Error Correction in Native–Nonnative Conversation

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to report the results of an investigation into how native speakers (NSs) of English in social settings correct the errors committed by their friends who are nonnative speakers (NNSs) of English. While there are a number of studies which describe error correction in the second/foreign language classroom (e.g., Allwright 1975; Fanselow 1977; Holley and King 1971), little is known about what NSs do when their NNS friends commit errors. Gaskill (1980) studied sample conversations of one NNS with several NSs. He concluded that when, and if, NS correction occurs, it is usually modulated in form to show NS uncertainty. However, as Cathcart and Olsen (1976) noted, personalities involved in the interaction affect the amount and type of correction supplied. Since Gaskill had only one NNS as his source of data, his results may not be representative.

The NSs in our data used two strategies to correct NNS errors: on-record corrections and off-record corrections. After describing the subjects and the methods used in collecting the data, we discuss in detail these two strategies. We also present, by way of contrast, several noncorrective discourse strategies which NSs used in order to clear up conversational difficulties. A model of error correction is proposed, which shows that most NS error corrections were given at transition points and not as interruptions. The paper concludes with implications of the results for the classroom and with suggestions for future research.

Before continuing, however, it is necessary to define the terms error and correction. We use error to indicate the use of a linguistic item in a way, which, according to fluent users of the language, indicates faulty or incomplete learning (Richards, Platt & Weber, forthcoming). As error tends to be a subjective judgment, in this study an error made by an NNS was located by the NS's response. Not only the form of the NS's utterance but also her intonation helped isolate occurrences of NNS errors. To determine the number of errors left untreated by the NSs in our data, our intuitions about the language and the structure of discourse were used (cf. Fanselow 1977, Allwright 1975, and Chaudron 1977 for similar treatments).

Correction occurs when the NS, in response to what is perceived to be an error by the NNS, supplies an appropriate item. Correction can occur after inappropriate pronunciation or lexical or syntactic errors. It also occurs after errors of fact and discourse usage. Correction in this paper is used as a
subset of the larger category of repair. A correction is a response by the NS to an error by the NNS; a repair is a response by the NS to a conversational trouble source (including errors). All corrections are repairs, but not all repairs are corrections.

This report is one in a series from an investigation into error correction in NS-NNS discourse. Other reports treat the types of errors which NSs correct (Chun et al., (ms.)), attitudes of NNSs towards NS correction (Chenoweth et al., (ms.)), and NNS self-repair in NS-NNS discourse (Day et al., 1981). It should be noted here that this report does not treat those NNS errors which the NNSs self-repaired. (See also Fathman, 1980 for an examination of self-initiated corrections in the speech of second language learners.)

1.0 Method

1.1 Subjects

The data reported in this paper came from eleven ESL students at the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Hawaii at Manoa and nine ESL students at Hawaii Pacific College (HPC). The ELI subjects are considered advanced ESL learners, since they have to have scored at least 450 on the Test of English as a Second Language to be admitted to the University of Hawaii. The particular HPC subjects used in our study, in relation to the ELI subjects, are regarded as beginning and intermediate students. HPC does not require TOEFL, and offers courses on beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. The nine HPC students in this investigation were enrolled in beginning and intermediate ESL classes.

1.2 Procedure

These 20 students, who had indicated that they had friends who were native speakers of English, were given tape recorders and tapes and were asked to record two conversations with their NS friends anywhere outside the classroom at different times, of about 15 to 20 minutes each. They were not otherwise restricted as to topic, setting, and so on. We provided the NNSs with letters to give to their NS friends, requesting their cooperation in a study of T-units in NS-NNS conversation. In addition, we requested some demographic data (sex, age, and profession) from each NS; it should be noted that none of the NSs reported being language teachers.

The nine HPC subjects taped conversations with 21 NSs (all dyads) for a total of 320 minutes of conversation. The 11 ELI subjects talked with 15 NS friends (all dyads) for 249 minutes. The total taped time of these conversations in social settings equalled 9.48 hours.

After the subjects had recorded their conversations with their NS friends, they were asked to record another tape with a NS friend in a situation which had an external activity---a game---
as its focus. The NS was presented with a paper containing eight sets of five figures with only slight variations within members of a set. The NNS had a corresponding sheet of paper which contained only one figure from each of the sets which the NS had. After a free exchange of questions and descriptions, the NS had to decide which member of the set corresponded to the one on the paper held by the NNS. The nine HPC subjects provided 99 minutes of taped interactions of this sort; the 11 ELI students taped 95 minutes.

