Corrective Strategies of Iraqi Learners of Foreign Languages

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Abstract

Communications in a foreign language entail knowledge of formal and functional aspects. The formal levels of morphology, syntax and semantics have been focused on whereas the functional one has not usually been given its due concern. As such, learners may resort to their native language reservoir to communicate and convey meanings in the foreign language. This paper endeavors to find out if the Iraqi learners of foreign languages (Turkish and English) are aware of the pragmatic level of linguistic analysis. More specifically, it tries to specify the linguistic realizations of the speech act of correction. It sets for itself the task of answering the following question: what are the corrective strategies those learners may utilize to realize the speech act of correction in terms of power- status differences? Various strategies are hypothesized to be found whether direct or indirect. To achieve the aim and test the hypothesis, a discourse completion test is delivered to forty learners of each language at the College of Languages, University of Baghdad for the academic year 2019-2020 to elicit these strategies. The analysis manifests explicit and implicit strategies which verifies the set hypothesis. This study is hoped to be valuable for those interested in pragmatic research and teaching foreign languages.

Key Words: Correction, foreign language teaching, pragmatics, speech acts.

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ستراتيجيات التصحيح لدى متعلمي اللغات الاجنبية العراقيين

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المستخلص

إن عمليات التواصل بلغة أجنبية تستلزمُ معرفةً بالنواحي الشكلية والوظيفية لها، بَيدَ أنه يتم التركيز عــادةً علــى المــستويات الشكلية مثل: علم المقاطع، والنحو، والدلالة، في حين لا يُعطى المُستوى الوَظيفي الاهتمام المطلوب، لِذا قد يلجأ المتعلمون الــى خــزين لغتهم الأم للتواصل ونقل المعاني باللغة الأجنبية.

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تحاولُ هذه الدراسة اكتشاف ما اذا كان المتعلمين العراقيين للغة التركية والإنكليزية على وعي ودراية بالمستوى التداولي فـــي التحليل اللغوي، وعلى وجه الخصوص تحاول أن تُحدد التمثيلات اللغوية لفعل التصحيح الكلامي وتُعّينُ لنفسها مهمة الإجابة عن الـــسؤال الآتي: ماهي الإستراتيجيات التصحيحية التي يمكن لهؤلاء المتعلمين إنتاجها لتحقيق فعل التصحيح الكلامي في حالة الاخـــتلاف بالمنزلـــة السلطوية؟ تفترضُ الدراسة إيجاد إستراتيجيات متنو مباشرة وغير مباشرة، ولتحقيق هدفها واختبار فرضيتها، تم إعطاء اختبار إلـــى 40 متعلم من كل لغة لطلبة في كلية اللغات/جامعة بغداد للعام الدراسي 2019-2020 لإيجاد هذه الإستراتيجيات. أظهـــر التحليـــل وجـــود إستراتيجيات ضمنية وأخرى ظاهرية، وهذا يثبت صحة الفرضية الموضوعة. ومن المؤمل أن تكون هذه الدراســـة ذات أهميـــة لأولئـــك المهتمين بالبحث التداولي وتدريس اللغات الأجنبية.

الكلمات الدالة: التصحيح، تدريس اللغة الأجنبية، التداولية، الأفعال الكلامية

1. Introduction

When we learn a language, we need to know how to effectively communicate in that language. In this regard, an interesting area of research is that of speech act production which can help identify the underlying social and cultural norms that feed communication. It is particularly important in foreign or second language learning since teaching the pragmatic aspects of language can minimize intercultural communication breakdowns [1, p. 140]. Different speech acts have been investigated, but the importance of the speech act of correction lies in the fact that it is complex and common in everyday interactions [2, p. 248]. Moreover, it represents a threat to the hearer's face as it implies that the hearer is incompetent or misguided [3, p. 38]. It is a threat to the speaker's face, too, as courage, confidence and diplomacy are needed to issue such an act.

This research paper tries to scrutinize the pragmatic competence of the Iraqi learners of two different foreign languages at the university level (Turkish and English). Specifically, it seeks to find out the set of the semantic formulas that realize the speech act of correction as issued by those learners. Besides, it endeavors to discover if those learners are aware of the power-status code. As a matter of fact, lots of studies have examined the various acts used in daily communication like requests, apologies, complains, among others. Few studies, however, are found as far as the speech act of correction is concerned especially in terms of learning different languages. Thus, this study sets for itself this kind of task. It is didactically oriented in that it shows how the functional level needs to be thoroughly considered when teaching a foreign language so that learners can be as similar as possible to native speakers.

2. Speech Act Theory

The pragmatic research concerns itself with the study of language use [4, p. 22]. The way people generate meaning is a central question in philosophy [5, p. 11]. The domain of pragmatics intersects with the philosophical research to give birth to some linguistic theories that interpret meaning [5, p.11]. The most famous pragmatic perspective, in this respect, is the theory of speech acts defined as one of the basic ingredients of pragmatics. "Saying is doing" is its essence claim [6, p.7]. Producing an utterance means engaging in three related simultaneous acts. The locutionary act is the act of uttering, the illocutionary act is a function in the mind of speakers whereas the

third is the perlocutionary act which is the effect of the illocutionary force of the utterance [7, p. 48].

Searle (1979) systemized this theory with alterations and modifications. He argues that all speech acts in any language fall into five categories [8, p. 21-25]:

a. Assertives: expressing a belief and committing the speaker to the truth of what is asserted (e.g. statements).

b. Directives: expressing a wish and counting as an attempt to get hearer to do something (e.g. requests).

c. Commissives: expressing an intention and counting as a commitment for the speaker to engage in a future course of action (e.g. promises).

d. Expressives: expressing a psychological state (e.g. apologies).

e. Declaratives: not expressing a psychological state and bringing about a change in institutional reality (e.g. declaring a war).

Four conditions realize any act to be felicitous: propositional, preparatory, sincerity and essential conditions [9, p. 54]. Since this paper is concerned with the speech act of correction, Searle's (1969) conditions are utilized to propose its felicity conditions.

2.1 Correction Speech Act

Some people may get any piece of information in an irrational, hasty and inadequate way. Moreover, the endless, easily- fetched and widely available resources for information nowadays rendered people incline to be careless in getting the exact factual information relying on the fact that they can look for it or search it in the net when necessary. Thus, they may produce sentences with erroneous information and they need to be corrected. Merriam Webster Learner's Dictionary (2020) explains that correction is the act of making something, like an error or a bad condition, accurate or better. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2020) defines correction as "an act used to say that what you have just said is wrong and you want to change it". Accordingly, the felicity conditions of correction speech act are proposed as follows:

1. Propositional conditions: someone utters something erroneous.

2. Preparatory conditions: speaker realizes that the utterance he hears or receives is erroneous; speaker is sure of that. He knows the correct piece of information.

