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Student Perspectives on Oral Corrective Feedback: Development and Validation of a Scenario-Based Scale

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Oral corrective feedback (OCF) is widely recognized as crucial for second language learning, yet its effectiveness depends significantly on learners' receptivity and beliefs. Existing instruments for measuring OCF beliefs face methodological limitations: they rely on abstract, theory-driven terminology that may be misinterpreted by learners, impose researcher-generated factor structures that may not reflect authentic learner perspectives, and carry culture-bound interpretive burdens that limit cross-cultural comparability.

Purpose: This study develops and validates a scenario-based instrument for measuring learner beliefs about OCF that prioritizes accessibility and ecological validity by presenting concrete classroom situations rather than abstract terminology. The two-phase validation approach employs exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify how learners naturally organize their beliefs, followed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate the discovered structure.

Method: A 50-item scenario-based questionnaire was developed through expert review and pilot testing, then administered to 668 B2-level English learners in a Turkish university preparatory program. The sample was randomly split: EFA was conducted on the first subsample (n = 334) using principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation, and CFA was performed on the holdout sample (n = 334) to validate the factor structure.

Results: EFA identified a six-factor structure explaining 61.4% of variance: Affective Response to Correction (strongest dimension, $\alpha = .85$), OCF Type Preferences ($\alpha = .87$), Correction Timing Preferences ($\alpha = .81$), Context-Sensitive Correction ($\alpha = .79$), Correction Source Preferences ($\alpha = .72$), and OCF Uptake and Response ($\alpha = .76$). CFA confirmed the six-factor solution with acceptable fit indices (CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07). Notably, learners organized correction types by experiential familiarity rather than theoretical distinctions (input-providing vs. output-prompting), and affective considerations emerged as central rather than peripheral to belief systems.

Conclusion: The scenario-based approach yields accessible items that reduce culture-bound interpretive burden and enhance cross-cultural comparability. The identified dimensions: affect, type, timing, context, source, and uptake, map onto decision points common to EFL/ESL classrooms globally, offering a scalable measurement model for comparative research across educational systems. Findings encourage pedagogy that is adaptable to context, sensitive to affect, and aligned with how learners actually experience correction. Future research should test measurement invariance across diverse cultural and linguistic settings to establish international applicability.

KEYWORDS

confirmatory factor analysis; exploratory factor analysis; learner beliefs; oral corrective feedback

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INTRODUCTION

Oral corrective feedback (OCF) has long been recognized as a crucial aspect of second language (L2) instruction, with extensive empirical evidence demonstrating its effectiveness in promoting

L2 learning (Brown, 2016; Kang & Han, 2015; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010). However, the success of OCF is not solely determined by its linguistic or pedagogical properties, but also by learners' beliefs about and receptivity to different correction strategies (Kartchava & Ammar,



2013; Kim & Mostafa, 2021; Li, 2017). These beliefs influence whether learners notice corrective moves, how they interpret the teacher's intentions, and to what extent they adopt or resist feedback (Akiyama, 2017; Han, 2017; Leontjev, 2016). Consequently, a growing body of research suggests that understanding learner beliefs about OCF is essential for designing effective feedback practices in diverse EFL/ESL contexts (Bao & Wang, 2023; Ha, 2023; Weekly et al., 2022; Wiboolyasarini et al., 2023; Yang, 2016; Zhu & Wang, 2019)

In line with research on language learner and teacher cognition, beliefs are widely viewed as dynamic and experience-dependent rather than fixed, purely cognitive traits (Borg, 2006; Mercer, 2011). From this perspective, beliefs about OCF can be reshaped by classroom experiences, changing participation roles, and exposure to different instructional approaches (Ellis, 2008; Leontjev, 2016; Liu & Feng, 2023). Empirical studies on L2 beliefs and emotions similarly show that what learners regard as acceptable or useful feedback is closely tied to the kinds of tasks, interactional formats, and evaluative practices they encounter (Bao & Wang, 2023; Ha, 2023; Le et al., 2025; Sarandi, 2024; Wiboolyasarini et al., 2023). Extending this line of work, recent research on OCF has documented considerable variation in how feedback is conceptualized and evaluated across institutional and national contexts (Le et al., 2025; Milla & García Mayo, 2023; Sardabi et al., 2025; Ye & Hu, 2025; Zhu & Wang, 2019). This work suggests that instruments designed to assess OCF beliefs should be sensitive to learners' experiences of feedback and usable in different educational systems, rather than presupposing a single, stable, theory-driven view of OCF.

However, the instruments most commonly used to investigate learner beliefs about OCF are not fully aligned with these developments. Many questionnaires adopt researcher-generated taxonomies of feedback types as their organizing principle and ask learners to evaluate abstract labels such as "recast," "metalinguistic feedback," or "implicit feedback" in decontextualized Likert statements (e.g., Ha & Nguyen, 2021; Ye & Hu, 2025; Zhu & Wang, 2019). Factor structures in such instruments often mirror theoretical distinctions—such as input-providing versus output-prompting feedback—without clear evidence that these categories correspond to how learners themselves group and interpret corrective moves (Bao & Wang, 2023; Le et al., 2025; Zhu & Wang, 2019). Moreover, studies conducted in different regions have raised concerns about the accessibility and cross-contextual comparability of abstract, theory-labelled items, especially where SLA metalanguage is not part of everyday classroom discourse (Bao & Wang, 2023; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021; Sephehrinia & Arabmofrad, 2025). These observations point to a need for instruments that move closer to learners' own perspectives by representing feedback in concrete classroom scenarios and deriving belief dimensions empirically rather than imposing them a priori.

The present study responds to this need by developing and validating a student-centered, scenario-based instrument for measuring learner beliefs about OCF. Drawing on common classroom events involving OCF, the instrument presents short imaginary situations depicting specific interactional episodes and asks learners to rate their reactions to these situations. The scale is constructed and evaluated through a two-phase design. In Phase 1, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used to identify how learners naturally organize their beliefs when responding to the scenario-based items. In Phase 2, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) tests the resulting factor structure on an independent subsample, following recent methodological recommendations for rigorous scale development in applied linguistics and educational measurement (Goretzko et al., 2021; Nájera et al., 2025). Situated in a Turkish university preparatory program, the study aims to (a) derive an empirically grounded, learner-centered dimensional structure of OCF beliefs and (b) provide an instrument that can serve as a basis for future research on OCF beliefs within and beyond this context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundations of OCF Research

The field of OCF research has been built around several influential theoretical frameworks that researchers have used to categorize and make sense of different correction strategies. Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis was one of the first to really establish why OCF matters in SLA - it showed how negative evidence through correction helps learners notice their mistakes and then learn from them. This work opened the door for other researchers to develop ways of classifying OCF types, with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework becoming particularly influential by separating reformulations (like recasts and explicit correction) from prompts (such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition).

