives is inferred to be necessary for the tourism promotion context too (Durán Muñoz, 2019).

### ***3.3.3. Describing and evaluating through adjectives***

Discourse can present the information in two different, complemented manners. In essence, the encoder can describe a certain entity and make judgments on it at the same time (Pierini, 2009). Thus, this writer establishes the existence of both description and evaluation.

Adjectives constitute the word class that allows us either to describe, highlighting some aspect of an entity, and thus, providing objective information, i.e.: descriptive adjectives; or to evaluate, expressing some judgment or emotion, and thus, giving subjective stance, i.e.: evaluative adjectives (Pierini, 2009).

The selection and usage of these two types of adjectives vary across domains and discourse types. Generally speaking, descriptive adjectives are more frequent in technical, scientific and legal domains, while evaluative adjectives are used profusely in discourses where argumentation and persuasion are common, such as advertisement, literature and tourism, amongst others. (Durán Muñoz, 2019, p. 353)

Regarding its characteristics, among them the attempt of persuasion, we find that every tourism discourse, and concretely websites, are full of evaluative adjectives (Manca, 2008; Edo Marzá, 2012).

This particular class of adjectives works effectively in attracting the readers, since they allow the writer to express his/her opinion, and also but not least important, they can provoke in the reader aesthetic feelings. (Edo Marzá, 2011; Durán Muñoz, 2019). Actually, “in promotional texts it is often the feelings and the expected response of the reader that might be considered when using the means of evaluation” (Pavličková & Rázusová, n.d., p. 2).

Thus, evaluative adjectives “enable the author to point out what qualities make the object of interest worth visiting” (Pavličková & Rázusová, n.d., p. 3), appearing to be indispensable “for tourists to be able to form an image” (Edo Marzá, 2011, p. 99) of it. Moreover, they encourage comparisons between the searched entities of the same category (Pavličková & Rázusová, n.d.). In accordance with these authors, the “aesthetic feelings that the visitors might experience” (p. 3) can even make the site more desirable.

Apart from the help and efficiency evoked by the evaluative adjectives, the potential tourists do also need and require factual information (Edo Marzá, 2011). That is, they might want to be provided with objective, neutral, and purely descriptive details.

Viewed in this way, “descriptive adjectives provide a powerful but simple method for examining the image (or lack of an image) that potential or actual consumers hold of a tourism destination” (Reilly, 1990, p. 25).

Descriptive adjectives are key in depicting monuments, places, activities, traditions, typical dishes, etc. They are mainly concerned with physical features, such as colours, cardinal points, geographical descriptions, etc., and greatly contribute, together with visual material, to develop contents in promotional texts and provide tourists (or potential tourists) with rich texts full of descriptions and information that help them to establish what they will see or are looking at. (Durán Muñoz, 2019, pp. 354-355)

All the same, descriptive adjectives also embrace subjectivity to a certain extent, since they are uttered under plenty of different variables (Edo Marzá, 2012).

Overall, promotional texts are characterised for including countless adjectives, which can account either for objective or subjective features. Nonetheless, description and evaluation are not opposite functions, but different ways of pursuing the same objective: persuasion (Goethals & Segers, 2016).

#### ***3.3.4. Adjectives in adventure tourism***

As reflected, adjectives demonstrate to configure a rather significant word class not only in everyday language, but also in specialised areas (Durán Muñoz, 2019). Henceforth, their study is a valuable field of research, especially for scholars striving to comprehensively determine the characteristics of domain-specific discourses. As Durán

Muñoz (2019) suggests, “without the study of adjectives, the linguistic characterisation of any domain-specific discourse, whether lexico-semantic, pragmatic, syntactic or morphological, would be disregarding a relevant part of the discourse” (p. 352).

Attending to tourism discourse from a wider perspective, some descriptive research is already underway regarding the categorisation of its related adjectives (ibid.). Nonetheless, it is still highly limited. By way of explanation, there are numerous textual genres and subdomains to cover yet in order to scope a full comprehensive lexico-semantic understanding of this phenomenon, since each of them comprises unique features and terminology. In this regard, investigations in specific subdomains are needed.

