

A Study of the Speech Acts of Command, Advice, and Warning in English

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Abstract

Language serves as a powerful medium not only for expressing thoughts and emotions but also for performing actions that shape human interaction. This paper provides a pragmatic investigation of three directive speech acts in English—command, advice, and warning—with the aim of identifying their similarities, differences, and communicative functions. Drawing on Austin's and Searle's speech act theory, the research explores felicity conditions, pragmatic strategies, and contextual factors that govern the effectiveness of these acts. A comparative qualitative approach was employed to analyze how speakers use commands to enforce authority, advice to guide behavior, and warnings to prevent harm. The findings reveal that while all three acts share the directive function of influencing the hearer, they differ in terms of authority, degree of obligation, tone, and expected response. Commands are authoritative and binding, advice is persuasive and optional, and warnings are preventive and cautionary. The paper highlights the relationship between language, power, and social roles, showing how context and intention shape the illocutionary force of utterances. By clarifying the pragmatic mechanisms underlying these acts, this paper contributes to a deeper understanding of how language functions as a tool of persuasion, regulation, and protection in both academic and everyday communication.

Keywords: *Pragmatics; Speech Acts; Command; Advice; Warning; Felicity Conditions; Communicative Strategies*

1. Section One: Introduction

1.1 The Problem

The speech acts of command, warning, and advice in English are compared in this research, in order to determine the differences and similarities in meaning and usage. It

seeks to respond to the next inquiries:

1. What are the favorable conditions for the English speech acts of command, warning, and advice?
2. What practical techniques are used for the realization of commands, warnings, and advices in English?
3. How do the English speech acts of command, warning, and advice differ and how do they overlap?

1.2 The Aims

1. To look at the felicity conditions regarding English speech acts of warning, command, and advice.
2. To determine the practical methods for implementing commands, warnings, and advice in English.
3. To investigate the differences and similarities among such three English speech acts.

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1.3 The Hypotheses

1. The English speech acts of warning, command, and advice have different felicity conditions.
2. Certain pragmatic approaches, like "You should avoid that area" (warning), "I suggest you take a break" (advice), and "Close the door now!" (command), are used for realizing the speech acts of warning, advice and command.
3. The ways in which such three speech acts are used in English exhibit both differences as well as similarities.

1.4 The Procedures

1. Outlining the theoretical background regarding English's speech acts of warning, command, and advice.
2. Comparatively examining such three speech acts for identifying their differences as well as similarities.
3. Making conclusions from the data to emphasize the main differences and similarities between warning, command, and advice in English.

1.5 The Limitations

The presented work is limited to comparing and contrasting the English speech acts of warning, command, and advice, with a primary aim on their differences and similarities.

1.6 The Value

Researchers interested in pragmatics and speech act theory, especially those doing comparative studies, should find this work useful. Students learning English as a second language can also benefit from it, as it will help them comprehend the differences between warning, command, and advice with regard to their pragmatic methods as well as felicity conditions.

2. Section Two: Theoretical Background

2.1 Introduction

A vital tool of human communication, language enables people to convey their intentions, thoughts, and emotions. Originally established by Austin (1962) from the German word *Sprechakt* by Bühler (1934), speech act theory looks at how language is used for performing actions instead of just convey information (Lyons, 1977). Issuing commands, making requests, offering warnings, and giving advices are just a few of the speech acts that people use to communicate; each has a specific purpose in interactions.

The presented work focuses on three categories of speech acts: warning, command, and advice. Advice, based on Searle (1969), is a directive speech act that recommends a future action that is considered advantageous for the hearer in the future. In contrast to commands, advice offers advantages and reasons for a specific action without imposing an obligation (Pérez Hernández, 2021). Warnings, on the other hand, serve as preventive speech acts that inform the hearer of unfavorable outcomes or possible risks. "Watch out, the ground is muddy!" is an example of a statement meant to warn the listener not to slip.

Commands, are authoritative directives that must be followed right away. For example, "Close the door now!" is a speech act that is usually given by a person in a position of authority.

