

# Speech Act of Advice in Chinese: A Comparative Analysis of Chinese and Korean College Students

Ziying Wen, Fanfan Chen

Shantou University, Shantou, 515063, China

**Abstract:** With the increasing number of international students in China, mastering Chinese language has become an essential skill. The speech act in Chinese of international students are often influenced by their mother tongue and cultural environment. This study aims to explore the Chinese advice speech act pattern of Korean international students. This study conducted a questionnaire survey using discourse completion test between Korean international students in China and Chinese local students to compare and analyze their Chinese advice speech acts in terms of meaning, structure, and behavior. The results show that there are certain similarities and differences between two groups in Chinese advice speech act pattern. This study provides practical and theoretical implications for Korean international students to adapt to Chinese culture, as well as new ideas and methods for cross-cultural linguistic and pragmatic research.

**Keywords:** Speech Acts, Chinese (Second Language), Korean International Students, Cross Cultural Studies, Mixed Methods Research.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Research Background

In recent years, with the increasing number of international students coming to China, South Korea, as our neighboring country, has also seen a gradual rise in the number of its students studying in China. However, due to the existence of both similarities and differences between Korean and Chinese cultures, Korean students studying in China often encounter linguistic and communicative challenges that differ from those faced by native Chinese speakers. As second language learners of Chinese, Korean students studying in China not only need to master the grammar and vocabulary system of the Chinese language but also require the ability to appropriately use Chinese for communication in different contexts and with different interlocutors. One common aspect of daily speech acts is "giving advice," and how to implement advice accurately and appropriately is a challenge faced by Korean students studying in China.

This paper primarily focuses on two research questions:

First, what are the linguistic patterns and differences in speech acts of Korean students studying in China when expressing their positions in giving advice compared to native Chinese speakers?

Second, why do Korean students studying in China exhibit differences in linguistic patterns of giving advice compared to native Chinese speakers?

### 1.2 Research Objectives

This study aims to investigate the speech acts of Korean students studying in China in terms of giving advice in Mandarin Chinese through a questionnaire survey. The focus is on their everyday speech behaviors, specific Chinese language contexts, and an analysis combining theoretical frameworks to understand the different ways, meanings, and outcomes of giving advice demonstrated by Korean students studying in China at various levels of proficiency. The study aims to systematically address the following three aspects:

The typical or common patterns of speech acts used by Korean students studying in China when expressing their positions in giving advice.

The differences in cooperative principles and politeness principles reflected in the linguistic meanings of their speech acts compared to native Chinese speakers.

The differences in anticipatory structures and information structures in their speech acts compared to native Chinese speakers.

By integrating speech act theory, this paper will analyze and study the above three aspects to identify the challenges Korean students studying in China face in adapting to the Chinese language context and system. Specific recommendations will be provided to expedite the adaptation of Korean students studying in China to Chinese culture, thereby offering more avenues for Sino-Korean cultural research.

## **2. Literature Review**

Speech act behavior is an important aspect of pragmatics studied by scholars from various countries. When international students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds use Mandarin Chinese, their speech acts are often influenced by their native language and cultural environment, resulting in certain differences in their speech behavior. Existing research mainly focuses on specific speech acts, such as Yang Lei's "A Study of Modern Chinese Apology Speech Acts" (2012), Fan Hongwei's "A Study of Russian Refusal Speech Acts" (2007), and Fang Zhiying's "An Analysis of Chinese Advice Speech Acts" (2005).

In Yu Kexin's "An Investigative Study on Mandarin Chinese Direct Complaint Speech Acts by Intermediate and Advanced Learners" (2021), through discourse completion tests and other methods, the study compared and analyzed the differences between intermediate and advanced Chinese learners and native speakers in terms of syntax, speech acts, and strategic choices. The study also examined relevant complaint language materials in the "Developing Chinese" textbook and the HSK examination. The research findings indicated that intermediate and advanced Chinese learners had certain deficiencies and differences compared to native speakers when implementing Mandarin Chinese direct complaint speech acts. This study provides substantial references and insights for Chinese language education and language and culture research.