2.0 Results

2.1 Error Correction Strategies

The tapes were transcribed and then were examined for both NNS errors and error corrections by NS. One interpretation of the data is that there are two strategies used by NSs in correcting NNS errors: on-record correction and off-record correction (Brown and Levinson 1978). An on-record utterance has one only interpretation, while an utterance which is off-record is ambiguous and is open to more than one interpretation.

On-record correction occurs when a NS, in response to a NNS's error (or perceived error), supplies correction with declaratory intonation. The NNS responds, often by repeating, or simply acknowledging, the correction. Giving the correction is the main, if not complete, thrust of the turn, as in (1):

(1)  NNS: ...then you say what number is it=1  
     NS: =what letter  
     NNS: wh-what letter, yeah what letter is it HPC503:32

In this example, the NS provides a direct, unambiguous correction to a vocabulary error made by the NNS.

We make a distinction between on-record correction and simple repetition whereby the NS repeats all or a portion of the NNS's turn which immediately preceded the NS's current turn. While the intonation in both is declaratory, the main difference is that in simple repetition nothing is corrected and the NNS is not required to respond (although a response may occur). Simple repetition does not correct; it may provide encouragement or it may acknowledge the accuracy or the correctness of the NNS's previous utterance, as in (2):

(2)  NNS: dith--death  
     NS: death  
     NNS: death, death HPC602:49

Here the NNS erred in his first attempt at pronouncing death, but he corrected himself in his second try. The NS repetition may function as a model (and indeed seems to do so in (2) as the NNS repeats it twice) but since the trouble source was successfully
repaired prior to the NS's turn, for the purposes of this study his utterance was not categorized as a correction,

The second strategy of NS correction is off-record correction. One major distinction between on-record and off-record correction is that in the latter, the correction is not the major thrust of the turn. In addition, off-record corrections, unlike on-record corrections, are ambiguous. That is, they generally may be interpreted in at least two ways—as corrections or as continuing contributions to the conversation. Off-record corrections have two forms: questions and statements. Off-record corrections which are given as questions take the form of confirmation checks. It is important to note here that we do not claim that all confirmation checks are corrective in function. We make a distinction between corrective confirmation checks and confirmation checks which are not corrective in function. Our justification for making this distinction is provided in the Discussion section below.

In an off-record corrective confirmation check, the NS, in the turn following the NNS's turn in which there is an error, repeats the NNS's incorrect utterance with the correction, using question intonation. Usually the NS focuses on the error using question intonation, often stressing the correction.

(3) NNS: How do you do on--on weekends? Usually, I mean usually?
NS: What do I do on the weekends?
NNS: Yeah.

In (3), the NNS used how when another word should have been used; the NS corrects this by using a confirmation check to supply the correct word—what. When the NS uses a corrective confirmation check, the NNS is required to respond, with either an affirmation, as in (3), or by repeating the NS's utterance, or a part of it.

The second form of off-record corrections takes the form of a statement. The NS, in response to NNS error, gives the correction with declaratory intonation. The correction may or may not be a single phrase.

(4) NNS: How are you staying in Osaka?
NS: No, I stayed in Tokyo,
NNS: Oh, really,
NS: And I traveled to Osaka.
NNS: Oh.
NS: But I stayed in Tokyo two years.

In (4), we claim that the NS corrects the NNS's incorrect use of the present progressive. Note that a complete sentence is used. Also note that the NS used the same verb (stay) which the NNS used when another (e.g. the past tense of be) could have served
equally well. It is our interpretation that the NS embeds the correction in the complete sentence, providing the correct form—the past tense of stay—unobtrusively.

The total number of on-record and off-record corrections used by the 20 NSs is shown in Tables 1 and 2. Most striking about these results is the occurrences of on-record corrections—85—compared to 32 off-record corrections. There is also a major difference in the number of corrections supplied the beginning and intermediate ESL subjects—those in HPC—in contrast with those given the advanced ESL students—those in ELI. There seems to be little difference, if any, between the corrections given during conversations and those given during the game sessions.

2.2 Noncorrective Repair Strategies

In addition to the two NS error correction strategies described in the previous section, NS—NNS conversations displayed what we term noncorrective repair strategies. These strategies were not used to supply corrections, but were used to repair breakdowns in the discourse. We present them to illustrate more clearly the concept of error correction strategies.