These theoretical distinctions have proven valuable for research purposes, enabling systematic investigation of different correction strategies and their relative effectiveness (Brown, 2016; Kang & Han, 2015). However, the complexity of these taxonomies raises important questions about their accessibility to L2 learners themselves. While researchers can reliably distinguish between, for example, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests, it remains unclear whether learners make similar conceptual distinctions when experiencing these correction types in classroom contexts. This potential gap between analytic categories and learner perception has become increasingly salient as research has placed greater emphasis on learner perspectives and beliefs alongside teacher practices (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

Learner Beliefs and OCF

Given these theoretical complexities, the investigation of learner beliefs about OCF has emerged as a significant research strand, recognizing that student attitudes and expectations play crucial roles in determining the effectiveness of pedagogical interventions (Horwitz, 1987; Schulz, 2001; Li, 2017). Research on learner beliefs about OCF has consistently revealed that students hold sophisticated perspectives about error correction in L2 learning contexts. Learners generally demonstrate positive attitudes toward OCF, recognizing its importance for language development while expressing varied preferences for specific correction strategies (Yang, 2016; Kartchava, 2016).

Studies have consistently found that learners prefer explicit forms of feedback, particularly metalinguistic explanations and direct corrections, over more implicit approaches such as recasts (Yang, 2016; Kim & Mostafa, 2021; Zhu & Wang, 2019). Yang's (2016) investigation revealed strong preferences for metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, especially for phonological errors, and clear preferences for immediate over delayed correction. Drawing on a wide range of questionnaire and interview studies, Kim and Mostafa (2021) similarly conclude, in their synthesis of teachers' and students' beliefs about corrective feedback, that learners across many instructional contexts tend to value explicit, salient feedback that clearly indicates what is wrong and how to improve it, and often regard highly implicit moves such as recasts as less informative or less noticeable. Zhu and Wang's (2019) large-scale survey of Chinese EFL learners likewise documents a robust orientation toward explicit correction strategies for grammatical and lexical errors. Taken together, this evidence suggests that learners possess complex metalinguistic awareness about the relationship between error types and appropriate correction strategies, challenging the assumption that students hold uniform, undifferentiated preferences for either explicit or implicit feedback across all linguistic aspects.

More recent work has deepened this picture by focusing on how beliefs are intertwined with learners' affective responses and self-regulation. In a Korean EFL context, Ha (2023) showed that students' perceptions of feedback were tightly linked to feelings of support, anxiety, and fairness, suggesting that preferences for explicitness or timing are inseparable from how feedback is experienced emotionally. Weekly et al. (2022), working with Japanese learners, similarly found that engagement with feedback depended on learners' prior experiences and trust in their teachers' intentions, with some students endorsing explicit correction in principle but resisting feedback that threatened face or autonomy. These studies portray learners as holding sophisticated, affectively loaded, and context-sensitive beliefs about correction rather than simple "more/less feedback" preferences.

Theoretical perspectives have increasingly conceptualized learner beliefs as dynamic, experience-dependent constructs rather than fixed, purely cognitive traits (Han, 2017; Kim & Mostafa, 2021). From this view, beliefs about OCF are shaped and reshaped by ongoing classroom interaction, evolving participation roles, and exposure to different instructional approaches. Ha's (2023) analysis of changing student stances across feedback episodes, and Weekly et al.'s (2022) documentation of shifts in engagement as learners accumulate feedback experience, both exemplify this dynamic perspective. Although most OCF belief studies, including the present one, are cross-sectional, these conceptual and empirical developments imply that instruments must capture belief configurations that are grounded in lived classroom experience and, in principle, sensitive to change.

Cross-contextual and Cultural Patterning of OCF Beliefs

Comparative studies conducted in different instructional contexts have highlighted how learner beliefs about OCF are shaped by local pedagogical traditions and interactional cultures. Bao and Wang (2023), in a large-scale investigation of Chinese university learners, found robust endorsement of teacher-led, explicit feedback for grammar and vocabulary, alongside more mixed views of peer involvement and public correction. Learners valued the clarity and authority associated with teacher feedback but expressed reservations about peer correction in evaluative or face-threatening situations. Wiboolyasarini et al. (2023), studying Thai secondary students, similarly reported strong support for explicit teacher correction, yet noted greater acceptance of peer correction when it occurred in collaborative tasks framed as mutual support. In a European university setting, Sarandi (2024) documented relatively high tolerance for peer and collaborative correction, coupled with continued reliance on teachers for complex grammatical issues. In another university context, Le et al. (2025), working with Vietnamese learners, likewise showed that preferences for source (teacher vs. peer), timing (immediate vs. delayed), and modality (oral vs. written) were conditioned by task focus and local norms about hierarchy and participation.

Findings from these recent cross-context investigations collectively highlight three themes that are particularly relevant to the present study. First, they confirm generally positive orientations toward being corrected and continued preference for explicit feedback across diverse contexts, including Asian (Bao & Wang, 2023; Wiboolyasarini et al., 2023), Turkish/European (Sarandi, 2024), and Southeast Asian (Le et al., 2025) university and secondary settings. Second, they highlight that beliefs about timing, source, and public versus private delivery are configured differently across instructional cultures, reflecting local expectations about teacher

authority, peer relations, and face management (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021). Third, they demonstrate that learners talk about OCF primarily in experience-near terms (who corrects whom, in what activity, and in front of whom) rather than via abstract feedback labels. This last point directly motivates a more student-centered, scenario-based approach to measuring OCF beliefs.

The timing of OCF also emerges as a critical factor in learner beliefs. Research consistently shows that learners prefer immediate correction over delayed feedback (Li, 2017). They view prompt intervention as more effective for noticing and uptake (Kartchava, 2016). This preference for getting corrected right away may come from learners' concern about keeping communication flowing while making sure errors get addressed before they become permanent habits. However, Martin and Sippel (2025) found that Latin American learners demonstrated more flexible timing preferences, valuing immediate correction during accuracy-focused activities but preferring delayed feedback during fluency tasks. This suggests that timing preferences may be moderated by both task type and cultural expectations about classroom interaction patterns.

Large-scale and Multidimensional Investigations of OCF Beliefs

Building on these individual studies, a smaller number of large-scale investigations have attempted to map learner belief patterns more systematically and comprehensively. Most notably, Zhu and Wang's (2019) extensive survey of 2,670 Chinese EFL learners represents the most comprehensive quantitative investigation of OCF beliefs to date. Their study employed a questionnaire designed to capture multiple dimensions of learner beliefs about OCF, identifying seven distinct factors underlying OCF beliefs: general attitudes toward correction, timing preferences, beliefs about different correction strategies, preferences for correction sources, attitudes toward error types, beliefs about the learning benefits of correction, and emotional responses to feedback. Their findings largely corroborated patterns identified in smaller-scale studies, revealing generally positive attitudes toward OCF among Chinese EFL learners. Participants demonstrated strong preferences for immediate correction and teacher-provided feedback over peer correction. This aligns with cultural expectations about teacher authority and expertise. The study also confirmed learners' preferences for explicit correction strategies, particularly for grammatical and lexical errors, while showing more tolerance for implicit approaches in communicative contexts.

Bao and Wang (2023) extend this line of research by refining OCF belief dimensions and examining how they relate to learners' reported engagement and affect. Their validated scales confirm the multidimensional nature of OCF beliefs and highlight the centrality of emotional and relational factors (e.g., trust, face, perceived support) in shaping respons-

es to feedback. However, as with Zhu and Wang (2019), their items predominantly present OCF as named categories (e.g., "recasts," "explicit correction," "peer feedback") rather than embedding these options in concrete interactional situations.