In Sun Tianli's "Investigation of 'Advice' Speech Acts by Korean Intermediate Chinese Learners and Teaching Recommendations" (2016), a questionnaire survey was conducted on Korean intermediate Chinese learners to study their acquisition of Mandarin Chinese "advice" speech acts. Based on the current status of Chinese as a foreign language education, specific teaching recommendations were proposed in three aspects: textbook compilation, teaching process, and learner factors.

This study will employ a questionnaire survey method and set up six Chinese advice language contexts. Both Chinese students and Korean students studying in China will be surveyed. Through discourse completion tasks and a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, the study will compare and analyze the speech act patterns of Korean students studying in China, investigating the differences in linguistic meanings, linguistic structures, and speech behavior exhibited between China and South Korea. This research aims to provide more research avenues for the study of language and culture in China and South Korea.

## **3. Theoretical Framework**

### **3.1 Theory of Speech Acts**

#### **3.1.1 Origin and Development of Speech Act Theory**

The theory of speech acts is a philosophical theory of language. Prior to the development of this theory, most philosophers of language adhered to the logical positivist language theory, which states that the central idea of language understanding must conform to the condition of "logic-semantics," where general declarative sentences merely express truth or falsehood, stating facts. This can be summarized as "the meaning of a sentence lies in whether its truth or falsity can be verified" (Jin, 2018). However, many languages rely not only on syntax and logic from a semantic perspective, and

language expression is not merely about "saying something." Most of the time, language can be analyzed from the perspective of pragmatics, and language expression can involve "doing something with words" or even "accomplishing something with words." The theory of speech acts challenges the previously established understanding of language and offers a new perspective on language comprehension.

### 3.1.2 Austin's Three-Fold Classification of Speech Acts

Based on the theory of locutionary acts, J.L. Austin proposed a more comprehensive theory to encompass all speech acts. This theory, known as Austin's three-fold classification of speech acts, has been widely accepted in pragmatics-related studies.

He Ziran (2009) pointed out that according to Austin's three-fold classification of speech acts, speech acts can be divided into three parts:

X. Locutionary act - "saying something"

Y. Illocutionary act - "doing something with words"

Z. Perlocutionary act - "accomplishing something with words"

In the "locutionary act" stage, it involves producing sounds and constructing meaningful words. Within X1, it includes meaningful vocabulary, grammatically correct sentences, and proper intonation. In simple terms, it involves integrating meaningful words and phrases into coherent sentences using correct intonation. Austin summarized this as "act of saying something." The "illocutionary act" refers to the use of words with intentions during speech. He Ziran (2009) states that Austin summarized it as "act in doing something," and the relationship between the two can be explained as "In saying something, I was doing Y" (Austin, 1995). The "perlocutionary act" refers to the impact on the hearer after uttering words, which is the outcome of the speech act. The relationship among the three can be explained as "By saying X and doing Y, I did Z" (Mori, 1980).

### 3.2 Manifestation of Speech Acts

Jin (2018) points out that Searle categorized speech acts into direct speech acts and indirect speech acts based on the degree of congruence between the speaker's intention and the literal meaning. The former implies the speaker's intention directly, while the latter does not have an apparent intention expressed in the sentence. The act of giving advice falls into this category. Speech acts are primarily manifested through locutionary acts, as discussed in section 2.1.1, where we have already introduced locutionary acts and provided examples to differentiate them from ordinary declarative sentences. Locutionary acts can be further classified into five types: explicit performative utterances, implicit performative utterances, embedded performative utterances, indirect performative utterances, and passive performative utterances. This paper mainly discusses the first four types, while the fourth type, indirect performative utterances, represents the manifestation of indirect speech acts.

(1) Explicit performative utterances:

Explicit performative utterances use declarative sentence structures and directly state the act being performed. The key characteristic is the presence of performative verbs that serve as the main verbs of the entire sentence. Examples include "warn," "promise," "apologize," "advise," and other words that convey specific intentions.

(2) Implicit performative utterances:

Implicit performative utterances differ from explicit performative utterances in that they do not require performative verbs. They have the same sentence structure as general declarative sentences and express "doing something with words" in specific contexts.