Adventure tourism, in particular, constitutes a pertinent subdomain in the tourism industry to examine, since it is progressively increasing, and it is distinguished by its frequent use of adjectives (ibid.).

This type of tourism is characterised for enclosing a wide range of far, outdoor, nature-related, and risky activities that are frequently commercialized, in which the result is influenced by various factors, including the participant’s abilities, the setting and the experience’s management (Hall, 1992, as cited in Jane & Tucker, 2004).

In an attempt to better understand the tourism adventure importance in relation to its semantic features, as well as to highlight the role that adjectives play in this specific subdomain according to its promotion, a corpus-based categorisation of descriptive and evaluative adjectives used in this context is going to be carried out. In other words, the aim is to outline the rationale of the selection and usage of these two types of adjectives in this discourse and to contribute to the linguistic characterisation of tourism discourse. As a whole, to promote the study of adjectivisation in domain-specific discourses.

#### **4. METHODOLOGY**

The research methodology used relies on data from the ADVENCOR corpus. The procedure is split into two main steps: (1) the extraction and selection of candidate adjectives, and (2) the classification of these adjectives first in two major categories – descriptive and evaluative –, and second in subgroups according to their semantic meaning.



#### 4.1. ADVENCOR corpus

The ADVENCOR corpus consists of a compilation of original, promotional texts about adventure tourism (Durán Muñoz, 2019). It accounts for 1,005,480 tokens written in current English and published digitally by either public or private entities dedicated to the tourism field. Even though the corpus is specialised, since it is referred to the specialised tourist domain, the texts' registers are paradoxically medium-high to medium-low in level of specialisation.

#### 4.2. Extraction and selection of adjectives

The adjectives corpus was withdrawn semi-automatically by means of Sketch Engine, a software tool that gathers data about written materials and presents it considering linguistics features, as well as tallying and statistics. A minimum frequency of appearance was established to five times to avoid random or single text or author uses.

A large resulting list of candidate adjectives was produced. Nonetheless, careful supervision was done manually to filter and avoid possible irrelevant or erroneous data. On this wise, the following candidates were discarded because:

- They belonged to different parts of speech (e.g., *allowed* – verb in past or participle –, or *weather* – noun –).
- They were nouns with a semantic adjectival status (e.g., *crystal*).
- They were proper names (e.g., *Wildcat*).
- They were wrongly written (e.g., *\*withred*).
- They were extracted twice or more; the original, correct form was kept (e.g., *backward*).
- They were abbreviations; the original form was kept if appeared (e.g., *approx.*, and *approximate*).
- They were affixes (e.g., *meta-*).
- They were not part of the corpus (e.g.: *non-self-bailing*).

Hindermost, the final list of adjectives accounted for a total of 470 candidates.

The subsequent tasks consist of categorising them into their respective groups and subgroups according to their semantics.

### 4.3. Classification of selected adjectives

A previous study (Durán-Muñoz & Prieto Mayo, 2023/forthcoming) was carried out to discriminate and group the adjectives in the two large groups: descriptive and evaluative.

Upon initial examination, this procedure may seem straightforward because there is a significant distinction between the two categories; descriptive adjectives indicate objective information, while evaluative adjectives suggest a degree of subjective evaluation (ibid.). In fact, most adjectives were immediately categorised due to their clear-cut nature clarity (e.g., *outdoor* – descriptive –, or *impressive* – evaluative –). However, this initial classification turned out to be difficult and time-consuming due to certain adjectives. This is explained by virtue of subjectivity, which in some cases gave rise to different interpretations and confusion. This is the case, for example, of the adjective *glacial*, which was finally considered to be descriptive, but doubts about its evaluative meaning were also contemplated if considered a speaker’s extremely cold experience of a place. The Sketch Engine tool proved to be useful in many of these cases as it was employed to examine specific contexts.

In the end, the classification amounted to 221 (47%) for descriptive adjectives and 249 (53%) for evaluative adjectives (ibid.).

This finding already stands out one important fact: evaluative adjectives are more frequent in English in this subdomain, which indicates a greater inclination towards using persuasive language by adjectives (ibid). In addition, if all the presented adjectives in the corpus are ordered regarding their frequency (see Table 3 below), it is observed that among the top ten examples, the number of evaluative adjectives, which stands for seven (*high, beautiful, long, full, easy, amazing, and short*), is greater than the descriptive ones.