2.21 NNS—Initiated NS—Completed Repair

In our analysis, we made a distinction between the initiation of a repair and the completion of a repair (cf. Schegloff et al. 1977). The two error correction strategies in the preceding section were initiated and completed by the NSs in response to errors made by their NS friends. There were instances, however, when the NSs only completed repairs which had been initiated by the NNSs. There are two types of this strategy of NNS-initiated NS-completed repair: word searches and requests for help.

A word search (cf. Schegloff et al. 1977:363) involves a pause by the NNS and an attempt to pronounce something or the use of space-filling utterances until the NS supplies a word or phrase. Word searches differ from NS error corrections in that, while conversational help is required, no mistake has been made; thus they belong in the broader category of repair.

(5) NS: Four petals.
NNS: Yeah and two: um (pause)
NS: Leaves.
NNS: Yeah, two leaves. Yeah. HPC1203:82

In (5), the NNS pauses and is unable to come up with the next word. The NS supplies it after he perceives that the NS will not be able to produce it.

The second type of NNS-initiated NS-completed repair is an outright appeal by the NNS to the NS for conversational help.
(6) **NNS:** How do you say that?
**NS:** The handle?
**NNS:** The handle.

The request for help may be a direct appeal as in (6), or it may take the form of a word (two or more forms) pronounced with question intonation.

### 2.22 NS-Initiated NNS-Completed Repair

In contrast to the strategy of NNS-initiated NS-completed repair, there are times when the NSs initiated repair by calling attention to trouble sources and allowing the NNS to make their own repairs. They provided the NNSs the opportunity to self-repair, as opposed to other-repair. In some instances, this strategy was used by the NS in response to NNS errors; in other instances it was used by the NS to clear up conversational misunderstandings.

Clarification requests, in which the NS asks the NNS to clarify what the NNS has just said, function in this manner because they require the NNS to recycle and perhaps add new information.

(7) **NNS:** He will be, you know, he will be dirty this March 8.
**NS:** He will be what?
**NNS:** Thirty years old.

The NS uses a clarification request either to call attention to the mispronunciation of the person's age or to figure what what age the NNS actually meant. In either event, the request was successful in that the NS successfully repaired the trouble spot.

The second type of NS-initiated NNS-completed repair strategy involves the use of noncorrective confirmation checks. As in NS-NS discourse, in NS-NNS discourse confirmation checks are used to clear up trouble sources.

(8) **NNS:** So you're - um: so in England or: mainland maybe um /hauzen/ - they have a very old house.
**NS:** In England?

In this example, the NS is trying to figure out if the NNS is referring to England or the United States mainland; it does not appear as though he is trying to correct the errors made by the NNS.

The data were analyzed for all occurrences of noncorrective repair strategies. The results are presented in Tables 3 and 4.
Since there were no differences between the data gathered in the two different settings—conversation and game—the results from the two settings are combined in Tables 3 and 4. Note that confirmation checks were used more than twice as often by the NSs than clarification requests. Note also that repair strategies were used more often with the less proficient NNSs, as were corrective strategies.

3.0 Discussion

The results of our investigation indicate that NSs, when they correct the oral errors made by their NNS friends in social settings, use one of two error correction strategies: on-record correction, or off-record correction. These two strategies are both initiated and completed by the NS, in contrast to noncorrective repair strategies which may be either initiated by or completed by the NNS.

Our interpretation that there are some confirmation checks which have a dual function extends previous work on NS-NNS discourse (cf. Long 1981). Clearly some confirmation checks just rephrase or repeat old information and function primarily as meaning checks. However, Schegloff et al. (1977) observe that other-initiated correction often involves utterances with dual functions. This is in part due to how certain a NS is that she has understood the NNS. It may be that on-record corrections are given when the NS is confident that she knows what the NNS meant. If uncertainty exists, the correction might be given off record. However, off-record correction in the form of confirmation checks can also be used when the NS is certain she has understood the NNS's utterance but wants to soften the threat inherent in an on-record correction. In posing an explanation for utterances which have more than one function (off-record utterances), Brown and Levinson note that

A communicative act is done off record if it is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act. In other words, the actor leaves himself an out by providing himself with a number of defensible interpretations; he cannot be held to have committed himself to just one particular interpretation of his act. (1978:216)

Applying this to error correction in NS-NNS conversation, the NS can provide the correction but in such a way that it is nonthreatening to the NNS, by making it ambiguous. This is a polite way of treating a situation in which the NS who is trying to be helpful could, if she offered only on-record corrections, discourage the NNS from attempting further conversation.