(3) Embedded performative utterances:

Embedded performative utterances also involve performative verbs, but these verbs do not serve as the main verbs of the sentence. The speech act function and the act of language behavior coexist in these utterances.

(4) Indirect performative utterances:

He Ziran (2009) points out that indirect performative utterances, as proposed by Searle, refer to situations where the speaker uses indirect means of language to perform a speech act for certain reasons or intentions. This may be done out of politeness, to avoid directly expressing a negative attitude, or to let the hearer infer the speaker's "indirect intention" through the "literal meaning" of the words

### 3.3 Pragmatic Analysis of Linguistic Meaning

He Ziran (2009) pointed out that American linguist H.P. Grice delivered three lectures at Harvard University in 1967, where he discussed the basic principles that must be followed by both parties in a conversation to ensure smooth communication between individuals. People tend to understand and cooperate with each other in communication, which is known as the Maxims of Conversation.

However, there are instances, as Yu Zhonggen (2018) indicated, where language compliance in the process of conversational communication contains pragmatic violations. Different individuals have their own pragmatic needs during dialogues, and these needs can coexist with both consistency and conflict. In other words, when one party does not adhere to the principle of cooperation, it is often due to lying or politeness, influenced by different contexts. This refers to the adherence to cooperative rules in the linguistic meaning during a conversation. When the rules are followed, the linguistic meaning is the general meaning. However, intentional violations of the rules are referred to as special meanings.

## 4. Research Design and Methods

### 4.1 Research Participants and Sample Selection

The research participants are divided into two groups: native Chinese speakers and Korean students studying in China.

#### 4.1.1 Native Chinese Speakers

The survey includes 97 native Chinese speakers from various universities across China. The participants, consisting mainly of university students, are primarily aged between 18 and 25. They are proficient in speaking standard Mandarin Chinese and represent the native Chinese speakers in this survey.

Table1 Gender

| Male | Female |
|------|--------|
| 50   | 47     |

Among the native Chinese speakers, males account for 51.55% of the participants, while females account for 48.45%.

Table2 Age

| Under 18 | 18-25 | 26-35 | Above 35 |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|
| 3        | 87    | 6     | 1        |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (89.69%) fall within the age range of 18 to 25 years old. Participants below 18 years old account for 3.09% of the sample, while those above 26 years old account for 7.19%.

Table3 Education

| High School | Undergraduate | Graduated | Other |
|-------------|---------------|-----------|-------|
| 9人          | 71人           | 5人        | 12人   |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (73.2%) have a bachelor's degree. Participants with a high school diploma account for 9.28% of the sample, while those with a master's degree represent 5.15% of the participants. Additionally, 12.37% of the participants have other educational backgrounds or cultural levels.

#### 4.1.2 Korean Students Studying in China

The survey includes 94 Korean students studying in various universities across China. They were contacted through friend referrals, social media direct messages, and other means. The participating universities include Shantou University, Jinan University, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Shanghai International Studies University, Jilin University, South China Normal University, among others. The participants are undergraduate or graduate students, primarily aged between 18 and 25 years old. Nearly half of them have passed HSK Level 1 or higher, indicating a basic ability to understand and speak Mandarin Chinese. They represent the non-native Chinese speakers in this survey.

Table4 Gender

| Male | Female |
|------|--------|
| 61   | 33     |

Among the native Chinese speakers, males account for 64.89% of the participants, while females account for 35.11%.

Table5 Age

| Under 18 | 18-25 | 26-35 |
|----------|-------|-------|
| 3        | 64    | 27    |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (68.09%) fall within the age range of 18 to 25 years old. Participants below 18 years old account for 3.19% of the sample, while those above 26 years old represent 28.72% of the participants.

Table6 Education

| Undergraduate | Graduated |
|---------------|-----------|
| 80            | 14        |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (85.11%) have a bachelor's degree. Participants with a master's degree account for 14.89% of the sample.

Table7 Duration of Study in China

| Less than 1 Year | 1-3 Years | 3-5 Years | More than 5 Years |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|
| 44               | 47        | 2         | 1                 |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (96.81%) have been studying in China for up to 3years. Participants with more than 3 years of study in China account for 3.19% of the sample.