3. Sincerity conditions: speaker feels he is able to correct the error and it is part of his desire, ethics, responsibility, duty or obligation to do so.

4. Essential conditions: speaker wants to change the erroneous utterance for the benefit of others.

Issuing a speech act serves a function in communication. Correction, in this sense, tells the speaker that what he has said is wrong, erroneous or incorrect and a modification is required. It is worthy to mention that correction here is concerned with misinformation rather than misbehavior. Correction is an expressive speech act that threatens the speaker's face who needs courage and motifs to tell the interlocutor that what he has just uttered is erroneous and a corrective act is needed. At the same time, this act is a threat to the hearer's face because it is embarrassing to realize that the piece of information one gives is not correct. A person may opt sometimes to remain silent and let the error goes uncorrected. To tell someone that what you have just said is erroneous is not enough; one

may need to provide the correct piece of information. This means that this act is complex and it entails successful strategies so as to be issued properly. It is argued that the most legitimate kind of correction is found in classroom interactions where teachers are obligatorily allowed to correct the mistakes of their students occurring during the educational process [10, p. 108]. Many corrective feedback patterns are suggested in this respect [11,p.123].

It is a fact that each speech act is issued in a set of strategy type. Such strategies are realized by certain semantic formulas. Requests, for instance, have a set of nine categories [12, p.132]. Direct strategies can be perceived as impolite because they indicate a lack of concern with face, and nonconventional indirect strategies (hints) can be perceived as impolite because they indicate a lack of concern for pragmatic clarity [12]. However, people usually resort to use indirect speech acts to adhere to the face of their interlocutors [13, p.79].

3. Face Work

Correction is a face threatening act. Considering one's face in communication is the essence of politeness theory which is best expressed as the practical application of good manners. It is a culturally defined phenomenon and what is considered polite in one culture might be impolite or rude in another. According to Hung [14, p.115], the more indirect a speech act is, the more polite is. Leech [13, p. 108] suggests that "indirect illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality, and because the more indirect an illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be". The concept of in/directness, when applied to speech acts, is taken to equal the relative length of the inferential path needed to arrive at an utterance's illocutionary point [12, p. 133].

Illocutionary acts are expressed via a particular sentence-type which is usually associated with it [8, p. 30]. The relationship between the structural forms of declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives corresponds the communicative functions of statements, questions and commands, respectively [7,p.55]. Thus, there is a match between the interrogative sentence type in English and the act of questioning [15,p.214]. If one says "Open the door", this is an imperative that is used to express a request. When the relation between form and function is indirect, we have indirect speech acts. "Could you call me a taxi?" is a question that functions as a request not to ask about one's ability to call a taxi[16,p.123]. The speech act of requesting is rarely performed by an imperative in English [14,p.111].

Indirectness does not necessarily imply politeness [12,p.131]. Searle[8,p.32] avers that in indirect speech acts, speakers communicate more than they actually say. They rely on mutual shared knowledge, background information and the general powers of rationality and inference of their interlocutors [17,p.142]. In this paper, the positive remarks of compliments or praise and hedges are important politeness strategies utilized by error correctors to lessen the treat on their interlocutors' face.

Brown and Levinson's theory [3,p.60] comprises the nature of politeness, its functions in interaction and its strategies. They assume that most speech acts like

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requests, complains, offers or complaints inherently threaten either the hearer's or the speaker's face-wants. Politeness is involved to redress those face-threatening acts which are directed towards the negative or positive face of interlocutors. Four types of politeness strategies are outlined in their model that sums up polite human behavior. These are: bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record-indirect strategy.

Interlocutors display different styles in their communication with others. When they choose their words cautiously taking politeness into consideration, they make communication runs smoothly. If not, impoliteness may characterize their language which may cause harm to their recipients. Locher and Watts [18, p. 80] conceive that politeness and impoliteness depend on the judgments of the participants during an ongoing interaction in any context. These judgments are constructed according to the norms of social practice and the history of interactions with the interlocutors within their community. As such, an impolite utterance is characterized by a negative assessment made by participants in terms of the behavioral norms of an interaction and a breach of the expectations in any given interaction. However, two variables are associated in the decision of saving others' face: power and intimacy [19]. Intimate relations might have impolite utterances whereas interactional situations where there is an imbalance in power need to be polite. Intimacy, nevertheless, does not justify using impolite expressions in any interactions.

One of the most famous models of impoliteness is that of Culpeper [19, p. 356] which involves five strategies: bald on record, positive and negative impoliteness, sarcasm or mock politeness and the withhold of politeness. Out of these five, only positive impoliteness is relevant to this work. It is achieved by using strategies that are designed to damage the face of the addressee [19]. It is realized linguistically by using some impoliteness triggers such as insult or derogatory words [20, p. 443].

Brown and Levinson [3, p. 107] aver that three sociological factors have a significant role in selecting the strategies of performing a face-threatening act: social distance between parties, power relations, and the degree of imposition of the speech act. Similarly, Eelen [21, p. 4] states that the amount and kind of politeness that is applied to a certain speech act is determined by the 'weightiness' of the latter. This is calculated according to the three social variables of power (the perceived power difference between hearer and speaker), distance (the social distance between them) and rank (the cultural ranking of the speech act or how threatening it is perceived to be within a specific culture). The discourse completion test, in this research paper, elicits correction strategies in six different scenarios that vary in terms of status. These situations are of three different levels of status: equal status, from higher status to a lower one and vice versa. The subjects were presented with a full description for each situation.

4. Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatics is divided into pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics. The first refers to the linguistic resources for conveying communicative acts and interpersonal

meanings, whereas the second refers to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative acts (22,p.3). When we consider knowledge of the means to weaken or strengthen the force of an utterance, we discuss pragma-linguistic knowledge, but when we consider knowledge of the particular means that are likely to be most successful for a given situation, we discuss socio-pragmatic knowledge [22]. Such a kind of knowledge can be affected by the linguistic competence in the first language. One of the crucial concepts within the framework of language proficiency while learning a foreign language and pragmatics is that of negative pragmatic transfer. It influences the performance of the language used by non-native speakers when trying to communicate in the target language. Such an influence is noted to be a deviation that is not preferred by the native speakers of that language [23, p. 204].

An important way in which learning another language is different from the first one is the influence of the mother tongue on the second-language learning. The mother tongue plays a vital role in the acquisition of another language on various linguistic levels [24, p. 53]. The use of the pragmatic norms of the first language in learning a second one is called pragmatic transfer [25, p. 14]. Two types of transfer can be distinguished. Positive transfer is when the pragmatic strategies or norms of the mother tongue language and the foreign language match and knowledge of the first language can be transferred to the second or foreign one affectively. Negative transfer occurs when the pragmatic norms or strategies of the first and second language do not match and cannot be transferred to the second language [25].