By using a mixture of on-record and off-record error correction strategies, the NS can supply the information that there are changes needed in the NNS's utterances. When this is
done in a nonthreatening manner and if the NS further encourages efforts at communication by the NNS (e.g., by agreeing with what the NNS is saying), the conversation is likely to continue. Vigil and Oller (1976:288) claim that this negative feedback on the cognitive level, coupled with positive affective channel feedback, creates a "desired instability" in the form of the utterance and encourages the learner to make the appropriate changes. They also note that feedback on the affective level which is not positive discourages further attempts at communication.

As we see in Table 1, the NSs were on record much more often than they were off record in correcting the errors of their NNS friends. Of course, on-record correction is the strategy which most clearly emphasizes the correction. Perhaps this strategy was used so frequently by the NSs because they felt secure enough to supply on-record, unambiguous corrections to their NNS friends. Because they were friends and probably interacted frequently, they were in a relationship which Brown and Levinson characterize as low social distance and relatively balanced power. Brown and Levinson (1978:83) predict that when utterances of interlocutors who are equals contain impositions, such utterances are usually made off record. In our data, as most corrections are given on record, the NSs may be assuming that the imposition is low and therefore the correction can be given overtly. The assessment of the weight of imposition carried by correction may vary when the NNS is not known to be actively studying English. Thus with NNSs who are not ESL students, off-record corrections might be more frequent than on-record corrections when error corrections are given.

There is a lot of the difference in amount of error correction by the NSs in the two groups of subjects. While there are differences in the number of subjects (ELI=11; HPC=9) and the amount of recorded time (ELI=249 minutes; HPC=320 minutes), it is clear from the tables above that more NS error correction took place in the HPC data. The HPC students were beginning and intermediate ESL learners and probably needed more help with their English than did the ELI subjects who were more proficient.

We categorize as NS error correction only those corrections which were both initiated and completed by the NS. A good case might be made for regarding NNS-initiated NS-completed repairs (i.e., word searches and appeals for help) as error correction. In word searches, for example, the word is not given by the NNS when it is conversationally due, so there is an error which the NS corrects. And in appeals for help, the NS's response could be seen as correcting NNS deficiencies. Indeed, Schegloff et al. (1977:379) call word searches and appeals for help a correction invitation format. In addition, we do not categorize NS-initiated NNS-completed repairs as error correction since the correction was not made by the NS but by the NNS. It could be argued that such feedback should be counted as error correction since the NS is clearly indicating to the NNS that she has made an error, and that the error was related to a specific part of her utterance.
In (7), for example, the NS indicated that there was a problem with the age.

Our motivation for categorizing only NS-initiated NS-completed repairs as correction; and not NNS-initiated NS-completed and NS-initiated NNS-completed repairs, stems from an attempt to distinguish between error correction and what Schachter (1982) calls negative input. She claims that clarification requests, misunderstandings, failures to understand, and confirmation checks may provide negative input. However, we believe that not all negative input is error correction. In this report, only NS-initiated NS-completed repairs are regarded as error correction.

4.0 A Model of Error Correction

Having established that NSs do indeed correct errors in conversations with their NNS friends, it is important to look at a discourse model of error correction. When the NNS commits an error, the NS has several immediate choices. The first is basic: Shall the error be corrected or ignored? If the NS decides not to ignore the error, then other choices concerning delivery must be made. Should the correction be given at the first possible transition point or should the NS interrupt the NNS, not allowing her to finish her turn? Will the NNS be given an opportunity to respond to the correction or will the NS just continue to hold the floor?

The NNS has a role in this activity, also. She must decide how to act. She can respond to the correction by modifying her previous utterance, repeating the correction that the NS supplied, confirming that the NS correctly understood her previous statement, or she can ignore the NS's last turn altogether. If the NNS decides to acknowledge the error correction in some way and, further, decides to yield the turn to the NS, then the NS has various alternatives.

Based on the conversational interactions which occurred in our data when the NS supplied corrections to NNS errors, we devised a model to account for the the options in error correction in social settings. As we see in Figure 1, the interaction can be represented in a flow chart. Note that this is a model of error correction, so that the interaction described takes place after the NS decides to correct and does so either by interrupting or waiting until the first possible transition point. Only rarely did the NS, in our data, ignore an error in her next move—at the first possible transition point—and later in the conversation return to it with a correction. These instances are discussed separately and their occurrences are not represented in either the model or in the tables which follow.