While Zhu and Wang's (2019) investigation provides valuable insights into the multidimensional nature of learner beliefs and drew on learner interviews (Zhu, 2016) to inform item development, their final instrument primarily presents OCF as decontextualized categories. Similarly, Bao and Wang's (2023) instrument remains largely terminology-based despite its detailed factor structure. The contribution of the present study is representational rather than oppositional: it renders OCF beliefs through concrete, classroom-based scenarios that mirror how learners actually encounter feedback. This scenario-based format is intended to enhance interpretability and ecological validity for respondents, thereby reducing the cognitive burden associated with abstract terminology and enabling belief structures to emerge from familiar classroom experiences. In the present manuscript, the term 'student-centered' is used to refer to the scenario-based representation of OCF beliefs.

Methodological Challenges in OCF Belief Research

Despite growing recognition of the importance of learner beliefs, several methodological concerns have emerged in the literature on OCF beliefs. First, the interpretability and accessibility of questionnaire items represent a critical consideration for measuring OCF beliefs. Research in educational psychology has demonstrated that item comprehensibility significantly affects response validity, particularly when participants must interpret abstract concepts or technical terminology (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). In the context of OCF beliefs, this concern is especially crucial given that many existing questionnaire items present OCF concepts in abstract ways that may not match learners' actual classroom experiences. For instance, items such as "When I make an error, the teacher should point it out implicitly" require learners to interpret what "implicit" correction might look like in practice, introducing unnecessary ambiguity. Some items in the questionnaires require learners to understand and differentiate between specific OCF strategies or specialized SLA concepts such as "metalinguistic feedback," "uptake," and "explicit correction" without sufficient contextual support. The cognitive load imposed by such abstract item structures may lead to measurement error, as respondents may base their answers on misinterpretations of the intended constructs rather than their actual beliefs about classroom correction experiences.

The interpretive challenge is particularly evident in cross-context research. Studies such as Wiboolyasarin et al. (2023) and Le et al. (2025) show that learners tend to talk about correction using experience-near formulations ("the

teacher corrects me in front of the class," "my friends correct me in group work") rather than technical labels. When instruments require respondents to work with researcher-generated terminology, there is a risk that responses will partly reflect how learners interpret the wording rather than their underlying beliefs about familiar events. This interpretive challenge is compounded in cross-cultural research, where learners from different educational traditions may have varying levels of familiarity with SLA terminology and different conceptual frameworks for understanding correction (Milla & García Mayo, 2023; Sepehrinia & Arabmofrad, 2025). This suggests that instrument development should prioritize item interpretability and accessibility. It ensures that questionnaire items reflect recognizable classroom situations with sufficient contextual information about how specific approaches actually unfold in classroom interactions rather than theoretical abstract notions that may be unfamiliar to language learners.

Second, the disconnect between theoretical frameworks and learner experience creates challenges for valid measurement. While researchers may organize OCF into categories such as "input-providing" and "output-prompting" for analytical purposes, such instruments often fail to present these concepts in ways that are meaningful and accessible to language learners. Recent studies have emphasized the importance of grounding OCF belief instruments in learners' actual classroom experiences rather than abstract theoretical distinctions (Ha & Nguyen, 2021). Findings from Ha (2023) and Weekly et al. (2022) further highlight that learners frequently evaluate feedback in terms of whether it feels supportive or threatening, whether it disrupts communication, and whether it helps them understand what to do differently: dimensions that do not map neatly onto standard taxonomies of OCF types. Comparative research suggests that the gap between theoretical categories and learner understanding may vary across contexts: learners in grammar-focused Asian classrooms may be more familiar with explicit metalinguistic terminology (Duklim, 2023), while those in communicative European settings may conceptualize correction more holistically in terms of communication repair (Ferreiro-Santamaria, 2024).

Third, the static nature of many existing instruments fails to capture the dynamic quality of learner beliefs. Research has shown that OCF beliefs can vary significantly based on learners' proficiency levels, with high-accuracy and low-accuracy learners holding different preferences about timing, error types, and correction sources (Brown, 2016). More recent work similarly documents shifts in beliefs associated with changing task demands and feedback experiences (Ha, 2023; Weekly et al., 2022), reinforcing the view of beliefs as responsive to instructional conditions rather than as stable traits. This suggests that instruments should be sensitive to

the evolving nature of learner perspectives and contextual factors that influence formation of beliefs.

Toward Student-Centered Measurement Approaches

Recent developments have emphasized the importance of student-centered approaches that prioritize learner experience and perspective (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Kim & Mostafa, 2021). In the context of OCF research, this suggests a need for instruments that reflect how learners naturally conceptualize and experience correction rather than imposing researcher-generated theoretical frameworks. Scenario-based approaches offer one promising approach for addressing these concerns. By presenting concrete classroom situations rather than abstract concepts, scenario-based items can enhance interpretation and maintain the accuracy of measurement. This approach has shown success in other domains of language learning research, including motivation (Dörnyei, 2005) and language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). The recent cross-context studies reviewed above (Bao & Wang, 2023; Wiboolyasarin et al., 2023; Sarandi, 2024; Le et al., 2025) also implicitly support this direction by illustrating how learners describe and reason about correction in richly contextualized, situation-specific terms, including Turkish university classrooms where peer and teacher feedback are negotiated within particular task and assessment regimes (Sarandi, 2024).

Furthermore, student-centered approaches to factor identification, such as exploratory factor analysis guided by learner experience rather than theoretical prediction, may reveal more authentic patterns of belief organization. Such approaches could provide insights into how learners actually think about OCF. This potentially reveals belief structures that differ from those assumed by current theoretical frameworks (Kim & Mostafa, 2021).

The development of scenario-based instruments requires careful attention to item construction and validation procedures. Effective scenario-based items should present realistic classroom situations that are familiar to language learners across different educational contexts while avoiding cultural or contextual bias that might limit instrument applicability (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Additionally, the language used in scenario-based items must strike a balance between being specific and generalizable. This can be achieved by providing enough contextual detail to make the situation concrete while remaining applicable to diverse classroom settings. Recent advances in psychometric methodology have enhanced opportunities to identify authentic belief structures that emerge from learner responses rather than being imposed by theoretical frameworks. Contemporary developments include improved factor retention criteria, re-

defined rotation procedures, and systematic comparisons of factor analytic techniques across the confirmatory-exploratory continuum (Nájera et al., 2025). Comprehensive instrument validation requires both exploratory identification of factor structures and confirmatory validation to ensure psychometric robustness and generalizability across contexts (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Additionally, current methodological guidelines emphasize the importance of sample size considerations, extraction methods, and rotation choices in exploratory factor analysis (Goretzko et al., 2021). These methodological developments, combined with student-centered items prioritizing accessibility, support more valid instruments for capturing learner beliefs about OCF. In sum, the present study does not claim to replace theory with learner testimony; rather, it reframes established OCF constructs in scenario-based terms to improve accessibility and ecological validity when learners report their beliefs.

The Present Study

Despite these limitations, no existing study has systematically developed and validated a scenario-based instrument for measuring OCF beliefs from a student-centered perspective through comprehensive psychometric validation. Building on the methodological considerations outlined above, the present study aims to develop and validate a student-centered instrument for measuring OCF beliefs through a two-phase approach that addresses the limitations identified in existing research. By employing scenario-based items and prioritizing learner experience over theoretical distinctions, this study seeks to create a more accessible and valid measurement tool that better reflects how language learners naturally conceptualize OCF. The present study is guided by the following research questions:

- RQ1. How do language learners' beliefs cluster around different aspects of OCF when measured through concrete classroom scenarios?
- RQ2. What factor structure emerges when OCF beliefs are measured using student-centered, scenario-based items, and can this structure be confirmed through independent validation?