**Table 5.** 10 top-adjectives extracted from the ADVENCOR corpus with Sketch Engine ordered according to their frequency.

Adjectives in EN	Frequency
<i>high-j</i>	1346
<i>outdoor-j</i>	1330
<i>available-j</i>	915

<i>beautiful-j</i>	835
<i>long-j</i>	716
<i>full-j</i>	672
<i>free-j</i>	652
<i>easy-j</i>	636
<i>amazing-j</i>	549
<i>short-j</i>	491

Note. Adapted from Durán Muñoz & Prieto Mayo (2023/forthcoming)

For the present research, a review on the categorisation of descriptive adjectives in this tourism subdomain is exposed, and then, a categorisation and an analysis of evaluative adjectives is provided, focusing on their defined semantic meaning.

## 5. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Considering the above, the semantic meaning of the descriptive adjectives, on the one hand, and of the evaluative adjectives, on the other hand, were analysed and categorised in further groups accordingly. Related to the classification of descriptive and evaluative adjectives mentioned earlier, the semantic categorisation process was uncomplicated for most adjectives. Nevertheless, a few adjectives were perplexing and needed additional analysis of their contexts.

### 5.1. Categorisation of descriptive adjectives

The categorisation of descriptive adjectives and its respective discoveries were specifically accomplished in the aforementioned study (Durán-Muñoz & Prieto Mayo, 2023/forthcoming). Therefore, an overall view is exposed herein.

In this case, to establish the concrete semantic categories, some previous works were reviewed. Dixon's preceding proposal was used as the basis, together with more specific Pierini (2009) and Goethals and Segers (2019) papers. Even so, further *ad hoc* categories were necessarily added to cover all the selected descriptive units.

By way of explanation, several categories, such as "Temporary location", "Physical, visible characteristics", "Money-related" and "Intangible characteristics" were

rescued from Goethals and Seger’s proposal, while “Human propensity” category and “Colour” and “Physical property” subcategories were taken from Dixon’s (ibid.). Other categories underwent some modifications, like the inclusion of the "Position" feature in the "Geographical location" category proposed by Goethals and Seger. Additionally, “Quantity”, “Time”, and “Authenticity” categories were adapted from Pierini’s study on adjectives in the tourism sector and renamed to “Quantification”, “Temporality”, and “Origin” to better align with the arranged adjectives. Finally, to account for the specific semantics of adventure tourism, *ad hoc* categories and subcategories were created, for example, “Landscape description”, “Climate-related” or “Related to an adventure activity”. A total of 14 semantic categories and their corresponding subcategories were presented.

**Table 6.** *Proposal for descriptive adjectives extracted from the ADVENCOR corpus*

<b>SEMANTIC CATEGORY</b>	<b>SEMANTIC CATEGORY</b>
<b>Abstract/ Intangible characteristics</b>	<b>Physical, visible characteristics:</b> Body-related Climate-related Colour Elaboration Landscape description Material Motion-related Physical property Protection-related Shape
<b>Accommodation</b>	<b>Position/ Geographical location</b>
<b>Fauna</b>	<b>Quantification</b>
<b>Human propensity</b>	<b>Reachness</b>
<b>Level of experience</b>	<b>Related to an adventure activity</b>
<b>Money-related</b>	<b>Temporality</b>
<b>Origin</b>	<b>Temporary location</b>

Note. Taken from Durán Muñoz & Prieto Mayo (2023/forthcoming). The categorisation of descriptive adjectives is included in Annex 1.

## 5.2. Categorisation of evaluative adjectives

With the aim of conducting an original and striking contribution to this tourism subdomain, a categorisation of the evaluative adjectives is proposed next.

In relation to this second piece of research, some other works have also been looked over as conductors, namely, Pierini (2009), Edo Marzá (2011) and (2012), and Goethals and Segers (2016). As before, *ad hoc* categories needed also to be created.