In order to illustrate Figure 1, we will trace the sequence of several error correction interactions. The first major division occurs when the NS decides when to give the correction—by interrupting or by waiting until the first possible transition
point. As we see in (8), the NS waited until the NNS had completed her turn.

(8) NNS: If you can pass the test, you can go too.
NS: Then you could go.
NNS: Yes, you could go. ((continues with the conversation))

Because the correction occurred at a transition point, this is an example of a I, not a II, in Figure 1. Note that the NS supplies the correction, and then the NNS takes a turn, and acknowledges the correction, at which point the conversation then continues. From Figure 1, we see that (8) is thus an example of IB.

Let's look at an example of NS error correction in which the NS does not wait for the NNS to finish her turn before correcting an error. This is illustrated by (9):

(9) NNS: . . . is a little bit wait-
NS: Wet.
NNS: Yeah, not, here is dry ((continues))

The NS interrupted, gave a focused correction, and the NNS acknowledged the correction and continued with the conversation. Thus, (9) is an example of IIB.

Example (10) illustrates ID:

(10) NNS: Like the like the the the chop the chop//
NS: Chopsticks.
NNS: Yeah, chopsticks=
NS: =skinny like chopsticks.
NNS: Yeah ☕️ ((laughs)) chopsticks yeah ((continues))

The NS interrupted to give the correction, the NNS acknowledged it, the NS took the next turn so quickly that he latched or overlapped slightly with the ending of the NNS's turn, and then the NNS took the next turn, at point E in Figure 1.

Of the 72 NS error corrections in the HPC data, 31 were of the type IC, 14 were IE, and the rest were scattered among the various other options, with the exception of IIA, IIB, IID, and IIF, which were not used. To determine if there were a significant pattern of usage among the options in Figure 1, chi-square analyses were performed on the HPC data. For example, to determine if most of the corrections occurred at a transition point, I's were compared to occurrences of II's, or, to determine whether most NNS would acknowledge error correction if given the chance, occurrences of IA and IIA were compared with occurrences of IB-E and IIB-E. These results are given in Table 5.

As we see in Table 5, most NS error correction was given at
a transition point, and not as an interruption. Even in the few cases where the NS interrupted with a correction, the correction was given and the floor was returned to the NNS. In other words, the NS did not use error correction as a vehicle for gaining the floor. The NNS then used her next turn to acknowledge the error correction and then yielded the floor to the NS. At this point, the NS either responded to the acknowledgement or simply resumed the topic which had been under discussion before the error correction; the data do not show a clear preference at this point. On our model, this amounts to a choice between IC and IE; the difference is who terminated the error correction interaction.

From Figure 1 and Table 5, we can say that NSs tended to be polite in making error corrections. They supplied corrections at transition points and did not use them as a means of gaining the floor. The end of the error correction interaction was not determined solely by the NS; NS and NNSs had equal opportunities to resume the topic under discussion before error correction.

The NS-NNS error correction interaction as illustrated in Figure 1 and described in Table 5 is an example of what Jefferson (1972) terms a side sequence in NS-NS discourse. She defines a side sequence as a break in the main topic of conversation. This break in an on-going activity is relevant to the conversation, but is not directly related to it. Jefferson uses the term break in contrast to termination, for the on-going activity is resumed once the side sequence is concluded. In NS-NNS discourse, error correction is a side sequence in that an error is committed during an on-going activity (conversation), the NS corrects it, the NNS responds to the correction, and they then return to the original topic of the conversation.

5.0 Implications for Second Language Instruction

We noted in the introduction that there have been a number of studies on error correction in the ESL classroom. Long (1977), in a review of this topic, claims that correction as it is commonly carried out in classrooms is unlikely to help since much of it is complex, inconsistent and lacking in clarity. By way of contrast, however? the NS error correction in our investigation was generally simple, consistent and clear. It usually immediately followed the turn in which the error had been committed, and was most often on record (unambiguous, focused).

Therefore, it seems appropriate for classroom teachers who want to correct the oral errors made by their students to use the strategy of on-record correction. On-record corrections should be done after the NNS completes the utterance (unless, of course, the student is unable to complete the turn without help). We make this recommendation because the error corrections in our NS-NNS data were generally clear, simple, and consistent. The NNSs had no trouble understanding them.