METHOD

Participants

The study employed a convenience sampling approach to recruit participants from a one-year intensive English preparatory program at a public university in Türkiye. All participants were enrolled in B2-level courses according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) descriptors, ensuring sufficient English proficiency to comprehend the questionnaire items and minimize language-related comprehension issues that might affect response validity. While convenience sampling from a single institution limits

generalizability, this approach was deemed appropriate for the exploratory phase of instrument development, where the primary goal is to identify authentic belief structures through scenario-based measurement. The Turkish university context represents a setting where English is learned as a foreign language with limited naturalistic exposure, a condition shared by many EFL contexts globally, and where preparatory programs emphasize both accuracy and fluency development, making it a relevant starting point for developing an instrument with potential international applicability.

Students in this preparatory program receive intensive English instruction designed to develop the language skills necessary for success in their subsequent English-medium instruction (EMI) degree programs. The B2 proficiency level was specifically targeted as it represents an intermediate-to-advanced level where learners possess sufficient metalinguistic awareness to reflect meaningfully on their OCF experiences while still being actively engaged in L2 learning processes where OCF remains pedagogically relevant.

Recruitment was conducted through multiple channels to maximize participation rates while maintaining voluntary participation. The researcher contacted students through course instructors, email announcements, and direct classroom visits to explain the study purpose and invite participation. The questionnaire was administered electronically via Google Forms to facilitate data collection and ensure participant anonymity.

A total of 668 students completed the survey. The sample comprised 280 female participants (41.9%) and 388 male participants (58.1%), with ages ranging from 17 to 39 years ($M = 20.3$, $SD = 2.1$). The majority of participants (88.7%) fell within the traditional university age range of 17-24 years, reflecting the typical demographic profile of preparatory program students.

To assess participants' self-perceived oral proficiency, respondents were asked to rate their English speaking ability on a four-point scale. The distribution of self-ratings was as follows: 5.9% rated their English as 'excellent', 28.8% as 'good', 59.3% as 'average', and 6.0% as 'poor'. This distribution suggests that the majority of participants possessed moderate confidence in their oral English abilities. This matches what is typically expected at the B2 proficiency level and makes it suitable for exploring learners' perspectives on OCF.

It is important to acknowledge that the single-institution, single-context nature of this sample limits the generalizability of findings to other proficiency levels, age groups, and cultural contexts. The Turkish preparatory program context reflects specific pedagogical traditions that blend grammar-focused instruction with communicative activities, and learners' beliefs may be shaped by these local practices.

Future research should investigate whether this factor structure remains stable across diverse educational settings, including contexts with different instructional approaches (e.g., immersion programs, content-based instruction), cultural norms regarding teacher authority and peer interaction, and proficiency levels. Cross-cultural validation studies comparing learner beliefs across East Asian, European, Middle Eastern, and Latin American contexts would be particularly valuable for establishing the international applicability of the scenario-based instrument.

Instrument

To promote interpretability while maintaining construct coverage, a scenario-based questionnaire that situates each belief statement within a familiar classroom event was designed. The initial item pool was generated through a structured review of prior OCF belief instruments and published descriptions of OCF in classroom interaction (e.g., transcript excerpts, vignette-like examples, and procedural accounts reported in articles). Instead of accessing raw datasets from previous researchers or collecting new learner interviews for item generation, recurring, well-documented correction situations from published sources were abstracted and translated into concise, respondent-friendly scenarios. A panel of five experts in L2 acquisition and language assessment reviewed all items for clarity, realism, and construct alignment. This review was followed by a pilot with B2 learners, which was used to refine the wording. In this study, the term “student centered” refers to the representational format. Specifically, it means that the instrument uses concrete classroom scenarios that reflect how learners encounter oral corrective feedback. It does not refer to the data source, since the scenarios were not derived from new learner interviews. This format was intended to enable the participants to visualize specific correction situations rather than interpret abstract concepts. For example, instead of asking about preferences for “metalinguistic feedback,” items presented specific scenarios such as “When I say ‘I borned in 1998,’ I prefer if my teacher explains ‘We don’t say ‘borned’ because ‘born’ is already in past form’ rather than just saying ‘I was born.’” This approach eliminates the need for participants to interpret specialized terminology while maintaining construct validity. The scenario-based format was designed to enhance cross-cultural transferability by depicting common classroom interactions (e.g., pronunciation corrections, grammar feedback during discussions, peer correction in group work) that are recognizable across diverse EFL/ESL settings, thereby reducing culture-bound interpretive burden.

The scenarios represented authentic classroom interactions that would be recognizable to B2-level learners. Error types included common mistakes observed in instructional contexts, such as pronunciation errors (“vegetable” pronounced as “vege-teybl”), grammatical mistakes (“he don’t” instead of “he doesn’t”), and pragmatic issues (using “Give

me that!” instead of “Could I have that?”). Correction strategies were presented through realistic teacher responses rather than abstract categories. This allowed participants to respond based on their actual classroom experiences.

Content validation of the initial 60-item pool was conducted by a panel of five experts in L2 acquisition and language assessment. Panel members included three professors in English language teaching and two experienced EFL instructors with master degrees in TESOL. Experts evaluated each item for clarity and relevance. They also analyzed the items to see whether they represent the intended construct while assessing whether scenarios reflected authentic classroom situations. Based on feedback from the experts, 10 items were eliminated due to cultural specificity or ambiguous wording, resulting in a 50-item instrument. The remaining items were refined to ensure consistent scenario structure and appropriate linguistic complexity for B2-level learners. Expert reviewers confirmed that the scenarios represented realistic classroom interactions and that the illustrated correction strategies were commonly encountered in EFL contexts.

The final questionnaire consisted of 50 scenario-based items designed to measure multiple dimensions of learner beliefs about OCF. Items were organized around ten conceptual aspects that emerged from the student-centered development process: (1) Value of Error Correction, (2) Emotional Response to Correction, (3) Correction Timing, (4) Correction Directness Spectrum, (5) Correction Provider, (6) Correction Response, (7) Correction Focus, (8) Correction Context, (9) Correction Comprehensiveness, and (10) Correction Clarity. Each item presented a specific classroom scenario involving a speaking error, followed by a statement about the correction approach or learner response. Participants indicated their level of agreement using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). The even-numbered scale was chosen to eliminate neutral responses and encourage participants to take a position on each belief statement (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Prior to the main data collection, the questionnaire underwent pilot testing with 45 B2-level students from the same institutional context who were not included in the main study. Pilot participants completed the questionnaire and provided feedback on item clarity, scenario authenticity, and overall comprehensibility. Based on pilot feedback, minor wording adjustments were made to three items to enhance clarity, and the average completion time was determined to be approximately 20-25 minutes. Pilot testing confirmed that participants found the scenarios realistic and relatable to their classroom experiences. Importantly, no participants reported difficulty understanding the correction approaches described in the scenarios. This confirmed that the scenario-based format eliminated comprehension issues associated with abstract terminology in existing instruments.