5. Teaching Foreign Languages

Historically speaking, teaching foreign languages in Iraq flourished during the seventeenth century. Modern schools, then, used Turkish as the official language. The scientific and literary status of English and its worldwide use makes it a major item in the Iraqi teaching curricula since the British occupation of Iraq. English language teaching, thus, has a remarkable history with noticeable development. On other hand, teaching the Turkish language in Iraq is significant because of the strong relationships between the two neighboring countries due to political, economic and historical reasons. As such, teaching the two languages is vital in the Iraqi contexts.

Departments at the College of Languages receive foreign language learners whose mother tongue is Arabic. Those students are expected to learn another language so as to be able to lead successful interactions in their future transactions with the native speakers of that language. In Iraq, most students learn the Turkish language for the first time in their lives at college. Few primary or secondary schools teach this language. Those who have an idea about it have Turkish origin. Thus, teachers in this department struggle to give the basics of the Turkish language to their students. They start with teaching the letters and sounds and then other linguistic information. The major concern is given to the formal aspects like orthography, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. As far as the functional level is concerned, little time is devoted to teaching this aspect. It is mainly introduced through conversation lessons where real interactional situations are

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presented to students. At the English department, the functional level is introduced to learners when they study some concepts about pragmatics like speech acts.

Good communicative skills in any language entail pragmatic awareness. However, learners often receive an imbalance in the grammatical and pragmatic competence [26,p.178]. Accordingly, it is serious for instructors to focus on the pragmatic aspects. Researchers argue that the positive impact of instruction aimed at raising learners' pragmatic awareness to avoid cases of pragmatic failure and to facilitate communication is immense [27,p.154]. Textbooks, teachers and training programs are required to pay more attention to pragmatics [26,p.179]. One important issue that should be considered in such classrooms is how to use speech acts properly, especially those acts which represent a threat of face to interlocutors.

6. The Analytical Framework

One of the earliest studies on the speech act of correction is that of Takahashi and Beebe (1993). They examined American and Japanese performance of this speech act. Their model of analysis distinguishes the use of positive remarks, softeners, and other similar formulas as means to lessen the threat on face, make communication smoother, reduce friction and keep rapport [1, p. 139]. This paper tries to find out the semantic sets that realize the speech act of correction as issued by the subjects under scrutiny. Those are forty learners from the department of Turkish and another forty from the English one. Usually research in speech act tends to compare how non- native learners issue a specific act in relation to the natives. However, this paper is distinguished in that it scrutinizes how two different language learners (i.e., of English and Turkish) from the same cultural background and their mother tongue language is Arabic issue one speech act which is correction.

In line with the previous discussion, the model of analysis adopted in this paper is engineered in Figure (1) below. It is interpreted as follows: the corrective strategies that realize issuing the speech act of correction in the context under scrutiny are explicit and implicit. These are macro strategies that are fulfilled by some sub-strategies. The first is to tell the erroneous person that he is wrong/ incorrect and it is realized by the following sub-strategies:

1. an explicit correction of rejection that is realized linguistically by an affirmative statement (e.g. You are wrong/ mistaken/ incorrect) preceded by the word 'no' to reject the erroneous utterance. It can be realized as well by an imperative sentence (e.g. Don't say what you are not sure of; Go search for the correct information).

2. an explicit correction that is accompanied by an insult that is realized by an insulting word as an adjective (e.g. You are stupid/ idiot! This is wrong/ incorrect; You are always wrong!).

3. an explicit correction with a softening phrase (e.g. My baby/ sister, you are wrong; Listen baby, you are mistaken/ wrong) or a distracting phrase (e.g. I can swear that this is incorrect).

The other macro strategy of indirectness is realized by the following sub-strategies:

1. questioning (e.g. Are you sure? Have you checked the net? Why don't we ask about it?).
2. praise or compliment (e.g. You made one small mistake; That was good, but….).
3. hedged with a probability expression (e.g. I think/ believe this is not correct; Perhaps we may check this piece of information) or a conditional sentence (e.g. If you doubt me, you can check it yourself; If you don't believe me, let's Google it).

The last macro strategy is that of keeping silent. It is resorted to when one opts to remain silent and never correct the error. It is assumed that the factual correction is known in all cases. Figure (1) summarizes the analytical framework in this paper:
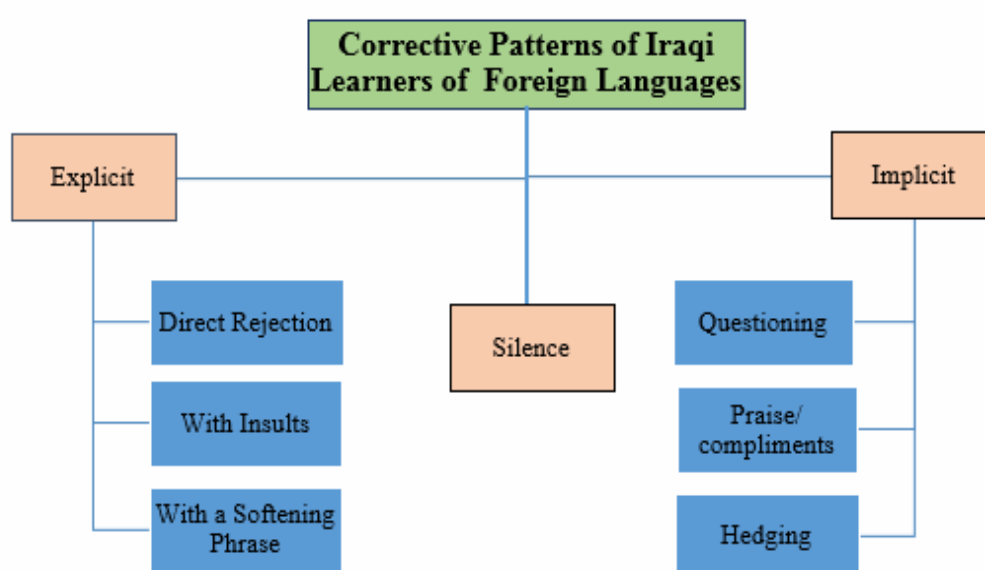
Figure (1): The Analytical Framework of Corrective Strategies of Iraqi Learners of Foreign Languages

7. Data Collection and Analysis

The data of this research work is obtained from a discourse completion test where six different situations are adopted with modifications from previous studies [1 and 28]. These scenarios are real life instances that are highly probable in our daily communication. To investigate the way Iraqi learners perform the correction speech act, students from two departments at the College of Languages/ University of Baghdad during the academic year (2019-2020) are chosen to be the subjects of this study. Forty students from each department are the subjects who took the test to issue the possible set of strategies that realize this speech act. The rationale behind choosing this number of students is that it represents the expected number of students in language classes. The test situations are divided into two cases of equal-power status, two are from lower to higher

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and the last two are from higher to lower (Appendix 1). Each situation is explained to the subjects clearly.