Table8 HSK level

| The highest level of Mandarin proficiency is HSK Level 1. | The highest level of Mandarin proficiency is HSK Level 2. | The highest level of Mandarin proficiency is HSK Level 3 or above. | Not having taken the HSK exam but being able to communicate in Chinese. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 13                                                        | 43                                                        | 2                                                                  | 36                                                                      |

Among the native Chinese speakers, the majority (59.57%) have passed HSK Level 1 or HSK Level 2. Participants who have passed HSK Level 3 or above account for 2.13%. Additionally, 38.3% of the participants have not taken the HSK exam but are able to communicate in Chinese.

## 4.2 Research Methods

### 4.2.1 Questionnaire Survey

This study will utilize a questionnaire survey method to design separate questionnaires for Korean students studying in China and native Chinese speakers. The aim is to understand the speech act patterns exhibited by both groups when giving advice in specific Chinese language contexts.

### 4.2.2 Discourse Completion Test

The Discourse Completion Test will be used, employing multiple-choice questions, to assess participants' ability to complete missing parts of a discourse in Chinese language contexts.

### 4.2.3 Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis

A quantitative analysis will be conducted on the data collected from the Discourse Completion Test. Descriptive statistical analysis will be used, and qualitative analysis will be applied to interpret the answers provided in the test, extracting the meaning of the speech acts involved.

### 4.2.4 Comparative Analysis

A comparative analysis will be conducted to compare the differences and commonalities in the speech act behaviors of the two groups. This analysis aims to evaluate the understanding and usage abilities of Korean students studying in China in the context of giving advice in Chinese. The influence of non-native background on the understanding and usage of speech acts in giving advice will be explored, and similarities and differences between the two groups will be identified to better understand the patterns and characteristics of giving advice in Chinese.

## 4.3 Questionnaire Design

### (1) Basic Information Questions

For the native Chinese speakers, there will be four questions covering gender, age, educational background, and major of study. For the Korean students, there will be six questions covering gender, age, educational background, major of study, duration of stay in China, and proficiency level in Chinese.

### (2) Discourse Completion Questions

These questions will be based on the Discourse Completion Test. The test involves providing specific contexts and asking participants to complete the missing parts of the discourse. Both the Chinese and Korean questionnaires will have the same questions, totaling four in number. Each question will present a specific Chinese language context, allowing participants to answer based on their real-life experiences in China and select the most appropriate expressions, with different weights assigned to different expressions. Different questions will focus on different aspects, including behavioral patterns, speech meanings, and linguistic structures. (See Appendix for details)

## 5. Research Results

### 5.1 Analysis of the Expression Modes of Advice-Giving Speech Acts

In this section, we will investigate and analyze the expression modes of advice-giving speech acts based on the results of the first question in the discourse completion test. The following are interpretations of the sentence expression modes for each option in the first question:

Option A, "我建议去学校外的韩国料理店吃饭。" (I suggest going to a Korean restaurant outside the school for a meal): This represents an explicit performative sentence. The verb "建议" (suggest) is used as the main verb of the sentence, directly expressing the speech act and belonging to a direct mode of expression.

Option B, "我们去学校外的韩国料理店吃饭吧。" (Let's go to a Korean restaurant outside the school for a meal): This represents an implicit performative sentence. There is no performative verb in the sentence, and the sentence form is similar to a general declarative sentence. However, it still expresses a speech act indirectly, belonging to an indirect mode of expression.

Option C, "我觉得我们可以去学校外的韩国料理店吃饭。" (I think we can go to a Korean restaurant outside the school for a meal): This represents an embedded performative sentence. The performative verb in the sentence does not serve as the main verb of the sentence, but the performative function is still present. It belongs to a relatively direct mode of expression.