The questionnaire provided clear instructions in the beginning which explained the classroom scenarios and how to use the rating scale. Participants were informed that the scenarios described common classroom situations and were asked to respond based on their personal beliefs and preferences regarding OCF. To minimize response fatigue, items were presented in randomized order, and the questionnaire included a progress indicator. Participants were allowed to complete the survey at their own pace. They had the option to save responses and return later if needed. Using the electronic format made it possible to automatically check the data, helping to ensure that all responses were complete and that the scales were used correctly.

Data Analysis

Since the existing instruments fall short of capturing learner beliefs about OCF through student-centered, scenario-based approaches, a two-phase analytical approach was employed to develop and validate the instrument. Phase 1 utilized exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify the underlying latent constructs represented by the 50 questionnaire items, while Phase 2 employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate the factor structure identified in the exploratory phase. This sequential EFA-CFA approach ensures comprehensive psychometric validation while maintaining the exploratory nature necessary for discovering authentic learner belief structures. The inclusion of CFA addresses the need for rigorous validation beyond exploratory analysis, providing evidence for the stability and replicability of the factor structure.

To implement this two-phase approach, the total sample ($N = 668$) was randomly split into two subsamples: Sample 1 ($n = 334$) for EFA and Sample 2 ($n = 334$) for CFA. This division satisfies the minimum sample size requirements for both analyses, with each subsample exceeding the recommended 300 cases and maintaining adequate subject-to-variable ratios (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

EFA was deemed appropriate for the first phase as the study aimed to discover how learners naturally organize their beliefs about OCF rather than confirming predetermined theoretical structures. Prior to conducting EFA, preliminary analyses were conducted on Sample 1 to evaluate data suitability and robustness. The overall reliability of the 50-item questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Data factorability was evaluated using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

Multiple criteria were employed to determine the optimal number of factors to retain: (1) the Kaiser criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Kaiser, 1960); (2) parallel analysis using Monte Carlo simulation with 1000 iterations (Horn, 1965); (3) visual inspection of the scree plot (Cattell, 1966); and (4) examination of cumulative variance explained. This

multi-criteria approach was adopted to address the recognized limitations of relying on any single factor retention method (Ruscio & Roche, 2012).

Prior to factor extraction, the distributional properties of the data were examined through tests of normality, including Shapiro-Wilk tests and examination of skewness and kurtosis values for each item. Principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation was employed, given expected factor inter-correlations. Items were considered to load significantly on a factor if their factor loadings exceeded .40, and cross-loading items (loading above .32 on multiple factors) were carefully examined for theoretical coherence and potential removal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Factors were retained only if they contained at least three items with substantial loadings and demonstrated conceptual coherence from a theoretical perspective.

Following the identification of the factor structure in Phase 1, CFA was conducted on Sample 2 to validate the proposed model. The CFA employed maximum likelihood estimation and evaluated model fit using multiple indices: the chi-square test, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Acceptable model fit was defined as CFI and TLI $\geq .90$, RMSEA $\leq .08$, and SRMR $\leq .08$, with good fit indicated by CFI and TLI $\geq .95$, RMSEA $\leq .06$, and SRMR $\leq .06$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Internal consistency reliability was calculated for each factor using both samples, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients and composite reliability indices reported. Convergent validity was assessed through average variance extracted (AVE), with values $\geq .50$ indicating adequate convergent validity. Discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the square root of AVE for each factor with its correlations with other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Following factor extraction and rotation in Phase 1, and model validation in Phase 2, descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis were calculated for each factor using the complete sample to assess distributional properties and central tendencies. Inter-factor correlations were examined to validate the appropriateness of oblique rotation and assess the relationships between belief dimensions.

All statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 25.0, with parallel analysis performed using the Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis software. CFA was conducted using Mplus version 8.6. Missing data were handled using listwise deletion, as the electronic administration format resulted in minimal missing responses ($< 2\%$ across all items). The significance level was set at $\alpha = .05$ for all statistical tests, and effect sizes were interpreted according to established conventions in applied linguistics research (Plonsky & Osborne, 2014).

RESULTS

Prior to conducting exploratory factor analysis, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed using the first subsample ($n = 334$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy yielded a value of .89, exceeding the recommended threshold of .80 and indicating very good factorability of the data (Field, 2018). Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 8,947.23$, $df = 1225$, $p < .001$), confirming that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix and supporting the appropriateness of factor analysis procedures.

Multiple criteria were employed to determine the optimal number of factors to retain, following established best practices in factor analysis (Goretzko et al., 2021). The Kaiser criterion suggested 13 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. However, parallel analysis using Monte Carlo simulation with 1000 iterations indicated that only six factors had eigenvalues exceeding those generated by random data. Visual inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear elbow after the sixth factor (see Figure 1 below). The convergence of these criteria supported the selection of a six-factor solution, which provided the most theoretically interpretable structure while accounting for 61.4% of the total variance in learner beliefs about OCF.

Principal axis factoring with direct oblimin rotation was employed to extract factors, given the expected intercorrelations among belief dimensions. The rotation converged in 12 iterations, producing a stable and interpretable factor structure. The final solution retained 40 of the original 50 items, with ten items removed due to insufficient factor loadings ($<.40$) or problematic cross-loadings ($>.32$ on multi-

ple factors). The excluded items were: 2, 5, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40, 41, 48, and 49.

Table 1 below presents the complete factor structure matrix with pattern coefficients, communalities, eigenvalues, and reliability coefficients. All retained factors demonstrated acceptable to excellent internal consistency reliability, with Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranging from .72 to .87, meeting established thresholds for psychometric adequacy in educational research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The six-factor structure reveals how learners organize their OCF beliefs when measured through concrete scenarios. Factor 1, Affective Response to Correction, emerged as the strongest dimension (eigenvalue = 6.89, $\alpha = .85$, 13.8% variance), comprising seven items that capture emotional reactions including appreciation, embarrassment, reluctance, confidence changes, anxiety, and fear ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.87$). The prominence of this affective dimension suggests that emotional considerations are central—not peripheral—to how learners conceptualize feedback. This finding may have particular relevance in collectivist educational contexts where face-saving concerns and group harmony shape classroom interaction norms (Sardabi et al., 2025; Sepehriinia & Arabmofrad, 2025). Cross-cultural research indicates such responses vary significantly: learners in East Asian and Middle Eastern contexts often report heightened embarrassment and preference for private feedback (Al-Jawala, 2024; Ye & Hu, 2025), whereas European learners in communicative classrooms may demonstrate greater comfort with peer-mediated correction (Milla & García Mayo, 2023). The scenario-based format may be particularly effective at surfacing these affective dimensions, as concrete classroom sit-

Figure 1.