It is crucial to remember that speech acts depend on the context, and a single sentence might have more than one purpose. For instance, depending on speaker's aim and the context, the statement "I'll see you in two hours" could be taken as a warning, a prediction, or a promise. This demonstrates the complexity of speech acts and their dependence on pragmatic factors such as situational context, speaker identity, and intention.

The purpose of the presented work is examining the pragmatic techniques, felicity conditions, and distinctive characteristics regarding English speech acts of warning, command, and advise for comparing as well as analyzing them. This study advances our knowledge of how such speech acts work in communication through analyzing their differences and similarities.

2.2 The Speech Act of Command

A speech act of command can be defined as a directive, where a speaker requires or instructs that a listener take a certain action. Commands convey authority as well as an expectation of compliance, in contrast to other directive speech acts, such as suggestions or requests (Searle, 1969). With regard to hierarchical relationships, including those between parents and children, employers and employees, and teachers and students, commands are frequently utilized.

The level of directness in commands varies. An indirect command might be phrased as a statement or suggestion (e.g., "It's getting cold in here," suggesting that the listener must close the door), a direct command expresses the necessary action clearly ("Close the door"). Power dynamics, social roles, and politeness considerations are some of the variables that affect how direct one is (Levinson and Brown, 1987).

Commands often differ from requests because they do not offer the listener a real choice in whether to comply. For example, while "Can you pass me the bread?" is technically a request, "Pass me the bread" functions as a direct command.

2.2.1 Felicity Conditions for the Speech Act of Command

For a command to be effective and appropriate, it must meet certain felicity conditions, as outlined in speech act theory (Searle, 1969; Austin, 1962). These conditions ensure that the command is interpretable, enforceable, and contextually appropriate.

1. Propositional Content Condition

- The command must refer to a future action that the listener is expected to carry out.

- Example:

■ Valid: "Submit your report by Monday." (Future action)

■ Invalid: "You submitted your report last Monday." (Past action)

2. Preparatory Condition

- The speaker must believe that the hearer is capable of performing the action.

- The speaker must have the authority or right to issue the command.

- Example:

■ A manager telling an employee, "Prepare the financial report" is appropriate.

■ A child commanding a police officer, "Arrest that person," is not appropriate because the child lacks authority.

3. Sincerity Condition

- The speaker must genuinely intend for the command to be followed.

- Example:

■ If a teacher says, "Finish your assignment," but does not care whether the student completes it, the sincerity

condition is not met.

4. Essential Condition

- The hearer must recognize that the speaker's utterance counts as a command and not as a suggestion, request, or question.
- Example:
 - “You should really complete this task” may be understood as advice rather than a command, depending on the context.

5. Contextual Appropriateness Condition

- The command must be issued in an appropriate social and cultural context.
- Example:
 - A teacher saying, “Open your books” in a classroom is acceptable.
 - A student commanding their teacher, “Give me an A on my assignment,” is inappropriate because the authority relationship does not support it.

When these felicity conditions are met, the command is effective, interpretable, and enforceable in communicative Strategies for Issuing Commands

2.2.2 Speakers use different strategies to issue commands, depending on social relationships, politeness, urgency, and context. Below are the main strategies used in the speech act of command:

1. Direct Commands

- These are explicit and straightforward.
- Typically used in authoritative settings (e.g., military, workplace, or emergencies).
- Examples:
 - “Turn off the lights.”
 - “Submit your assignment now.”

2. Imperatives

- The most common grammatical form for commands: Subject (usually “you”) is omitted, relying on context. Examples:
 - “Stand up.”
 - “Take this to the manager.”

3. Polite Forms

- Commands softened with polite expressions. Often used in professional or social settings.
- Examples:
 - “Could you please send me the files?”
 - “Would you mind turning down the music?”

4. Using Modals for Softened Commands

- Modals (must, should, have to) add emphasis or necessity.

- Examples:

- “You must submit the application today.”

- “You should start the presentation now.”

4. Indirect Commands

- Less forceful and often framed as suggestions or advice.

- Useful for maintaining relationships and reducing conflict.

- Examples:

- “It would be great if you could finish this soon.”

- “The report needs to be completed by Friday.”

5. Positive Framing

- Commands framed positively to encourage cooperation.