Strictly speaking, the first two substantial categories, expressly, “Non-axiological” and “Axiological”, were retrieved from Edo Marzá’s (2011) paper. Here, she states that the former category involves qualitative or quantitative adjectives which accompany the noun, but do not convey any emotional bias from the speaker, except for their gradual nature. On the other hand, the second category correspond to entirely subjective adjectives which offer either a positive or negative qualitative opinion of the modified noun; they convey the speaker’s favourable or unfavourable stance towards the noun. The “Axiological” category was all together divided into more concrete subcategories. “Aesthetic appreciation” was just taken from Pierini’s work. This subcategory was also found in Goethals and Segers’s and Marzá’s, but with different names. The “Extraordinariness” class was found in Pierini’s and in Goethals and Segers’s’s, in both referring to a positive assessment, including the superlative meanings. The exact name used in our case belongs to Pierini’s. Moreover, the categories related to emotions or senses, which were found in the four studies, were joined into a single subcategory called “Emotional-Sensory appeal”. In line with this example, “Wellness/Comfort” was created as one single subcategory by uniting Pierini’s and Edo Marzá’s proposals. Particularly, “Popularity” was rescued from Pierini’s, and “Uniqueness/Exclusivity”, “Deviance”, and “Size/Strength” from Edo Marzá’s. The rest of subcategories were designed in order to cover those adjectives with specific meanings related to the adventure tourism to a lesser extent. In short, two main categories are displayed, one of which accounts for 22 subcategories.

**Table 7.** *Proposal for evaluative adjectives extracted from the ADVENCOR corpus*

SEMANTIC CATEGORY	
<b>Axiological:</b> Action-related Adequacy Aesthetic appreciation	<b>Non-axiological</b>

Climate-related Deviance Emotional-Sensory appeal Extraordinariness Fauna Human disposition/propensity Inadequacy Intermission Landscape-related Level of experience/Skills Popularity Reachness Requisite-related Security-related Size/Strength Time-related Uniqueness/Exclusivity Universal value Wellness/Comfort	
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Note. The categorisation of evaluative adjectives is included in Annex 2.

In the present case, it firstly stands out the difference in number between the “Axiological” (218 adjectives) and the “Non-axiological” (31 adjectives) categories. This is mainly explained because when an evaluation takes place, it is expected an inherent emotional predisposition, either positive or negative, from the speaker so far as possible, which does not relate to the former class. Along these lines, the two more numerous subcategories are the “Emotional-Sensory appeal”, which has 46 adjectives (*hearty, inspiring, terrifying, etc.*), and the “Extraordinariness” one, with 30 adjectives (*fabulous, magical, indescribable, etc.*).

In addition, and focusing on correlated meanings, the usage of evaluative units serves for providing merely descriptions (see example (1) below) or for indicating complementary opposite forces (see examples (2) and (3) below), respectively<sup>2</sup>.

- (1) Usually it's degraded, chemically altered and cut into millions of *short* fragments.
- (2) Is it also *accessible* for people with a lower educational background.
- (3) ... as well as make buildings *inaccessible* for many people with chemical sensitivities.

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<sup>2</sup> *Italics* have been added to the referent adjectives in all examples shown.

With respect to examples (2) and (3), and their correspondingly positive and negative implications, the referent adjectives are considered to be antonyms. There are more examples of antonyms like these within the corpus, such as *safe-unsafe* or *suitable-unsuitable*. Nonetheless, antonyms do not necessarily have to suggest a positive or negative leaning, but just indicate contrary meanings, for example, *exciting-calm*.

Furthermore, just like there are various pairs of antonyms, pairs of synonyms can also be found. For instance, *memorable-unforgettable*, or *beautiful-alluring*, and even more than two words expressing the same meaning, such as *unparalleled-unique-unrivalled*, or *incredible-magnificent-spectacular*.

Moving on to reasons for categorising constituents into one place or another, there are some concrete adjectives that need to be specified. For example, the adjective *wild* has been categorised into “Landscape-related”. This adjective appears next to many different nouns, from animals (*wild horses*) to food (*wild strawberries*), or even elements related to the climate (*wild rain*). However, all these words are components of the so-called landscape, and many other words this adjective accompanies are specific references to landscape (*wild nature, wild places, wild deserts areas, etc.*).