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues from Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCF Beliefs Questionnaire Items

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues from Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCF Beliefs Questionnaire Items ($n = 334$)

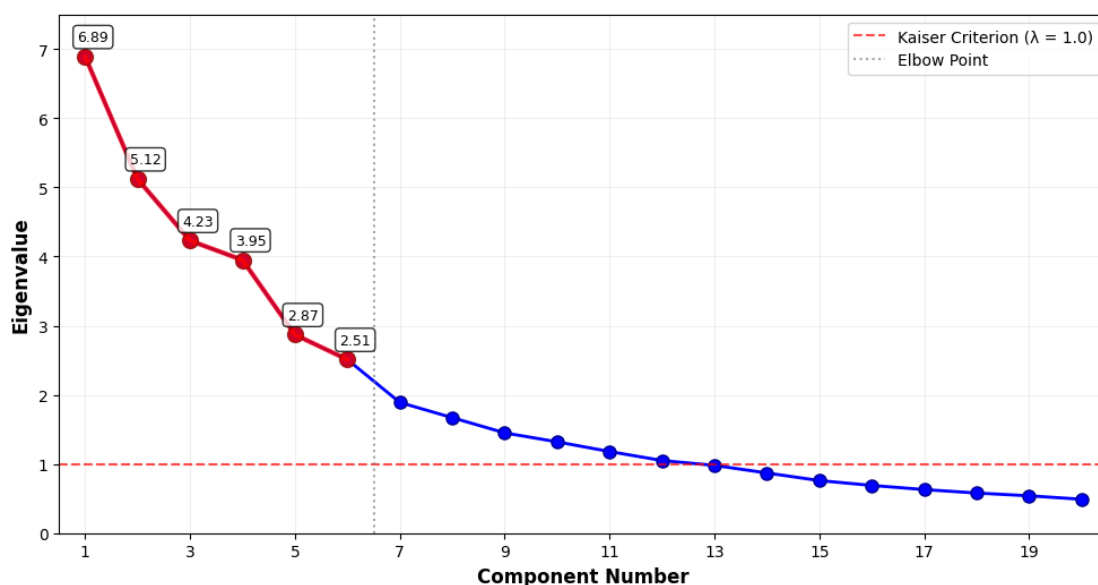


Table 1*Factor Structure Matrix for OCF Beliefs Questionnaire*

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 5	Factor 5	Factor 6	h ²
Factor 1: Affective Response to Correction ($\alpha = .85$)							
3. Appreciation of correction	.82						.74
6. Embarrassment from public correction	.81						.69
7. Reluctance after multiple corrections	.77						.63
10. Confidence from supportive correction	.73						.61
9. Confidence when mistakes overlooked	.68						.52
8. Anxiety from immediate correction	.64						.47
4. Fear of making more mistakes	.61						.43
Factor 2: OCF Type Preferences ($\alpha = .87$)							
17. Explicit correction		.79					.68
19. Metalinguistic feedback		.77					.65
16. Recast		.75					.63
20. Elicitation		.74					.62
21. Repetition		.71					.58
18. Clarification request		.70					.56
22. Gestural feedback		.69					.57
23. Non-verbal signals		.66					.52
24. Multiple correction techniques		.63					.49
Factor 3: Correction Timing Preferences ($\alpha = .81$)							
13. Delayed whole-class correction			.76				.64
11. Immediate vs. delayed correction			.74				.63
14. Post-activity correction timing			.72				.59
12. Post-presentation feedback timing			.71				.58
15. End-of-class consolidation			.69				.56
47. Correction frequency timing			.65				.51
50. Optimal correction moments			.62				.48
Factor 4: Context-Sensitive Correction ($\alpha = .79$)							
42. Activity-dependent correction types				.77			.67
43. Task-specific correction intensity				.75			.64
45. Task complexity considerations				.73			.62
44. Public vs. private correction contexts				.66			.54
46. Communication-focused correction				.64			.52
38. Error type considerations				.61			.47

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 5	Factor 5	Factor 6	h ²
Factor 5: Correction Source Preferences ($\alpha = .72$)							
25. Teacher vs. peer correction					.76		.63
28. Peer correction encouragement					.73		.62
26. Comfort with peer correction					.68		.54
27. Collaborative correction comfort					.65		.51
1. Teacher correction					.61		.49
Factor 6: OCF Uptake and Response ($\alpha = .76$)							
30. Immediate repetition						.78	.68
31. Incorporation into new utterances						.75	.66
34. Peer practice following correction						.71	.62
32. Self-monitoring after correction						.67	.52
33. Noticing similar errors						.65	.50
29. Self-correction attempts						.63	.48
Eigenvalues	6.89	5.12	4.23	3.95	2.87	2.51	
% of Variance	13.8	12.2	10.1	9.4	8.6	7.5	
Cumulative %	13.8	26.0	36.1	45.5	54.1	61.6	

Note. Factor loadings > .40 are bolded. h² = communalities.

uations naturally evoke emotional responses that abstract items might not capture.

Factor 2, OCF Type Preferences (eigenvalue = 5.12, $\alpha = .87$, 12.2% variance, $M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.81$), included nine items representing preferences for different correction techniques. Notably, this factor encompassed both reformulations (recasts, explicit correction) and prompts (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, repetition), as well as non-verbal and gestural feedback. This organization suggests learners categorize correction types based on experiential familiarity rather than the theoretical input-providing versus output-prompting distinction emphasized in SLA research. This finding contrasts with studies using abstract terminology (Zhu & Wang, 2019) and may reflect how scenario-based measurement allows learners to respond based on recognizable classroom experiences. This pattern of correction types may be consistent across diverse instructional settings, though preferences for specific strategies vary: explicit metalinguistic feedback is strongly preferred in grammar-focused Asian classrooms (Duklim, 2023), while European contexts show greater acceptance of implicit recasts during communicative activities (Ferreiro-Santamaria, 2024).

Correction Timing Preferences (Factor 3: eigenvalue = 4.23, $\alpha = .81$, 10.1% variance, $M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.79$) comprised seven items addressing optimal timing for correction delivery across classroom contexts. Learners demonstrated particular timing preferences that varied by activity type and error gravity, suggesting sophisticated awareness of when cor-

rection is most beneficial. Timing preferences appear particularly sensitive to cultural and pedagogical norms: immediate correction is valued in accuracy-focused Asian contexts (Zhu & Wang, 2019), whereas Latin American learners show more flexible timing preferences, favoring delayed feedback during fluency tasks to maintain communicative flow (Martin & Sippel, 2025).

Context-Sensitive Correction (Factor 4: eigenvalue = 3.95, $\alpha = .79$, 9.4% variance, $M = 3.89$, $SD = 0.76$) included six items reflecting awareness that correction effectiveness depends on situational factors—activity type, task complexity, public versus private settings, and communication goals. The highest mean score for this factor suggests learners strongly value adaptive correction approaches. This contextual awareness may be particularly important in cross-cultural applications: learners from teacher-centered traditions may expect consistent correction regardless of context (Duklim, 2023), while those in communicative European settings may anticipate differentiated correction based on task focus (Milla & García Mayo, 2023).

Correction Source Preferences (Factor 5: eigenvalue = 2.87, $\alpha = .72$, 8.6% variance, $M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.82$) reflected preferences regarding who provides correction. Items indicated general preference for teacher-delivered feedback alongside conditional openness to structured peer involvement. Source preferences vary markedly across cultural contexts: East Asian learners strongly prefer teacher correction and express discomfort with peer feedback due to concerns about authority and face-saving (Ye & Hu, 2025), whereas

European learners demonstrate greater acceptance of peer correction during collaborative activities (Ferreiro-Santamaria, 2024). Middle Eastern learners show intermediate patterns, valuing teacher expertise while accepting peer correction in carefully scaffolded contexts (Sepehrinia & Arabmofrad, 2025).