Option D, "我们去学校外的韩国料理店吃饭怎么样?" (How about we go to a Korean restaurant outside the school for a meal?): This represents an indirect performative sentence. The sentence employs an indirect linguistic means to carry out the advice-giving speech act, allowing the

hearer to infer the speaker's intended indirect meaning - suggesting to go to a Korean restaurant outside the school - through the "literal meaning." It belongs to an indirect mode of expression.

| Question 1 (Qualitative Analysis of Differences in Expressive Modes)                              | Score (China) | Score (Korea) |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| How about we go to a Korean restaurant outside the school to have a meal? (Indirect speech act)   | 2.97          | 2.51          |
| I think we can go to a Korean restaurant outside the school to have a meal. (Embedded speech act) | 1.47          | 3             |
| Let's go to a Korean restaurant outside the school to have a meal. (Implicit speech act)          | 1.46          | 2.04          |
| I suggest going to a Korean restaurant outside the school to have a meal. (Explicit speech act)   | 0.78          | 0.88          |

According to the data results of the first question, Chinese students and Korean students studying in China show similarities and differences in the use of different types of performative sentences.

Similarities:

Both Chinese students and Korean students studying in China use explicit performative sentences less frequently, scoring 0.78 and 0.88, respectively. It indicates that both groups of students use this sentence type the least among the four types of performative sentences.

Both Chinese students and Korean students studying in China use indirect performative sentences more frequently, scoring 2.97 and 2.51, respectively.

Differences:

In terms of performative sentence types, both groups of students use indirect performative sentences more frequently. Chinese students scored 2.97, while Korean students studying in China scored 2.51. However, the latter group uses embedded performative sentences more frequently, scoring 3.

Regarding the usage of performative sentences, compared to Chinese students, Korean students studying in China tend to use indirect performative sentences more (2.97), while their scores for other performative sentence types are relatively lower (1.47, 1.46, and 0.78). Korean students studying in China have a relatively lower tendency to use explicit performative sentences (0.88), but their scores for other performative sentence types are not low (3, 2.51, and 2.04).

## 5.2 Analysis of the Linguistic Structure of Advice-Giving Speech Acts

The following are interpretations of the sentence linguistic structures for each option in the third question:

Option A, "我跟你一起平摊吃饭费用吧。" (Let's split the meal expenses together): This represents a speech act without a prelude structure.

Option B, "我正打算打算跟你一起各付各的吃饭钱，我跟你一起平摊吃饭费用吧。" (I was planning to pay for my own meal separately, but let's split the meal expenses together): This represents a speech act with a prelude structure, directly stating one's thoughts.

Option C, "你可以接受我们各付各的吃饭钱吗？我跟你一起平摊吃饭费用吧。" (Can you accept each of us paying for our own meal? Let's split the meal expenses together): This represents a speech act with a prelude structure, expressing one's thoughts in a more polite manner.

| Question 3 (Qualitative analysis is the difference between predictive structure and non-predictive structure)                            | Score (China) | Score (Korea) |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Let's split the meal expenses together. (No preview structure)                                                                           | 2.05          | 1.54          |
| I'm planning to pay for my own meal and you pay for yours. Let's split the meal expenses together. (With preview structure, more direct) | 1.07          | 1.95          |
| Can you accept each of us paying for our own meal? Let's split the meal expenses together. (With preview structure, more polite)         | 1.26          | 1.89          |

Based on the data results of the third question, there are significant differences between Chinese students and Korean students studying in China in terms of the use of linguistic prelude structures in implementing advice-giving speech acts.

Chinese students tend to avoid using prelude phrases (2.05) before implementing advice-giving speech acts, as their scores are higher than the options representing the use of prelude phrases (1.07 and 1.26). On the other hand, Korean students studying in China tend to use prelude phrases (1.95 and 1.89), indicating a preference for checking if it is possible to give advice before proceeding with the advice-giving speech act, and their scores are higher than the option representing the absence of prelude phrases (1.54). When using prelude phrases, Chinese students tend to express their thoughts in a more polite manner (1.26), while Korean students studying in China show little difference between using a polite or direct approach (1.95 and 1.89, respectively).

Now, let's interpret the sentence structures for each option in the fourth question:

Option A, "我觉得我们可以一起去看新出的电影。" (I think we can go watch the newly released movie together) and Option C, "新出了几个电影，我想我们可以一起去看。" (There are a few new movies released, and I think we can go watch them together) both use collective pronouns like "我们" (we), while Option B, "我觉得你可以跟我一起去看新出的电影。" (I think you can go watch the newly released movie with me) and Option D, "新出了几个电影，我想你可以跟我一起去看。" (There are a few new movies released, and I think you can go watch them with me) use individual pronouns like "我" (I) and "你" (you).