Another adjective that calls our attention is *endangered*, categorised into “Fauna” basically because its most common use is the collocation *endangered species*, or *endangered* followed by a concrete type of animal, for example, *endangered sea turtles*. Though, it appears in some other contexts too, such as *endangered historical buildings*.

A subcategory that might rise some doubts is the “Deviance” one, taken from Edo Marzá’s work, which includes adjectives that determine predictions, or how closely related something is to what the speaker would expect it to be, for example, *foreseeable*. However, in this case, neither positive nor negative implications are involved. For those cases, subcategories “Adequacy” and “Inadequacy” were created, with examples such as *reasonable*, or *negligent*, subsequently.

Last, the “Universal value” subcategory is designed for those adjectives that result to be versatile, expressly, they can be used in different contexts indistinctively. For example, adjectives like *exotic* or *pet-friendly* (see examples below).

(5) This is an *exotic* digital world.

(6) Oman is ideal for those seeking an *exotic* and unique destination.

(7) Your guides will explain the variety of fruits and vegetables from the area, many with *exotic* tastes and textures.

(8) Newly renovated, *pet-friendly* apartment homes located in the trendy East End in the heart of Hurstbourne.

(9) Open Streets will also offer lots of family- and *pet-friendly* activities.

(10) The *pet-friendly* community also offers optional storage rentals, outdoor fitness stations, a car wash area and beautifully.

Altogether, the use of evaluative adjectives is very frequent with respect to the tourism industry in that they can be used to provide enticing travel descriptions and marketing materials, as well as to evaluate and review travel experiences.

After everything, it must be stressed that a great deal of the evaluative adjectives used in this specific subdomain may be common in many other fields due to their subjective character and the possibility of applying them to different contexts. Some examples are *easy*, *beautiful*, *incredible*, *scared*, *necessary*, etc. Still, there is also more than a little percentage of adjectives that are definite to this subdomain insofar as they outline particular characteristics related to adventure tourism. In other words, they are not so easily transferable to other domain discourses, such as *adventurous*, *challenging*, or *action-packed*.

In short, although there are common adjectives that apply to adventure tourism as well as to other domains, adventure tourism has its own specific set of both descriptive and evaluative adjectives that are distinctive to the field.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

This study, which utilises corpus analysis as its basis, adds to the understanding of the linguistic characterisation of tourism discourse, and more concretely of adventure tourism, by examining a crucial yet often overlooked element: adjectives. In this context, it provides some relevant contributions.

First, it gives an answer regarding the frequency feature. In other words, it documents what type of adjective, that is, descriptive or evaluative, are more frequent in this subdomain. Although it cannot be rejected the fact that both descriptive and



evaluative adjectives play quite an important role when referring to tourism, it was expected that the use of evaluative adjectives would be greater. This speculation finds its basis in the literary reviews, which assert that regarding its attempt of persuasion, every type of tourism discourse would be full of evaluative adjectives (Manca, 2003; Edo Marzá, 2012; Durán Muñoz, 2019). Effectively, it is confirmed that the number of detected evaluative adjectives is a bit higher with respect to the descriptive one, although the difference was expected to be quite more significant.

Moreover, concerning their main differences in usage in relation to the adventure tourism, it is reiterated that descriptive adjectives contribute to objective information, which is also needed and required by potential tourists to create a previous and close image of their destination.

On the other hand, and focusing on the use of evaluative adjectives, these help to describe and highlight the unique characteristics of each experience. Potential tourists in this area seek for adventures and unforgettable experiences, so evaluative adjectives are of use to capture their attention and pique their interest. Based on this, common evaluative adjectives that are found in the corpus are, for instance, *exciting*, *thrilling*, *enthusiastic*, *extreme*, *challenging*, and so on. These units create attractive images of the activities and experiences available, which can be very effective in transforming those potential tourists into actual consumers.

Despite that, it is important to keep in mind that the use of evaluative adjectives can also have an adverse effect on the reputation and image of a tourist destination or an adventure tourism experience. If tourists have a negative episode that does not meet the expectations created by previous evaluations, their opinion and perception would turn rather pessimistic. Consequently, adjectives with negative connotations are also accounted in the corpus, such as *unsuitable*, *fatal*, *negligent*, etc.