7.1 Representative Turkish Examples

This section is devoted to presenting some of the most notable representative examples out of the collected sample. The situations are numbered from 1-6. For each one, some illustrative examples are introduced here to represent the pragmatic analysis out of the entire data. The whole sample, however, is included in the statistical analysis. The Turkish data are abbreviated with the letter 'T' and then the number of the situation plus the number of the chosen example while the English data start with the letter 'E'. The Turkish data is introduced first and then the English one. Each two situations which share the same status are studied and analyzed jointly.

7.1.1 Equal Status

The first two situations of the six ones are concerned with the equal-power status. In the first situation, a sister corrects a piece of information about the nationality of the famous singer Celina Dion. The data reveal the following interesting instances with explicit corrective strategies in the first three and implicit ones in the last two as in the following:

T.1.1 You are wrong. Go and Check Google to be sure.

(Düşünün, Googl'a gidin ve emin olun)

T.1.2 No, No, She is Canadian. You are such an idiot!

(Hayır,hayır, O Kanadalı ve sen aptalsın)!

T.1.3 No, Darling, she is Canadian.

(Hayır canım, o Kanadalı)

T.1.4 Ok, Why don't we surf the net?

(Tamam,ama neden internette aramıyoruz?)

T.1.5 Don't say what you are not sure of!

(Bundan emin olmadığını söyleme)

The second situation concerns a classmate who corrects the title of a poem to his colleague in a literature lecture. The student attributed the poem to the wrong poet. Here are some of the most interesting examples chosen from the entire data. The first four examples are explicit whereas only the last one is implicit:

T.2.1 No, this poem is not for that poet!

(Hayır, bu şiir bu şaire ait değildir)

T.2.2. Be sure of your information before giving an answer.

(Cevabınızı vermeden önce kontrol edin)

T.2.3 You are wrong, this poem is for poet X (not Y)

(Sen doğru değilsin, bu kaside başka bir şaire aittir)

T.2.4 You are stupid. Your answer is incorrect

(Sen aptalsın ve sözlerin doğru değildir)

T.2.5 I think that this piece of information is not correct.

(Bilgi yanlış olduğunu sanıyorum)

It is notable that most of the responses in the two previous situations are direct explicit corrective strategies. No case of keeping silence has been recorded in the data.

This can be due to the fact that those learners are aware of the power status code where it is easy to correct a sister or a colleague. Figure (2) shows the corrective strategies of equal power status in terms of explicitness where most of the responses are issued with a direct correction by simply rejecting the erroneous information while the use of softeners comes in the second rank and the corrections which are accompanied by an insult take the last rank as follows:
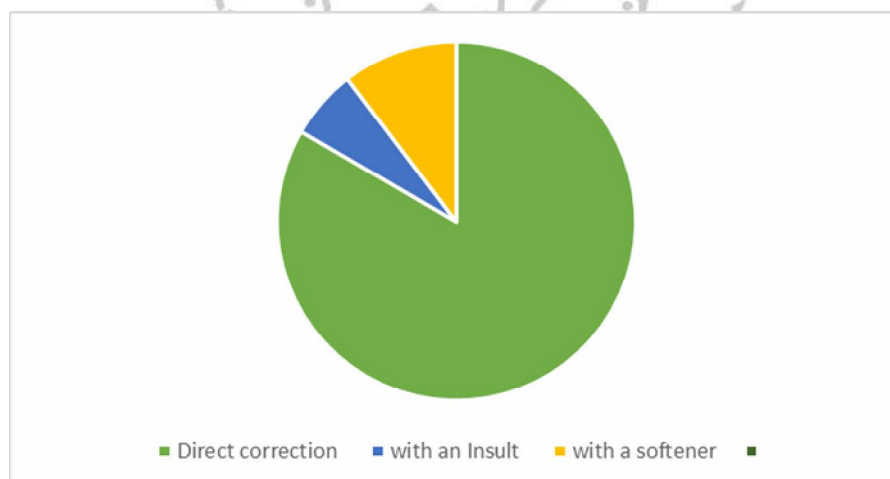

■ Direct correction   ■ with an Insult   ■ with a softener   ■

Figure (2) Percentages of Turkish Equal Power Status Explicit Corrective Strategies

On the other hand, implicit corrective strategies are less in percentages. The hedged patterns are the highest in appearance whereas the questioning strategy of giving corrections comes in the second place. Praising or complimenting the interlocutors takes the last position as far as the implicit strategies are concerned. Figure (3) shows these percentages of implicitness:
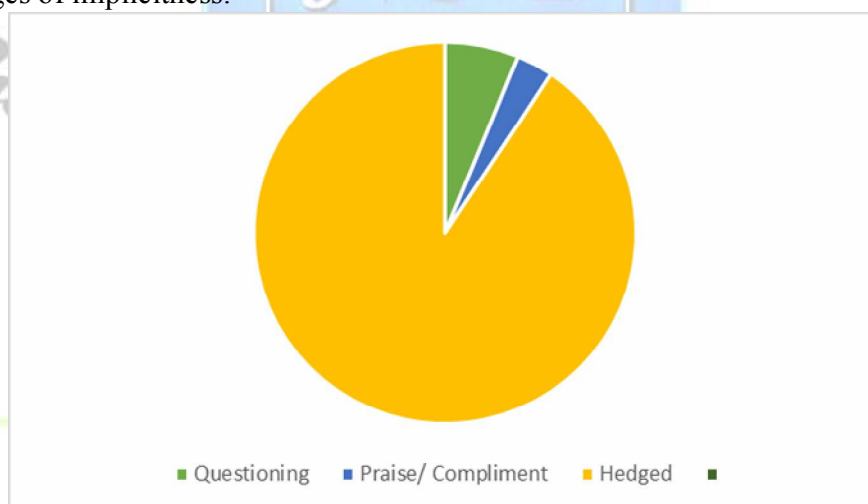

■ Questioning   ■ Praise/ Compliment   ■ Hedged   ■

Figure (3) Percentages of Turkish Equal Power Status Implicit Corrective Strategies
7.1.2 Lower- Higher Status

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The next two situations concern the lower to higher status kind. In the third situation of the six, the head of the department makes an erroneous utterance while talking to his secretary giving her a file that should be delivered to the Deanery Section while he asks her to give it to the Inbox Section. Below are some illustrative examples where the first three are explicit while the last two are implicit:

T.3.1 It is for the Deanery Section, not the Inbox.

(Dosya Dekanlığa aittir, Gelen Bölüme değildir)

T.3.2 No sir, this file is for the Deanery Section.

(Hayır efendim, bu dosya Dekanlığa götürülmeli)

T.3.3 Sorry sir, this file is not for the Inbox section. It is for the Deanery Section.

(Pardon, bu dosya Gelen Bölüme değil, Dekanlığa aittir)

T.3.4 Sorry, do you mean the Deanery Section?