OCF Uptake and Response (Factor 6: eigenvalue = 2.51, α = .76, 7.5% variance, M = 3.41, SD = 0.89) captured preferred immediate and near-term behaviors following correction: repeating corrected forms, incorporating corrections into subsequent utterances, engaging in peer practice, self-monitoring, and noticing similar errors. These behaviors indicate a pragmatic orientation toward operationalizing feedback in real time, reflecting learners' recognition that correction requires active engagement for learning to occur.

The intercorrelations among the six factors ranged from moderate to strong (r = .26 to .54), supporting the use of oblique rotation and indicating that the belief dimensions are related but distinct constructs (see Table 2 below). The strongest correlation was observed between OCF Type Preferences and Context-Sensitive Correction (r = .54, p < .01), suggesting that learners who express clear preferences for specific correction techniques also demonstrate heightened awareness of contextual factors in correction delivery. Similarly, OCF Type Preferences showed substantial correlations with Uptake Response (r = .48, p < .01) and Correction Timing Preferences (r = .46, p < .01), indicating that learners with well-defined correction type preferences also hold clear beliefs about optimal timing and response behaviors.

Descriptive statistics revealed generally positive beliefs across all factors (M = 3.41 to 3.89), with Context-Sensitive Correction receiving the highest endorsement (M = 3.89, SD = 0.76). Moderate standard deviations (0.76 to 0.89) indicated meaningful individual variation within overall favorable attitudes. These positive mean scores may reflect both the B2 proficiency level—where learners possess sufficient metalinguistic awareness to appreciate correction—and the scenario-based format, which may elicit more favorable responses than abstract items by grounding beliefs in recognizable classroom experiences.

Table 2.

Factor Intercorrelations and Descriptive Statistics

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Affective Response	-	.35**	.31**	.39**	.26**	.33**	3.45	0.87	.16	-.44
2. OCF Type Preferences		-	.46**	.54**	.41**	.48**	3.76	0.81	-.32	.15
3. Timing Preferences			-	.40**	.33**	.37**	3.68	0.79	-.21	-.12
4. Context-Sensitive				-	.45**	.43**	3.89	0.76	-.19	-.11
5. Source Preferences					-	.38**	3.61	0.82	-.15	-.25
6. Uptake Response						-	3.41	0.89	-.25	.08

Note. ** p < .01. N = 334.

The six-factor model identified through EFA was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis using the second subsample (n = 334) in Mplus 8.6. The CFA model was specified with 40 items loading on six correlated latent factors, reflecting the structure that emerged from the exploratory analysis. Maximum likelihood estimation was employed, which is robust to moderate departures from normality and appropriate for the continuous nature of Likert-scale data.

The initial measurement model demonstrated acceptable but suboptimal fit to the data: χ^2 (725) = 1,189.67, p < .001; RMSEA = .044 (90% CI [.040, .048]); CFI = .901; TLI = .891; SRMR = .071. While the RMSEA value indicated acceptable fit according to established criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the CFI and TLI values fell below the preferred threshold of .95, and the SRMR was slightly elevated above the desired .05 criterion.

Examination of modification indices revealed theoretically justifiable improvements to the model. Four error covariances were added between conceptually related items within the same factors: items 6 and 7 (both measuring embarrassment-related affective responses), items 17 and 19 (both addressing explicit correction preferences), items 42 and 43 (both focusing on context-sensitivity considerations), and items 32 and 33 (both involving self-monitoring behaviors following correction). These modifications were implemented as they represented similar content domains within factors rather than problematic cross-factor relationships.

The revised measurement model demonstrated good fit to the data: χ^2 (721) = 1,067.43, p < .001; RMSEA = .039 (90% CI [.035, .043]); CFI = .928; TLI = .920; SRMR = .063. The chi-square difference test confirmed that the revised model provided significantly better fit than the initial model: $\Delta\chi^2$ (4) = 122.24, p < .001. All fit indices met or approached established criteria for good model fit, with the RMSEA indicating excellent fit, and the CFI and TLI approaching the .95 threshold.

The latent factor correlations ranged from moderate to strong (φ = .31 to .58), confirming the appropriateness of the oblique rotation employed in the EFA and supporting the conceptualization of OCF beliefs as related but distinct di-

mensions. The strongest correlation was observed between OCF Type Preferences and Context-Sensitive Correction ($\varphi = .58, p < .001$), indicating substantial overlap between learners' correction type preferences and their awareness of contextual factors. The weakest correlation was found between Affective Response to Correction and Correction Source Preferences ($\varphi = .31, p < .001$), suggesting these represent relatively independent aspects of learner beliefs about OCF.

Composite reliability coefficients were calculated for each factor in the CFA model, ranging from .73 to .88 and confirming adequate to excellent internal consistency across all belief dimensions. Affective Response to Correction demonstrated excellent reliability ($\rho_c = .86$), as did OCF Type Preferences ($\rho_c = .88$). Correction Timing Preferences ($\rho_c = .82$) and Context-Sensitive Correction ($\rho_c = .80$) showed good reliability, while Correction Source Preferences ($\rho_c = .73$) and OCF Uptake and Response ($\rho_c = .79$) demonstrated acceptable reliability coefficients.

Average variance extracted (AVE) values were computed to assess convergent validity, with results ranging from .47 to .61. Four of the six factors exceeded the recommended .50 threshold: Affective Response to Correction (AVE = .61), OCF Type Preferences (AVE = .56), Correction Timing Preferences (AVE = .53), and Context-Sensitive Correction (AVE = .52). The remaining two factors, Correction Source Preferences (AVE = .47) and OCF Uptake and Response (AVE = .49), approached but did not reach the .50 criterion, though their values remained within acceptable ranges for exploratory research contexts.

The two-phase validation confirmed the six-factor structure. Robust psychometric properties and substantive findings—particularly the centrality of affect—suggest that scenario-based measurement captures authentic learner perspectives differing from theory-driven instruments. The identified dimensions represent decision points recognizable across EFL/ESL settings globally, though the relative salience of each dimension (particularly affective response and source preferences) may vary with cultural norms regarding teacher authority, face-saving, and collaborative learning. Future research employing multi-group invariance testing across diverse cultural contexts will be essential for establishing measurement equivalence and enabling meaningful cross-cultural comparisons of OCF beliefs.

DISCUSSION

The present study set out to develop and validate a student-centered, scenario-based instrument for measuring learner beliefs about OCF. Rather than asking learners to evaluate abstract, researcher-labelled categories (e.g., “recasts,” “implicit feedback”), the scale operationalized OCF through familiar classroom situations and used an EFA and CFA design to identify and confirm the underlying dimen-

sions of learners' belief systems. The resulting six-factor solution offers both a psychometrically reasonable measurement model and a theoretically informative account of how learners in an intensive university EFL context organize their beliefs about OCF. The following section interprets the implications of each major finding for theory and research, explicitly compares the results with recent international studies, and considers alternative explanations and theoretically meaningful ‘non-findings’ implied by the data.