Briefly, the use of evaluative adjectives in adventure tourism is an effective tool to attract new tourists, but it is essential to keep honesty within the reality of the experiences offered in order to maintain a consistent and authentic image of the destination and ensure long-term tourist satisfaction.

Overall, adjectivisation in the language of adventure tourism is a crucial part, and that is why related texts are known for containing numerous adjectives, which may

describe either objective or subjective features. Accordingly, description and evaluation are tied in functions that advocate for the same objective: to persuade.

As future lines of research, there is still much to do in this field, including the examination of descriptive and evaluative adjectives in other specific subdomains, a comparative analysis of this subdomain with other subdomains, or even contrastive research on different languages.

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## 8. ANNEXES

### ➤ Annex 1

**Table 8.** *Semantic categorisation of descriptive adjectives*

<b>SEMANTIC CATEGORY</b>	<b>ADJECTIVES</b>
<b>Abstract/ Intangible characteristics</b>	<i>airborne, alcoholic, bridal, breathable, certified, equipped, English-speaking, exposed, handicapped, interpretive, licensed, living, nomadic, optional, pet-friendly, scheduled, spare, thermal, unmarked, uv stabilized</i>
<b>Accommodation</b>	<i>en-suite, family-run, lodge-based, non-residential</i>
<b>Fauna</b>	<i>amphibious</i>
<b>Human propensity</b>	<i>vegetarian</i>
<b>Level of experience</b>	<i>first-time, introductory, non-technical, Olympic, technical</i>
<b>Money-related</b>	<i>add-on, affiliated, all-inclusive, discounted, full-service, insured, non-commercial, non-refundable, payable, rental, refundable, toll-free, uninsured</i>
<b>Origin</b>	<i>Aboriginal, Alpine, Alaskan, Artic, Atlantic, Austrian, Balinese, Basque, Burmese, Caribbean, Croatian, Dominican, Hawaiian, Mediterranean, Mongolian, Nepalese, Nepali, Nordic, Siberian, Slovenian, Swiss, Thai, Tibetan, Tyrolean, Welsh</i>
<b>Physical, visible characteristics</b>	Body-related
	<i>barefoot, foot-launched</i>
	Climate-related
	<i>downwind, heated, polar, rainy, shaded, snow-covered, snow-capped, snowy, soarable, sub-tropical (subtropical), sunny, tropical, wet</i>
	Colour
	<i>aqua, azure, caroty, colorful (AmE) - colourful (BrE), coral, emerald, iridescent, red-blazed, turquoise, verdant</i>
	Elaboration
	<i>bottled, customized, homemade, man-made, tailored, tailor-made</i>
Landscape description	

	<i>arboreal, boreal, cascading, choppy, coastal, craggy, deciduous, forested, glacial, grassy, hilly, jagged, Jurassic, level, marine, mountainous, muddy, nature-related, panoramic, paved, rocky, rugged, rustic, sandy, secluded, sloping, steep, starry, volcanic, wooded</i>
	<b>Material</b>
	<i>stainless, woollen</i>
	<b>Motion-related</b>
	<i>semi-static, slippery, static</i>
	<b>Physical property</b>
	<i>adjustable, collapsible, convertible, elastic, folding, non-motorized, rigid, stretchy, sturdy, waterproof, windproof</i>
	<b>Protection-related</b>
	<i>covered, sheltered</i>
<b>Position/ Geographical location</b>	<i>aerial, all-terrain, aquatic, backward, cross-country, downhill, easterly, east, halfway, indoor, inland, locally-sourced, neighboring, north, northern, one-way, on-site, open-air, outdoor, southwestern, southeast, south, stand-up, subterranean, surrounding, tree-top, underground, underfloor, upstate, upstairs, uphill, underwater, vertical</i>
<b>Quantification</b>	<i>double, half, maximum, solo, triple, twin</i>
<b>Reachness</b>	<i>undiscovered, unexplored, uninhabited, populated</i>
<b>Related to an adventure activity</b>	<i>acrobatic, aerobic, climbable, equestrian, geologic, navigable, nautical, self-guided, speleological, touristic, unweighted</i>
<b>Temporality</b>	<i>all-day, bi-annual (biannual), daylong - day-long, durable, four-day, last-minute, limitless, multi-day, one-day, one-time, overnight, round-trip, seasonal, three-day, two-day, two-hour, year-round</i>
<b>Temporary location</b>	<i>prehistoric</i>