- Often includes motivational or persuasive language.

- Examples:

- “Let’s try to wrap this up quickly.”

- “It’s important to get this done today.”

6. Threats or Warnings

- Commands combined with consequences if not followed.

- Used in high-stakes situations.

- Examples:

- “Do it now, or you’ll miss the deadline.”

- “If you don’t clean your room, you will not go out.”

7.Contextual Hints

- Command is implied rather than explicitly stated.

- Common in informal or hierarchical settings.

- Examples:

- “The trash is overflowing.” (Implies: Take out the trash.)

- “We’re running low on paper.” (Implies: Order more paper.)

8.Using Questions as Commands

- Rhetorical or leading questions function as indirect commands.

- Used to soften directness and reduce resistance.

- Examples:

- “Can you help me with this task?”
- “Why don’t you start working on that project now?”

8. Intonation and Stress in Spoken Commands

- In speech, tone and emphasis can convey urgency.
- A firm tone signals a command without needing direct wording.
- Examples:
 - “Stop right there!” (Firm tone signals urgency.)
 - “Now, listen carefully.” (Stress on “now” increases authority.)

2.3 The Speech Act of Advice

The act of advising is considered a face-threatening act, as it places the hearer in a position where they are implicitly encouraged to undertake a specific course of action, thus limiting their available alternatives (Jenetto, 2019:44). Advice inherently carries the illocutionary force of recommending a future action that the speaker believes will be beneficial to the hearer. While similar to requests, advice diverges by not only urging a future action but also guiding the hearer toward the most optimal course of action (Hinkel, 1997: 3).

According to Searle (1969:7), advice is defined as “telling you what is best for you.” In his speech act classification, advice is categorized as a directive act, wherein the speaker seeks to have an impact on the behavior of the hearer. While advice shares similarities with requests, the key distinction lies in its prescriptive nature, as it is intended to benefit the hearer (Al-Aadeli, 2013:17).

Searle (1979:29) further asserts that advising can serve two illocutionary functions: the directive and the assertive. For instance, “I advise you to go there” represents a directive, while “Passengers are hereby advised that the train will be delayed” illustrates an assertive. In the former, the speaker directs the hearer toward a specific future action, whereas in the latter, the speaker provides information that implies a suggestion without directly directing the hearer.

Brown and Levinson (1987:82) contend that advice can be a face-threatening act because it imposes a form of obligation on the hearer, restricting their freedom of choice. Additionally, it positions the speaker as an authority figure who is presumed to know what is best for the hearer, thereby exerting influence over their actions.

Hinkel (1997:5) emphasizes that advice-giving is a nuanced speech act, which should be approached cautiously. It is essential that the speaker is reasonably confident that the hearer is likely to follow the advice, and that the advice be hedged and softened for the purpose of avoiding to offend the hearer. Moreover, the speaker is generally expected to have the requisite authority or right to provide such advice.

2.3.1 Felicity Conditions of Advice

Searle (1969:67) outlines a set of felicity conditions that govern the speech act of advice. Those conditions are as follows:

1. Propositional Content Condition (PCC): The speaker expects the hearer to perform a future action.
2. Preparatory Condition (PC):
 - (A) The speaker has a reasonable basis for believing that the action will be beneficial for the hearer.
 - (B) It isn’t evident to the speaker as well as the hearer that the hearer will undertake the action under normal circumstances.
3. Sincerity Condition (SC): The speaker genuinely believes that the proposed action will be advantageous for the hearer.
4. Essential Condition (EC): The speaker’s intention is for their utterance to be understood as advice, aimed at serving the hearer’s best interests.

2.3.2 Strategies for Giving Advice

Martinez-Flor (2003, p. 144) identifies three primary strategies for expressing advice: direct, indirect conventionalized, and indirect non-conventionalized strategies.

1. Direct Strategy: This approach is pragmatically explicit and can be realized through four distinct forms:

- Imperatives: For example, "Study!"
- Negative Imperatives: Example: "Do not go out until late!"
- Declarative Sentences with Modal Verbs: Such as "You should study more for that exam," or "You must read this book; it's great!"

● Performative Statements: These include utterances like "I advise you to study more."