(Pardon, Dekanlığa mı demek istiyorsun?)

T.3.5 I wish we could be sure where to give this file!

(Bu dosyayı nereye götürdüğümüzden emin olmamızı gerekiyor)

The forth situation describes a case where a student corrects his teacher inside the classroom. Although it is unlikely to happen, a teacher may utter something incorrect while presenting his lecture due to exhaustion, absent-mindedness, or being unsure of the factual information and the like. In this scenario, the teacher says that the famous linguist (Chomsky) is dead while he is still alive in reality. Here are some instances recorded in the data where only the first example is explicit and the last four are implicit with hedging and questioning sub-strategies:

T.4.1 You are wrong, sir, Chomsky is not dead.

(Hoca, pardon, doğru değilsiniz, Jomsky ölmedi)

T.4.2 With all respect my teacher, Chomsky is alive.

(Hocam saygılarımla ama Jomsky hala yaşıyor)

T.4.3 Isn't Chomsky alive?

(Jomsky hayatta değil mi?)

T.4.4 Would you allow me sir to tell you that Chomsky is not dead?

(Hoca, Jomsky'nin ölmediğini bildirmenizi izin verir misiniz?)

T.4.5 If you allow me sir, what I know about Chomsky is that he is still alive.

(Pardon Hocam, bildiğime gore, Jomsky hala ölmemiş ... Ben yanlış mıyım?)

In the case of lower to higher status, corrections vary on the grid of explicitness and implicitness where the highest percentage of corrective patterns go to the implicit ones. No insults are found in the explicit corrections and the use of softeners to minimize the threat to face comes in the second place after the direct rejection sub-strategy of corrections. Figure (4) shows the percentages of the explicit corrective patterns:
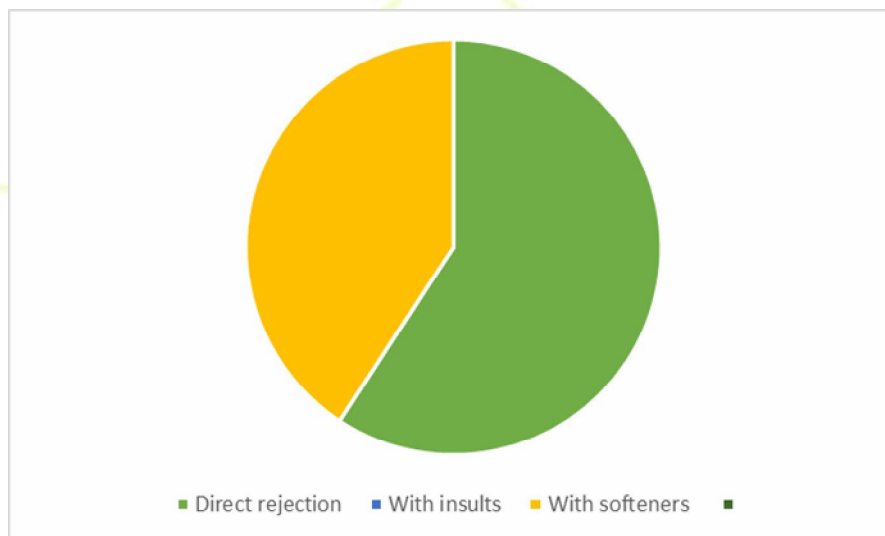
Figure (4) Percentages of Turkish Lower –Higher Status Explicit Corrective Strategies

The use of implicit corrections in the lower to higher position are higher than the explicit ones. The hedged patterns come at the first rank here whereas the questioning sub-strategy occupies the   second rank. No case of praising or complimenting are recorded. Figure (5) shows the implicit percentages:

Figure (5) Percentages of Lower –higher Status Implicit Corrective Strategies

The silence strategy manifests itself in the lower to higher status code. This can be attributed to the fact that subjects are aware of this code and opt to remain silent due to shyness, avoiding confrontation or respect. Figure (6) reveals the percentages of the explicit, implicit and silence strategy in the lower- higher status of the Turkish data:
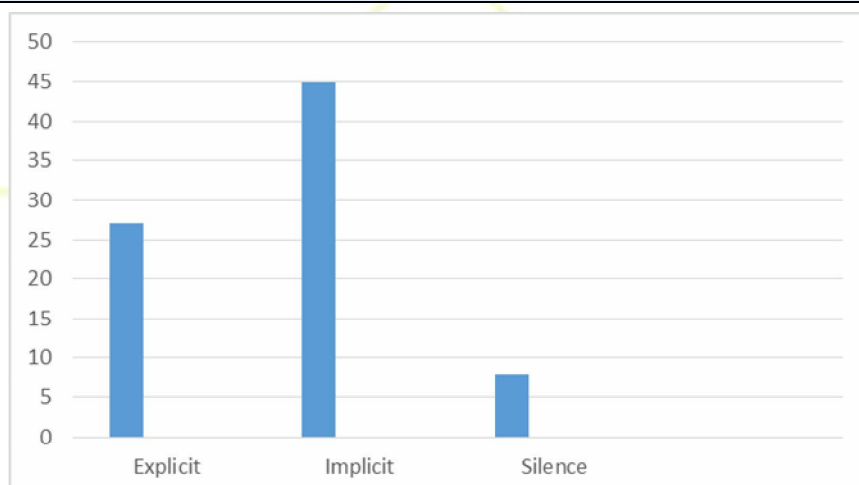
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Figure (6) Percentages of the Turkish Explicit, Implicit and Silence Corrective Strategies

7.1.3 Higher- Lower Status

The last two examples are issued from the higher to the lower status in power. Thus, the fifth situation concerns a teacher who corrects a piece of information for one of the students inside the class where the students gives the incorrect date of a historical event while explaining the topic to his colleagues. Here are some of the strategies that the data explicates:

T.5.1 Son, you are mistaken about the date of this historical event.

(Evladım bu tarihi hakkında sen yanlışsın)

T.5.2 Are you sure of the date?

(Tarihten emin misiniz?)

T.5.3 Wait! I think the date is incorrect

(Bekle, yanlış tarih dediğini sanıyorum)

T.5.4 You should have read in a better way as the date you gave is incorrect.

(Daha iyi okumalıydın, tarih doğru değildir)

The last and sixth situation involves the correction strategies issued by an adult man to a younger neighbor who calls him by his brother's name, mistakenly. The following examples are illustrative ones:

T.6.1 I am X. I am not Y.

(Ben Y deiğlim.Ben X'İm)

T.6.2 I will give you this amount of money to make you remember my name correctly.

(Benim adımı hatırlamak için sana bu parayı veriyorum)

T.6.3 Stupid boy! My name is X.

(Hey aptal, benim adım öyledir)

T.6.4 Be careful! Don't ever mention my name incorrectly.