Option C, "新出了几个电影，我想我们可以一起去看。" and Option D, "新出了几个电影，我想你可以跟我一起去看。" Represent relational information, expressing the intention by changing the order of information elements in the speech act. In contrast, Option A, "我觉得我们可以一起去看新出的电影。" and Option B, "我觉得你可以跟我一起去看新出的电影。" Represent an absence of relational information structure, directly expressing the speaker's stance.

| Question 4 (Qualitative analysis based on demonstrative pronouns and the presence or absence of relational information)                        | Score (China) | Score (Korea) |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| I think we can go watch the newly released movie together. (Collective demonstrative pronoun + no relational information)                      | 2.12          | 1.77          |
| I think you can come with me to watch the newly released movie. (Individual demonstrative pronoun + no relational information)                 | 0.67          | 2.17          |
| Several new movies have been released. I think we can go watch them together. (Collective demonstrative pronoun + relational information)      | 2.88          | 2.6           |
| Several new movies have been released. I think you can come with me to watch them. (Individual demonstrative pronoun + relational information) | 0.91          | 2.1           |

According to the data from the fourth question, there are similarities and differences between Chinese students and Korean students studying in China in terms of their use of information structure and speech reference structure when implementing suggestion speech acts.

Similarities:

Both Chinese students and Korean students studying in China tend to express their intentions by rearranging the information components in their speech. The total scores for options C and D are higher than those for options A and B for both Chinese students (3.79 vs. 2.79) and Korean students (4.7 vs. 3.94) in terms of information structure.

Differences:

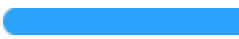
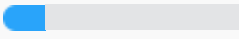
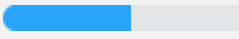
When referring to "we" or "you" and "I" in their speech, Chinese students tend to use collective reference pronouns, as indicated by the higher score for option AC (5), compared to individual reference pronouns in options BD (1.58). On the other hand, Korean students studying in China show little difference in the usage of collective reference pronouns (4.37) and individual reference pronouns (4.27).

### 5.3 Analysis of the Meaning of Suggestion Speech Acts

In this section, the analysis and research of the meaning of suggestion speech acts will be based on the results of the second question in the questionnaire. The following are interpretations of the meaning of each option in the second question:

Option A "I think bibimbap is delicious." represents a suggestion with a special meaning, indirectly expressed and violating the cooperative principle.

Option B "I think you can order bibimbap." represents a suggestion with a general meaning, directly expressed and following the cooperative principle.

| Question 2<br>(Qualitative Analysis: Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle) | Ration (China)                                                                           | Ratio (Korea)                                                                              |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| I think bibimbap is delicious.<br>(Cooperative Principle < Politeness Principle)     |  85.57% |  54.26% |
| I think you can order bibimbap.<br>(Cooperative Principle > Politeness Principle)    |  14.43% |  45.74% |

According to the data from the second question, there are significant differences between Chinese students and Korean students studying in China in terms of the meaning of their suggestion speech acts.

Chinese students tend to use suggestion speech acts with special meanings. When expressing their suggestion stance, they do not directly state the specific suggestion "order bibimbap," but express their preference for bibimbap, allowing Sally to infer that "I" am suggesting Sally to "order bibimbap." This is reflected in option A, which accounts for 85.57% of the responses: "I think bibimbap is delicious."

On the other hand, Korean students studying in China show no significant difference in using suggestion speech acts with general or special meanings. Option A and option B have a distribution of 54.26% and 45.74% respectively.

## 6. Conclusions

### 6.1 Research Conclusions

#### 6.1.1 Influence of Western Low-Context Culture and Cooperative Principles on Speech Behavior

In terms of speech behavior expression and speech meaning, Korean students studying in China are more inclined to express their opinions directly and follow cooperative principles compared to Chinese students. This difference is mainly related to the influence of Western low-context culture.