2. Indirect Conventionalized Strategy: This strategy involves indirect but culturally recognized expressions of advice. It includes:

- Conditionals: For example, "If I were you, I would study more."
- Probability: Expressed by using modals indicating likelihood, such as "It might be better for you to study harder."
- Specific Formulae: These appear in declarative or interrogative sentences, such as "Why don't you study a bit more?" or "You might want to study more" (Matsumura, 2001, p677).

3. Indirect Non-Conventionalized Strategy: This strategy is characterized by subtle hints where the speaker's intentions aren't explicitly stated. An example would be, "You want to pass, don't you?" (Martinez-Flor, 2003, p144).

2.4 The Speech Acts of Warning

Warning is a crucial linguistic tool used to alert the hearer to take a particular action in response to a potential hazard. De Green (1970: 313) defines warning as "the devices that are required for calling the hearer's attention to an action that he has to take in relation to the action." From a psychological perspective, Letho and Miller (1998: p16) describe warning as "specific stimuli which alter the user to the presence of a hazard, thus triggering the processing of additional information that is related to the hazard's probability, nature, and magnitude." In line with this, Doris and Purswell (1987: 443) understand warning as "messages that are intended for reducing personal property damage risks by the induction of certain behavioral patterns and prohibiting or discouraging certain behavioral patterns."

From these definitions, it is evident that warning serves as a mechanism that transitions from simple alerting (i.e., calling attention) to informing, instructing, and ultimately inducing the hearer to take protective or preventative action. As a speech act, Austin (1962: p155-156) classified warning under the category of exercitives, which he defines as "the exercising of rights, powers, or influence." He further elaborates that it involves giving a decision in favor of or against some particular course of action, or advocating for it. Examples of this are:

1. "I warn you, it is about to charge."
2. "You are warned that the bull is dangerous."
3. "It is going to charge."

Due to the fact that warnings are often issued based on the assumption that something unpleasant or undesirable could happen to the hearer, Searle (1969: p67) suggests that the majority of warnings are hypothetical, asserting that if a certain condition is not met, an undesirable outcome will occur. This is exemplified in the following statement:

4. "If you don't eat, you'll be punished."

Additionally, Quirk et al. (1985: 1088) agreed that warnings are inherently conditional. They argue that successfully performing a speech act of warning, especially in implicit speech that involves if-conditional utterances, depends on the hearer's correct interpretation of the warning. For instance:

5. "She's resigning, if you know what I mean."

Warning can take a couple of main forms, which are: verbal and non-verbal. Verbal warnings are explicit and communicated through direct utterances, such as "That tree is about to fall towards you." On the other hand, non-verbal warnings can be conveyed through actions like pointing silently at a falling tree or exhibiting physical cues like a mouth agape (Fraser, 1975: 169).

Furthermore, warnings can be classified into intentional and unintentional forms. For instance, if a person mentions having seen the police around, they may be issuing an intentional warning (suggesting the need to flee) or simply making an observation. Therefore, specific criteria and conditions must be met for the act of warning to be considered effective. If any of these conditions are violated, the act of warning becomes infelicitous. Those conditions, which are referred to as Felicity Conditions, are defined by Crystal (1985: p120) as the requirements that must be satisfied for a speech act to achieve its intended purpose.

Based on Austin, statements can be divided to 3 types, which are: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Regarding illocutionary acts, Austin posits that the "power" behind a warning is expressed through the performative acts of the following statements:

1. "Do not run with scissors."
2. "I warn you, do not run with scissors."

The first statement, in case of being expressed in some specific context, carries the illocutionary power of a warning. This statement can be categorized as a performative act, which does not hold truth-value in isolation. The second statement, however, is more explicit in conveying the warning as a result of the presence of the verb "warn." When hearers encounter either of these statements, they recognize the utterance as a warning, instead of responding to a specific request or action.

Allwood (1977) discusses how the conventional content of words that had been used in a particular situation usually determines whether an utterance is recognized as a warning, either implicit or explicit. Consider the following examples:

1. "There's a bull in the meadow." (Implied Performative)
2. "I warn you, there's a bull in the meadow." (Explicit Performative)

The lexical content and indicative form of the second utterance signal that it is indeed a warning, instead of a promise, which suggests that certain norms of warning are not required, as lexical conventions inherently connect the speech act of warning to its content.