(Sakın,adımı tekrar yanlış söyleme)

The higher – lower status code prefers explicitness to implicitness where the highest percentage of corrective patterns go to the direct rejection. However, some of the explicitness is wrapped with the use of softeners to minimize the threat to the hearer's

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face. Insults are found in the explicit corrections with the lowest percentage. Figure (7) shows the percentages of the explicit corrective patterns of the higher-lower case:
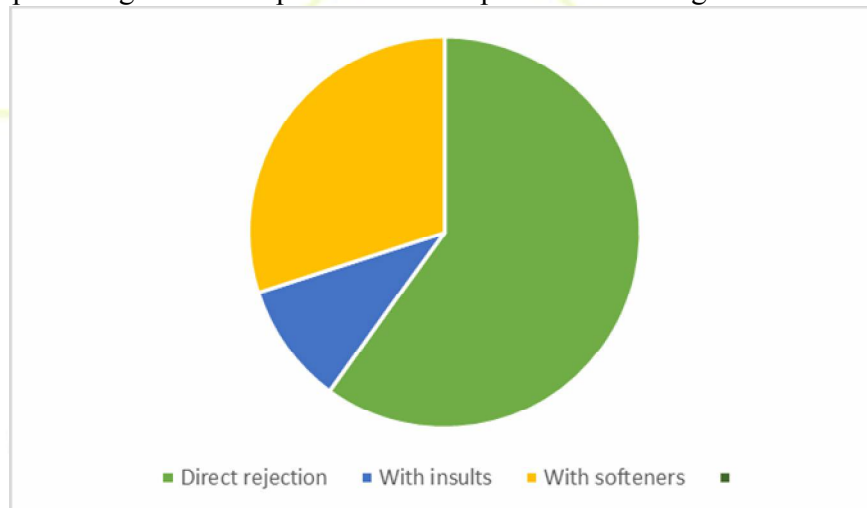

Figure (7) Percentages of Turkish Higher-Lower Status Explicit Corrective Strategies

As for the implicit corrections in terms of higher – lower status, subjects issue some corrective patterns where hedging ranks first, questioning comes next while the praise/ compliment sub-strategy of corrections receives the lowest percentage. Figure (8) shows these percentages:
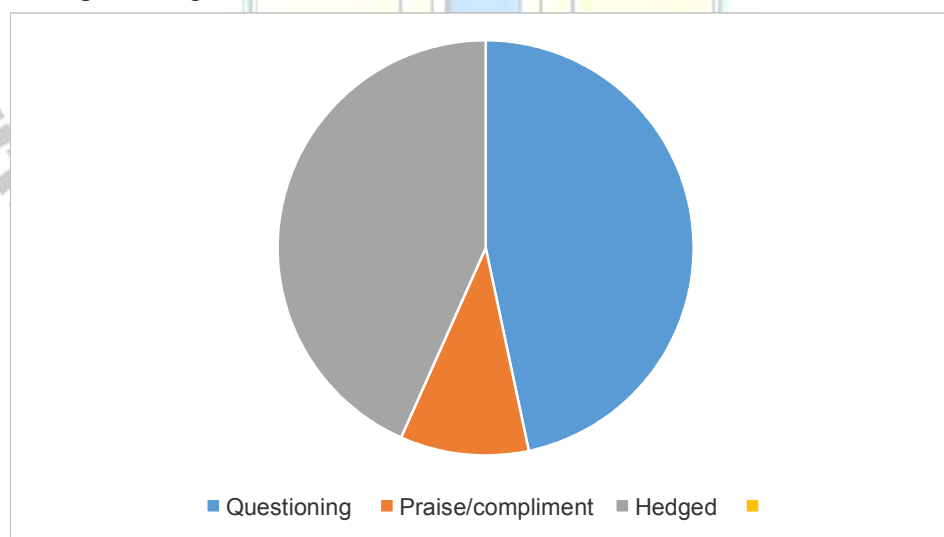
Figure (8) Percentages of Turkish Higher-Lower Status Implicit Corrective Strategies

7.2 Representative English Examples

This section discusses the most notable representative examples taken from the data received from the learners of English. Each two situations which share the same status are studied and analyzed.

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7.2.1 Equal Status

It is noted that some of the responses opt the silence strategy where students wrote that they prefer to remain silent and never correct their fellows. The percentage of this strategy is 15% while the explicit is 48.75% and the implicit is 36.25%. Thus, the equal-power status in the English data reveals the following instances with explicit and implicit corrective patterns in terms of the first and second situation of correction respectively:

E. 1.1 No, she is not American. She is Canadian.

E. 1.2 You are wrong. She is not American.

E.1.3 I guess she is Canadian.

E.1.4 Are you sure she is American?

E.1.5 She is Canadian. Let's check the net.

E.2.1 This poem was not written by X.

E.2.2 Do you mean X?

E.2.3 Can I add something? The name of the poet is X.

E.2.4 I believe this is not the right name of the poet.

E.2.5 Wait a minute. This is the wrong poet.

Figure (9) and Figure (10) represent the strategies of the explicit and implicit corrective patterns of the equal power status in the English data:
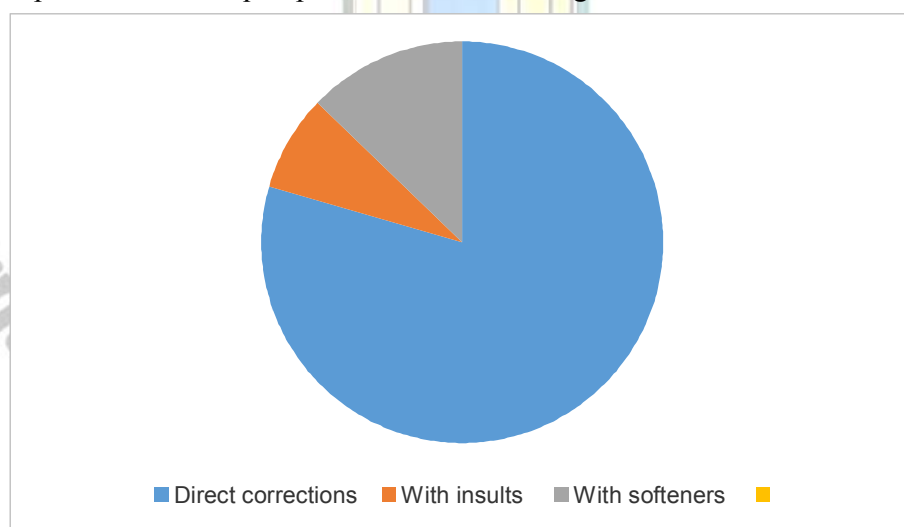