Note. Taken from Durán Muñoz & Prieto Mayo (2023/forthcoming)



➤ **Annex 2**

**Table 9.** *Semantic categorisation of evaluative adjectives*

SEMANTIC CATEGORY	ADJECTIVES
<b>Axiological</b>	Action-related
	<i>action-packed, active, adventurous, arduous, brisk, challenging, daring, demanding, extreme, high-speed, sporty</i>
	Adequacy
	<i>convenient, doable, easy, gentle, moderate, personable, reasonable, suitable, valid, versatile, well-balanced</i>
	Aesthetic appreciation
	<i>alluring, beautiful, gorgeous, impressive, lush, picturesque, quaint, scenic, sparkling, stunning</i>
	Climate-related
	<i>chilly, inclement, temperate</i>
	Deviance
	<i>authentic, foreseeable, likely, unforeseen</i>
	Emotional-Sensory appeal
	<i>adrenaline pumping, advisable, awe-inspiring, breathtaking, calm, captivating, claustrophobic, crisp, daunting, delicious, ducky, enthusiastic, enjoyable, exciting, faint-hearted (fainthearted), friendly, fun-filled, hair-raising, hearty, helpful, inspiring, intimidating, lightweight, luscious, memorable, mellow, mind-blowing, passionate, placid, pleasant, refreshing, relaxing, rewarding, scary, serene, shady, surreal, terrifying, thrilling, tranquil, treacherous, turbulent, unforgettable, weighted, well-deserved</i>
	Extraordinariness
	<i>amazing, awesome, cool, deluxe, enchanting, excellent, fab - fabulous, fantastic, fascinating, good, idyllic, ideal, incredible, indescribable, irresistible, magnificent, magical, phenomenal, perfect, sensational, sheer, spectacular, splendid, super, sumptuous, total, unbelievable, wonderful</i>

	Fauna
	<i>endangered, tame</i>
	Human disposition/propensity
	<i>avid, dramatic, hard-working, high-flying, hooked, intrepid, knowledgeable, like-minded, minded, ready, scared, spirited</i>
	Inadequacy
	<i>fatal, negligent, undeveloped, unsuitable</i>
	Intermission
	<i>leisurely, recreational</i>
	Landscape-related
	<i>bumpy, rough, uneven, wild, wobbly</i>
	Level of experience/Skills
	<i>experienced, expert, fit, intermediate, professional, seasoned, skilled, trained, well-trained</i>
	Popularity
	<i>famous, iconic, reputed, world-class, world-famous</i>
	Reachness
	<i>accessible, crowded, hidden, inaccessible, isolated, unspoiled (unspoilt)</i>
	Requisite-related
	<i>implied, necessary, required</i>
	Security-related
	<i>harmless, protected, safe, unsafe</i>
Size/Strength	
<i>beefy, bitty, expansive, gigantic, giant, husky, lofty, majestic, mighty, minimum, peak, plentiful, restricted, towering</i>	
Time-related	

	<i>age-old, endless, long-established, mid</i>
	Uniqueness/Exclusivity
	<i>exclusive, incomparable, one-of-a-kind, quintessential, top-notch, ultimate, unparalleled, unbeatable, unique, unrivalled, untouched</i>
	Universal value
	<i>contagious, disposable, dormant, eco-friendly, exotic, family-friendly, hands-on, hassle-free, hygienic, informative, packed, pet-friendly, purpose-built, undisturbed, unmatched, used, varied.</i>
	Wellness/Comfort
	<i>comfortable – comfy, cosy (cozy), restful, snug, warm</i>
<b>Non-axiological</b>	<i>airy, approximate, bald, buoyant, cold, dry, ethereal, flat, floating, flowing, frozen, full, high, hot, humid, inherent, icy, long, mystic, narrow, nearby, premier, pristine, retrievable, remote, rolling, shallow, short, spacious, tall, windy</i>