In making this recommendation, we recognize? of course, that there are differences in the purposes of making corrections
between the classroom teacher and the NS friend. In general, the classroom teacher is motivated by a desire to help her students learn the target language, and she may feel that error correction aids in this process. The NS friend, on the other hand, may be primarily motivated by a desire to converse with her NNS friend. However, it does not seem to us as though the purpose for giving error corrections precludes giving unambiguous, clear, and consistent corrections.

6.0 Conclusion

The findings presented in this report claim that NSs, in their conversational dealings in social settings (as opposed to laboratory or quasi-laboratory settings), correct errors which the NNS friends, who are students of English, make. These corrections are supplied by two strategies: on-record correction, and off-record correction. These error correction strategies are both initiated and completed by the NSs. In addition, NSs also use noncorrective repair strategies common to NS-NS conversation (e.g. clarification requests, noncorrective confirmation checks) to repair conversational breakdowns.

Future research should seek to determine if NS error correction is an integral part of successful second language acquisition. We raise this point in view of the relatively small percentage of errors which were corrected in our data (of the 1595 NNS errors, only 117, or 7.3%, were corrected). One theory of second language acquisition claims that the learner, like the child first language learner, posits hypotheses about the target language which are constantly being tested and revised according to input. It is important to learn what role, if any, error correction plays in this process. The fact that corrections are given does not mean that they necessarily play a role in subsequent learning.

It would also be important to learn the restrictions, if any, on the making of error corrections. For example, is the ethnicity or culture of the NNS a factor? Further, would the ethnicity or culture of the NS influence the use of error correction? We know that there are cultural differences in speech input to children learning their first language (e.g., Peters (to appear)), so it would not be too surprising to discover that there are cultural differences in error correction in second language acquisition. Another question concerns the role which the NNS assume in the target culture. We should seek to discover if NSs are as likely to give corrections to their NNS friends who are not actively engaged in learning the target language as they are with those who are active second language learners.

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Notes

1The transcription symbols used in this report are as follows:

. sound is held
// interruption, speakers overlap each other
(( )) researchers' comments
cutoff, self-interruption
= latching, one sound seems tied to the next
,, omission of irrelevant or unrelated data

2In noting the source of the data, the letters refer to the program (ELI or HPC). The first number, {e.g. 402} refers to the tape number. Tape numbers which end in 3 signal that the tape is a game tape. The last number (e.g. 176) represents the number on the tape recorder's counter.

References


Gaskill, William H. 1980. Correction in native speaker-


Table 1. Occurrences of Error Correction

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Table 2. Totals for the Two Strategies

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Table 3. Occurrences of NS-Initiated NNS-Completed Repair Strategies

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Table 4. Occurrences of NNS-Initiated NS-Completed Repair Strategies

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</table>
Table 5. The conversational Structure of Error Correction

(1) Is error correct! on given at a transition point?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (I's)</th>
<th>NO (II's)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) If interruption, does NS seize the turn (i.e. give the correction and continue)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (F)</th>
<th>NO (IIA-E)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(3) If correction is given at transition point, does NS yield turn after giving it?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (IA-E)</th>
<th>NO (G)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4a) Does the NNS acknowledge the error correction?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (I&amp;IIB-E)</th>
<th>NO (IA&amp;IIB)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4b) Does the NNS acknowledge the error correction at a transition point only?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (IB-E)</th>
<th>NO (IA)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5a) Does the NNS then yield turn?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (I&amp;IIC-E)</th>
<th>NO (I&amp;IIB)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5b) Does this occur at a transition point?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (IC-E)</th>
<th>NO (IB)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6a) Does NS respond to the acknowledgement?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (I&amp;IID-E)</th>
<th>NO (I&amp;IIC)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6b) Does this occur at a transition point?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (ID&amp;E)</th>
<th>NO (IC)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(7a) Does NS then yield turn?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (I&amp;IIE)</th>
<th>NO (I&amp;IID)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(7b) Does this occur at a transition point?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES (ID&amp;E)</th>
<th>NO (IC)</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p<.01$

** $p<.05$
Figure 1. A Model of NS Error Correction in NS-NNS-Discourse

1 No = error correction given at transition point

2 These points mark theoretical ends of the side sequence where the main topic of conversation is resumed.