Figure (9) Percentages of English Equal Power Status Explicit Corrective Strategies
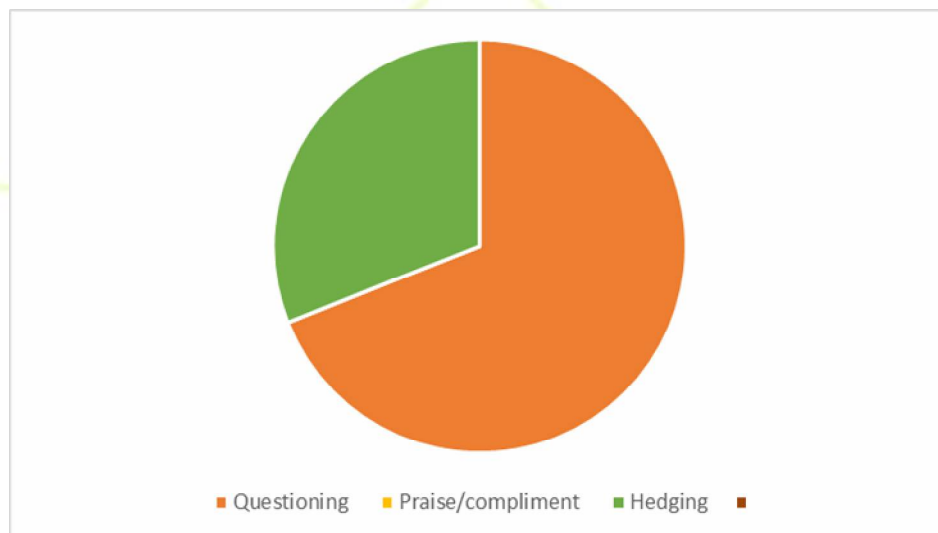
Figure (10) Percentages of Equal Power Status Implicit Corrective Strategies of English

7.2.2 Lower- Higher Status

The lower to higher status kind issued by the learners of English shows the following samples in the third and fourth situations in the test, respectively:

E.3.1 This file should be delivered to the Dean's Office.

E.3.2 Do you mean the Dean's Office?

E.3.3 But sir it is written here "to the Dean's Office".

E.3.4 Excuse me, but it should not be delivered to the Inbox Section

E.3.5 Pardon me, Doctor, I think it should be delivered to the Dean's Office

E.4.1. No, Chomsky is not dead. He is alive.

E.4.2 Sorry, but I think he is alive.

E.4.3 I am sorry my teacher, is he dead? When?

E.4.4 Excuse me, are you sure about Chomsky's death?

E.4.5 As I know, Chomsky is not dead.

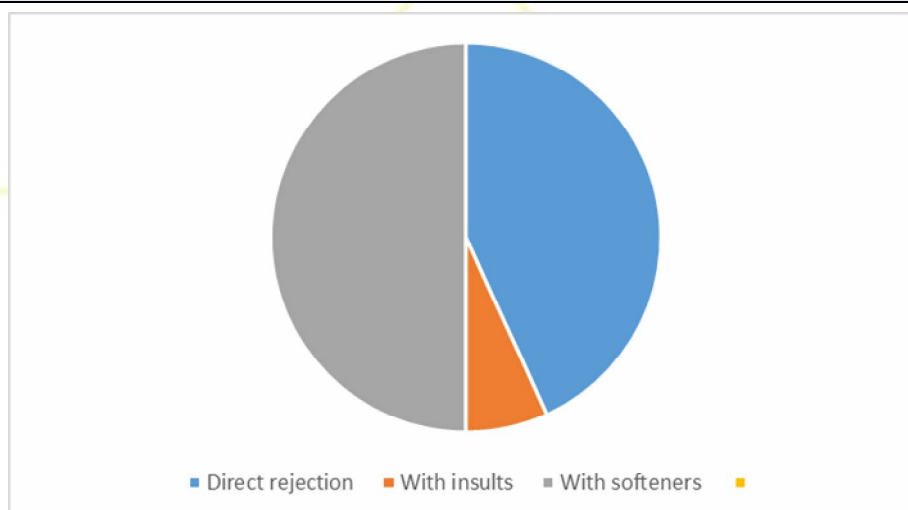The percentages of explicit and implicit patterns are represented in Figures (11) and (12) as follows:

Figure (11) Percentages of English Explicit Lower- Higher Status Corrective Strategies
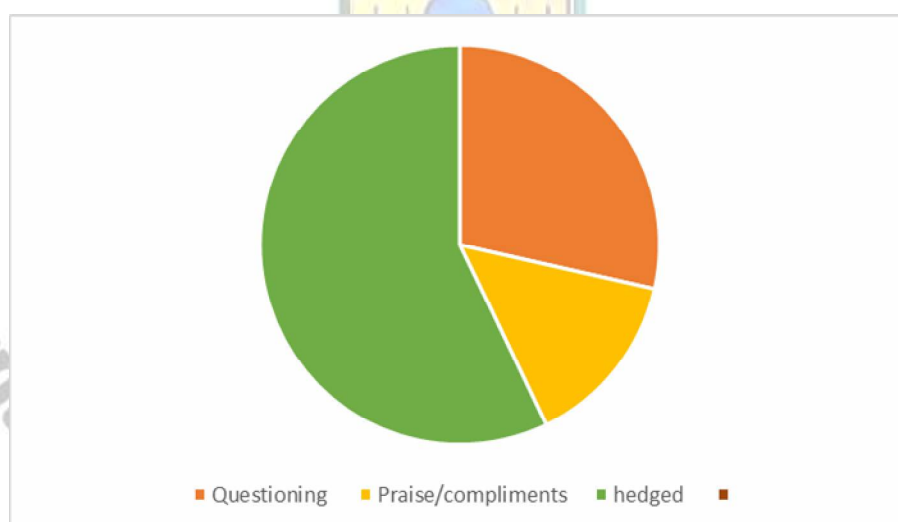

Figure (12) Percentages of English Implicit Lower- Higher Status Corrective Strategies

7.2.3 Higher- Lower Status

The higher- lower status patterns issued by the learners of English shows the following samples in the fifth and sixth situations respectively:

E.5.1 No, it is not the date you mentioned.

E.5.2 No, you are wrong

E.5.3 Good explanation, but try to make sure of the date.

E.5.4 Where did you get the date from?

E.5.5 What you said is correct except for the date.

E.6.1 No, my name is X.

E.6.2 I'm X not Y, baby.

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E.6.3 Try to remember my name next time.

E.6.4 If you call my name wrongly, I will not respond to you.

E.6.5 Cannot you remember my correct name, stupid little boy?