In line with Korta's (2007) view of speech acts, which are communicative acts that are performed through written or oral language, warnings can be expressed in a variety of forms. For instance, Korta emphasizes that different phrases can express the same function of warning. These phrases include:

"I bet that there is a dangerous animal there."

"I guarantee that there is a dangerous animal there." "I warn you that there is a dangerous animal there."

Additionally, Nicoloff (1989) distinguishes between warning and threatening.

Warning is described as a cooperative act, where the speaker alerts the hearer to be on guard against possible

dangers. Threats, by contrast, are aggressive acts. Austin also differentiates between warning and threatening, categorizing threats as perlocutionary acts and warnings as illocutionary acts (cited in Recanati, 1987).

A key distinction in Austin's work lies in his categorization of implicit and explicit performatives. For example, the imperative "Do not do it" contains an implicit illocutionary force, where the speaker's intention is not explicitly stated. Depending on contextual factors such as paralinguistic or kinesic cues and the power dynamics between the speaker and the hearer, this utterance could be interpreted as a warning, a request, a command, or an advice (Austin, 1962).

In conclusion, Nicoloff (1989) outlines that utterances such as "informing, ordering, warning, undertaking" are examples of illocutionary acts, while perlocutionary acts include the consequences of those utterances, such as convincing, persuading, discouraging, or even shocking the hearer. Austin's focus on illocutionary acts emphasizes that the "power" of the sentence lies in its illocutionary force, demonstrated in examples like "Don't run with scissors," which serves as a warning when delivered in an appropriate context.

2.4.1 Felicity Conditions of Warning

Based on definition and characteristics of the speech act of warning, specific conditions must be fulfilled to distinguish it from other speech acts. These conditions can be exemplified in a scenario where a speaker (S) addresses a hearer (H) through an utterance (T) concerning a propositional content (P). For (T) to qualify as a sincere and appropriate act of warning, the following conditions must be met:

1. The speaker (S) informs the hearer (H) of a future action or event that concerns the well-being of (H).
2. The speaker (S) desires the hearer (H) to perform the recommended action, even if it may not align with the speaker's personal interests.
3. The speaker (S) believes that the hearer (H) is capable of taking the necessary action and that doing so is in (H)'s best interest.
4. The speaker (S) assumes that the hearer (H) is unaware of the potential risk or hazard under normal circumstances.
5. The speaker (S) perceives it as their responsibility to inform the hearer (H) of the risk or recommended action.
6. The speaker (S) communicates the warning explicitly to the hearer (H).
7. Both speaker (S) and hearer (H) understand the utterance (T) in its intended context.
8. The speaker (S) and hearer (H) are conscious, rational individuals capable of comprehending the situation.
9. The communication occurs in normal circumstances and is not intended as a joke, part of a play, or other non-serious contexts.

The explanation below outlines Searle's (1969:67) general felicity conditions as they relate to the speech act of warning:

1. Propositional Content Condition: The warning refers to future events (E) or states.

2. Preparatory Condition:

(A) The speaker (S) believes that event (E) will happen and that it isn't in the best interest of the hearer (H).

(B) The hearer (H) is not already aware that event (E) will occur.

3. Sincerity Condition: The speaker (S) genuinely believes that event (E) is detrimental to the hearer's (H) interests.

4. Essential Condition: The utterance (T) serves as a warning, aiming to alert the hearer (H) and help them avoid the undesirable event (E).

By meeting these conditions, a warning effectively communicates potential risks and encourages the hearer to take preventive action.

2.4.2 Strategies for Expressing Warning

According to Merriam-Webster's Dictionary (2022), a warning can be defined as a statement or action that informs someone about a potential danger or problem.

Warning strategies are generally categorized to 4 basic types, which are: requesting, threatening, alerting, and advising, which are explained in detail below.