In terms of speech behavior expression, both Chinese and Korean students tend to avoid using direct speech acts and incorporate high-context culture by avoiding explicit speech acts. In high-context cultures, listeners usually presuppose the cultural background of the speakers and infer their speech behavior and stance through context or the situation. This commonality can be linked to the fact that both Korea and China belong to high-context cultures. Hu Chao (2009) pointed out that this is closely related to traditional cultural influences from Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, especially the influence of "Tao" as a high-context cultural element.

However, compared to Chinese students, Korean students studying in China are more willing to express their opinions directly. This difference is mainly reflected in their preference for three types of non-explicit speech acts (implicit, indirect, and embedded speech acts): Chinese students tend to use indirect speech acts, and their usage is much higher than other types of speech acts. On the other hand, Korean students studying in China show relatively similar levels of usage for the three types of non-explicit speech acts, with a higher preference for embedded speech acts.

In terms of speech meaning, when implementing suggestion speech acts, Korean students studying in China are more inclined to use speech acts with general or special meanings, following cooperative principles and violating politeness principles, in order to effectively convey information, understand intentions, and coordinate actions in communication. Chinese students, on the other hand, tend to avoid emotional opposition and choose speech acts with special meanings that comply with politeness principles but violate cooperative principles. Wu Yong (2008) pointed out that suggestion speech acts involve two factors in terms of politeness principles: "gain" and "loss." When a speaker offers a suggestion, one or both parties are likely to benefit or suffer to some extent. However, suggestions are fundamentally polite, especially in the hospitable Chinese culture. Although Korea and China both belong to high-context cultures, when Korean students understand the intentions, they generally choose to follow or violate cooperative principles to a similar extent.

Therefore, it can be observed that Korean students studying in China are influenced by both traditional high-context culture and Western low-context culture when expressing speech behavior and speech meaning. At the same time, while Korea and China both belong to high-context cultures, Korea has been influenced by Western culture earlier and to a greater extent, which has also influenced its high-context culture. As a result, Korean students studying in China are more inclined to use relatively direct embedded speech acts and follow cooperative principles to express suggestion speech acts. However, due to Korea's traditional high-context culture, Korean students studying in China still use direct speech acts sparingly.

### **6.1.2 Influence of Group Consciousness on Speech Behavior**

In terms of speech structure, when implementing suggestion speech acts, Korean students studying in China tend to follow a similar pattern as Chinese students by expressing their opinions in a more indirect manner. However, they also tend to use speech structures with pre-announced sequences more frequently and use collective terms like "we" less often. This seemingly contradictory behavior actually reflects the regional and emotional group consciousness of Korean students to a large extent. This difference reflects the different "group consciousness" between Korea and China, with Korean "group consciousness" emphasizing a sense of unity, influenced by the traditional culture's emphasis on "끼리끼리 (privately)."

## **6.2 Research Implications**

Firstly, in the process of learning Chinese, it is important not only to master vocabulary and grammar but also to understand the thinking patterns, expression styles, speech meanings, and speech structures of the Chinese language. This understanding is especially crucial for adapting to the language environment and cultural background in China and facilitating better communication with Chinese people.

Secondly, when expressing suggestions, it is important to be aware of the differences in language expression styles and meanings. It is advisable to avoid overly direct expressions and prefer indirect speech acts that are in line with the high-context culture. At the same time, it is important to express genuine opinions while adhering to cooperative principles and observing politeness principles, demonstrating respect and a friendly attitude, which will enhance communication and interaction with Chinese students. In terms of speech structure, it is important to use structures with pre-announced sequences and avoid overly personalized expressions. Using collective terms like "we" more frequently will help integrate into Chinese culture and engage in dialogues with a group-oriented mindset.

Finally, international students need to understand the cultural background and characteristics of Chinese culture and polite language usage in order to conform to Chinese cultural norms. Chinese culture has its own unique values and behavioral norms, and international students need to understand and learn these norms and linguistic expressions to communicate appropriately and politely with Chinese people. Additionally, actively participating in campus and cultural activities will enhance

understanding of Chinese culture and facilitate better adaptation to the Chinese language and cultural environment.

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