Figures (13) and (14) explicate the percentages of the last two situations of higher to lower in terms of explicitness and implicitness:
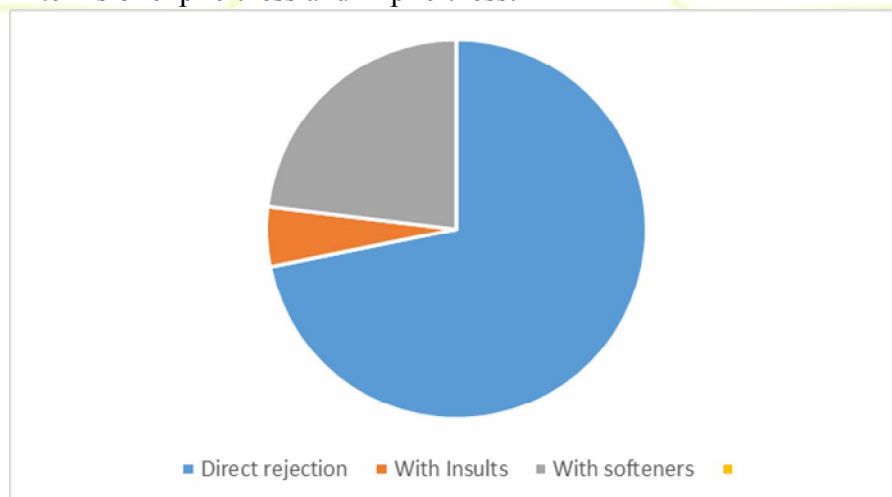

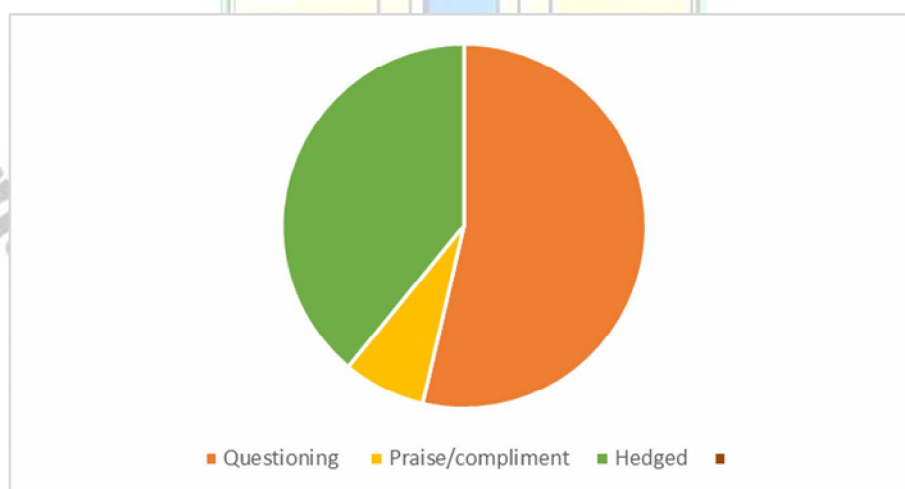**Figure (13) Percentages of English Explicit Higher- Lower Status Corrective Strategies**

Figure (14) Percentages of English Implicit Higher- Lower Status Corrective Strategies

According to the analysis above, Tables (1) and (2) summarize the percentages of corrective strategies in both types of data:

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Table (1): Summary of Corrective Strategies in the Turkish Data

Strategy type	Turkish data	Equal status	Lower to higher	Higher to lower
Explicit	Direct rejection	40	24	30
	With insults	3	0	5
	With softeners	5	21	15
Implicit	Questioning	2	16	14
	Praise/compliment	1	0	3
	Hedged	29	11	13
Silence		0	8	0
Total		80	80	80

Table (2): Summary of Corrective Strategies in the English Data

Strategy type	English data	Equal status	Lower to higher	Higher to lower
Explicit	Direct rejection	31	19	28
	With insults	3	3	2
	With softeners	5	22	9
Implicit	Questioning	20	10	22
	Praise/compliment	0	5	3
	Hedged	9	20	16
Silence		12	0	0
Total		80	80	80

Conclusions

This paper comes up with the following conclusions:

1. The socially sensitive speech act of correction can be issued explicitly and implicitly with certain strategies to minimize its strength as a face threatening act. Data analysis verifies the aforementioned hypothesis that this act is issued via different macro strategies and some sub- strategies in terms of status difference.

2. The analysis reveals that learners of both languages resort to the direct explicit strategy to correct others in every status code. This means that they are unable to utilize highly pragmatic strategies to issue such an act. In most cases, they do not use a softener to sooth the sensitivity of this act and make it indirect.

3. It seems, however, that part of their linguistic instinct invites them to have implicit strategies as well. This means that they are aware of the difference in the status code aspect; however, with no distinct variation in both kinds of data.

4. The most prevalent strategy in the three various codes of status is the explicit one of direct rejection to the erroneous piece of information which reflects their weak incompetent capability to produce complicated constructions. The complex act of correction is issued by those learners as a simple act which indicates their weakness in the Turkish and English language and their inability to give more than simple utterances.

5. Explicit issuing of correction reflects the learners' courage and desire to correct others when needed regardless of the fact that the silence strategy did appear in the data.

6. The strategy of remaining silent can be attributed to the unwillingness of those learners to give a correction or their belief that it is not worthwhile to do so. They might be uninterested to do so or they feel shy. They can also lack the vocabulary or grammar required to give a correction.

7. The Turkish learners use some insult words which can be interpreted by the fact that those learners are from low and weak educational and cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless, no such insult words show in the English data.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS
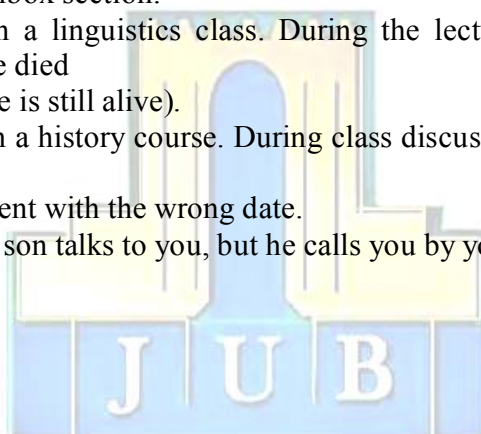**There are no conflicts of interest**

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Appendix (1) The Questionnaire of The Six Situations of the Test

Imagine that you are actually in each of the following situations and say exactly what you would say assuming that you know the correct piece of information.

How would you verbally correct someone in the following situation?

1- You and your sister are discussing about the famous singer- Celine Dion- your sister, says that Celine

Dion is American (In fact, she is Canadian).

2- During the literature class, your teacher gives a topic for group discussion. One of your group mate

equates a poem attributing it to the wrong poet.

3- Your head of department gives you a file that should be delivered to the Dean's office. He says you

should deliver it to the Inbox section.

4- You are a student in a linguistics class. During the lecture the teacher mentions Chomsky saying he died

two years ago. (In fact, he is still alive).

5- You are a professor in a history course. During class discussion, one of your students gives an account

of a famous historical event with the wrong date.

6- Your neighbor's little son talks to you, but he calls you by your brother's name.