1) Requesting

Warnings can be expressed as requests using imperative as well as declarative sentence structures. Declarative sentences typically contain a subject that precedes the verb and are commonly used for making statements (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1990). For example:

"Please be careful, some wires are bare." (Declarative, polite request) "Watch out! Some wires are bare." (Imperative, explicit warning)

Both sentences serve the same function of alerting the listener, but the first one is more polite due to the inclusion of "please," whereas the second is more direct and urgent. Imperative sentences are often used to give commands, such as "Pick up the book!", but they can also function as warnings, as seen in the following examples: "Don't sit! It is wet." (Direct warning, strong command)

"Hey, don't sit! There's water; it is dirty now." (More detailed warning with additional reasoning)

In the first case, the use of "don't" conveys a strong request with a command-like tone. In the second, the warning is softened slightly by providing additional context about the wet and dirty surface.

2) Alerting

An alert serves as a precautionary warning against imminent danger. For example: "Watch your step."

Here, the speaker warns the listener to be careful while walking, though the reason behind the warning is not explicitly stated. Depending on the situation, this could be perceived as either helpful or offensive, depending on how it is delivered.

3) Threatening

Based on the study by Brown and Levinson (1987), threats can impact the positive as well as the negative face—the social image or self-esteem of an individual. A face-threatening act (FTA) takes place when a warning opposes the desires or expectations of the listener. Examples include:

"Try to wake up earlier in order to be on time; or else, you'll be punished." "This is your final warning; I hope you do not repeat this mistake."

These statements serve as both warnings and threats, as they imply consequences for non-compliance. Threats in warnings suggest that the listener has the ability to follow the request, but failure to do so will result in negative consequences (Nicoloff, 1989).

4) Advising

Warnings can also take the form of advice, offering guidance rather than direct commands. For example:

"It would be better to arrive on time to avoid missing important lessons."

"If you continue being late, you might face difficulties keeping up with class discussions."

This type of warning is more persuasive and educational, aiming to inform the listener of potential negative outcomes rather than forcing them to comply.

2.4.3 The Realizations of Warning

Warnings can be categorized into explicit, implicit, imperative, declarative, interrogative, and elliptical forms.

1. Explicit Warning – Clearly stated with performative verbs, such as: "I warn you not to stand in front of me." "I hereby warn you that there's a bull in the field."
2. Implicit Warning – Relies on context rather than direct phrasing, e.g.: "Danger!" "You should come earlier."
3. Imperative Warnings – Often commands or directives, such as: "Be careful, will you?" "Stand away from the bull."
4. Declarative Warnings – Used in unavoidable situations: "The severe-weather warning remains in force." "If you run fast, you'll fall down."
5. Interrogative Warnings – Rhetorical questions that imply caution: "Do I hear anyone laughing?" (Implying they should stop)
6. Elliptical Warnings – Short, context-dependent phrases: "Fire!" "No loitering."

Each form serves to alert, caution, or prevent harm, varying in directness and urgency.

2.4.4 Warning and Other Related Speech Acts

Warnings are closely linked to threats, prohibitions, commands, advice, and suggestions, but they differ in intent and function.

(A) Warning vs. Threatening

Porter (1993:35) defines a threat as potential harm in the environment, whether the hearer is aware of it or not. Threats often come from an authority figure and impose negative consequences, while warnings are meant to protect the hearer and offer guidance rather than punishment.

(B) Warning vs. Prohibition

A prohibition aims to prevent an action based on the speaker's authority, often prioritizing their own interests. In contrast, a warning informs the hearer about potential danger, allowing them to choose whether to act on it.

(C) Warning vs. Command

According to Adler (1980:11), commands direct someone to take action, usually issued by an authoritative figure. Warnings, however, do not require authority and are focused on alerting the hearer to danger rather than demanding compliance.

(D) Warning vs. Advising

Searle (1979:28) suggests that warnings and advice both provide information for the hearer's benefit. However, advice encourages a positive action, while warnings focus on preventing negative consequences.

(E) Warning vs. Suggestion

Both warnings and suggestions aim to influence behavior, but suggestions are weaker and lack urgency. While warnings highlight risks and potential harm, suggestions simply offer alternative choices without serious consequences (Kaul, 2002:25).

3 Section Three: Comparison between the Speech Acts of Command, Advice, and Warning

3.1 Similarities:

1. Directive Function – All three speech acts aim to influence the hearer's actions or decisions. They serve as guidance, instructing the hearer on what to do or avoid.
2. Speaker's Intent – Each involves the speaker communicating expectations or recommendations, whether through obligation (command), suggestion (advice), or caution (warning).
3. Expected Response – The speaker anticipates some form of action or change in behavior from the hearer after receiving the message.
4. Use of Imperatives – Commands, advice, and warnings can all be expressed through imperative sentences, such as:

Command: Close the door!

Advice: You should close the door to keep the room warm. Warning: Close the door, or you'll catch a cold!

5. Context-Dependent – The effectiveness of each speech act is dependent on the social and situational context, which includes the correlation between the speaker and hearer.

3.2 Differences:

1. Speaker's authority: People in positions of authority, such as parents, employers, or teachers, usually issue commands. Whereas warnings are not based on authority, yet are frequently based on the speaker's awareness regarding possible risks, advice could be given by anybody with experience or knowledge.
2. Degree of Obligation: The hearer is directly obligated to comply with commands, which demand strict adherence. The hearer is free to choose whether or not to heed the advice. Although warnings urge caution, the hearer has the final decision.
3. Force and Tone: Commands tend to be authoritative and firm, with little opportunity for compromise. The goal of advice is to instead of impose; it is persuasive and gentle. The cautious and urgent warnings highlight the possible consequences of disregarding the message.
4. Purpose: Commands are applied for enforcing regulations, rules, or instructions that should be followed. The purpose of advice is to assist a person in making a beneficial decision. The purpose of warnings is protecting the hearer from potential danger or harm.
5. Expected Response: The hearer is supposed to obey without question. The hearer is completely free to reject or accept advice. Although the hearer has a choice, disregarding a warning could have unfavorable effects.
6. Sentence Structure: Imperative and direct commands, like "Sit down!" It is common for advice to contain modal verbs, such as "might" or "should," as in "You should sit down to rest." Consequences are often included with warnings, like "Sit down, or you'll hurt your back."

4 Conclusion

Directive speech acts, such as advice, warnings, and commands, are used for influencing the decisions as well as actions regarding others. Although they both aim to guiding behavior, they vary in terms of the amount of force used, the speaker's authority, and the degree of obligation placed on the hearer. Since it emphasizes how language is utilized for persuading, directing, or cautioning others, an understanding of such distinctions is crucial in both academic discourse and daily communication.

The most authoritative of the three are commands, which are usually given by an employer, parent, or teacher in a position of power. They are meant to be blindly followed, leaving little to no opportunity for choice. Commands are straightforward and frequently employ imperative phrases like "Stand up" or "Close the door." Although politeness techniques could occasionally soften commands, they always convey the expectation of compliance.

Contrarily, advice is less forceful and lets the hearer decide what to do depending on the speaker's suggestion. Advice, as opposed to commands, is meant to direct the hearer toward a positive action rather than to be mandatory.

In phrases like "It would be better to study in advance" or "You should exercise more," modal verbs, such as "ought to" or "should" are frequently used. Whereas advice suggests a preferred course of action, it does not require instant compliance and is usually offered with the hearer's best interests in mind.

Through warning someone of possible risk or unfavorable outcomes, warnings accomplish a distinct goal. Warnings stress caution and the avoidance of harm, in contrast to advice and commands, which concentrate on directing behavior. Explicit ones, like "I warn you not to touch that," or implicit ones, like "Be careful, the floor is wet," are both possible. Warnings strongly imply that disregarding them may have unfavorable consequences, even though they may not always entail an obligation. Although warnings occasionally include a subtle threat, their principal purpose is still to keep the hearer safe.

In summary, advice, warnings, and commands all seek to influence behavior, but they vary in their level of warnings, advice, and commands; Warnings are cautionary statements intended to avoid negative outcomes, advice is a non-binding suggestion intended to assist the hearer, and commands are strict directives that must be followed. Understanding how people use language for guiding, persuading, and interacting others in a variety regarding social as well as professional contexts requires an awareness of such contrasts.

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