Scenario-Based Approach to the Dimensions of OCF Beliefs

A central contribution of the study is methodological but also theoretical: when learners respond to concrete scenarios, the factor structure that emerges does not simply replicate canonical OCF taxonomies derived from SLA theory. Instead, the scale yielded dimensions that map onto learners' decision in classroom life - how correction feels (affect), how it is delivered (type), when it occurs (timing), under what circumstances (context sensitivity), by whom (source), and what the learner does next (uptake/response). This is consistent with the argument advanced in the OCF cognition literature that beliefs are experience-dependent, affect-laden, and action-guiding constructs rather than purely abstract propositions (Kim & Mostafa, 2021). Recent empirical work also suggests that learners and teachers often conceptualize feedback using experience-near language (e.g., face, disruption, fairness, usefulness) rather than metalanguage (Weekly et al., 2022; Sarandi, 2024; Le et al., 2025). The present findings extend this trend by showing that an experience-near measurement format can yield a coherent, confirmable latent structure.

At the same time, it is possible that the scenario-based format itself encourages a more context-specific, classroom-grounded organization of beliefs. This is not a weakness, but it clarifies the construct being measured: the instrument captures beliefs as they are activated by recognizable classroom events. This provides a stronger basis for ecological validity - responses are tied to interpretable situations rather than to potentially misunderstood technical labels.

Implications of the Major Findings for Theory and Research

When we consider the emerged factor structure, the most theoretically salient result is that Affective Response to Correction was the strongest factor (largest eigenvalue; strong reliability), indicating that emotional reactions (e.g., embarrassment, anxiety, confidence changes, reluctance) are central to how learners construe OCF. This supports contemporary perspectives that position affect and interpersonal dynamics as constitutive elements of feedback engagement rather than mere moderators (Kim & Mostafa, 2021). It also echoes recent work highlighting that beliefs about correction cannot be separated cleanly from learners' felt experi-

ences of support, threat, or face (Weekly et al., 2022). In EMI/EAP settings, for example, Weekly et al. (2022) show that learners' orientations toward correction are entangled with legitimacy of English varieties and with how feedback signals identity and academic participation, motivating calls to shift from narrow "form correction" toward more meaning-oriented and context-sensitive feedback.

In comparison to recent learner-belief studies in other contexts, the prominence of affect aligns with findings that correction preferences are often conditional on emotional and relational safety. Sarandi (2024), in a Turkish preparatory context, similarly reports that learners value CF but frequently articulate preferences in terms of comfort, politeness, and the conditions under which feedback is acceptable (e.g., how peer correction is delivered). The present results advance this line by showing that affective reactions are not merely background considerations but load as a coherent latent dimension alongside type, timing, and source.

The OCF Type Preferences factor combined prompts (e.g., elicitation, clarification request) and reformulations (e.g., recasts, explicit correction), along with gestural/nonverbal cues. Theoretically, this suggests that learners may not conceptualize OCF types through the input-providing vs. output-prompting distinction often privileged in SLA taxonomies; instead, they may group feedback options as a family of recognizable teacher moves encountered in classroom interaction. This is a meaningful divergence from much instrument design in OCF-belief research that assumes learners can evaluate named OCF types as stable categories.

Recent findings show persistent mismatches between teachers' preferred OCF types and what they actually use, as well as variation in learners' stated preferences for explicitness (Bao & Wang, 2023; Le et al., 2025). Bao and Wang (2023) report that students tend to favor explicit correction and metalinguistic cues, whereas teachers favor recasts—suggesting that "types" are socially and pedagogically contested. The present study does not determine which types are "best," but it suggests that for measurement purposes, learners may not "sort" OCF in the same analytic way researchers do. This aligns with Kim & Mostafa's (2021) broader synthesis: beliefs are not simply reflections of theoretical categories; they are shaped by classroom histories and perceived usefulness.

Additionally, the breadth of the Type factor might be partially attributable to the scenario-based format reducing the conceptual distance between techniques (all are presented as plausible teacher responses). Learners might respond to "type" items as a general endorsement of having something done when an error occurs, rather than differentiating among micro-techniques. This could be a new line of future research examining whether a more fine-grained factor structure emerges in contexts where learners receive explicit training in OCF metalanguage or where classrooms routinely discuss feedback types.

Correction Timing Preferences emerged as a distinct factor, indicating that learners differentiate when correction should occur (immediate, after a presentation, end-of-class consolidation, whole-class delayed feedback, etc.). This finding fits with the growing emphasis on feedback timing as contingent on activity goals (fluency vs. accuracy) and classroom interactional priorities. Recent studies similarly document that both students and teachers often endorse delayed feedback, particularly to protect communicative flow, while still valuing immediate correction under certain conditions (Sarandi, 2024; Le et al., 2025). Le et al. (2025), for instance, report shared teacher–student endorsement of OCF and a preference for delayed feedback, alongside sensitivity to error gravity. The present factor structure provides a measurement basis for investigating such conditional timing beliefs more systematically.

Although some earlier belief literature reports strong preferences for immediate correction, the current structure emphasizes timing as a flexible belief domain rather than a single-direction preference. One interpretation is that B2-level preparatory learners have accumulated enough classroom experience to hold differentiated timing beliefs: they may tolerate delayed feedback in high-stakes speaking turns (presentations, debates) while endorsing immediate correction in drill-like moments. This interpretation is consistent with the high endorsement of Context-Sensitive Correction discussed below.

The factor with the highest mean was Context-Sensitive Correction, capturing the belief that effective OCF varies by activity type, task complexity, public/private setting, and communicative purpose. This result is theoretically important because it moves beyond the simplistic question of whether learners "like correction" toward an interactional view: learners appear to endorse adaptive feedback that aligns with task goals and communicative demands. This directly converges with calls in recent international scholarship to reframe feedback away from one-size-fits-all correction and toward contextually appropriate intervention (Weekly et al., 2022). It also aligns with Sarandi's (2024) mixed-method findings that learners' OCF beliefs are not uniform: they often prefer selective/focused correction and weigh correction against discourse flow and comfort. Moreover, the strong association between Type Preferences and Context-Sensitive Correction suggests that learners who care about how they are corrected also attend to when and under what conditions different approaches are appropriate.

One might argue that context-sensitivity items are easier to endorse because they are normatively appealing ("it depends on the activity"), inflating means. Even if this is partly true, it still indicates that learners recognize conditionality as a desirable principle, which is practically and theoretically meaningful: it implies that misalignment problems may arise less from learners wanting maximal correction and more

from mismatches in what counts as appropriate correction for a given task.

Correction Source Preferences emerged as a separate factor with acceptable reliability, capturing learners' orientations toward teacher versus peer-provided correction and the conditions under which peer correction feels acceptable. This is consistent with recent work showing that source preferences are shaped by norms of expertise, hierarchy, and interpersonal risk. In Bao and Wang (2023), students and teachers diverged systematically in preferred OCF approaches; such divergence often co-occurs with expectations about who is entitled to correct whom. Sarandi (2024) similarly found that peer correction can be acceptable, but typically under clear conditions (e.g., politeness, peer competence), which matches the conditional framing embedded in the present items (e.g., "quietly tells me," "politely correct each other").

The relatively lower AVE for this factor (approaching but not exceeding .50) may suggest heterogeneous beliefs about peer correction in this population: some learners may welcome peer involvement as supportive collaboration, while others may see it as face-threatening or as lacking authority. This heterogeneity is theoretically expected in university preparatory contexts that blend exam-oriented accuracy pressures with communicative activities.

A noteworthy aspect of the model is OCF Uptake and Response as a distinct factor, capturing learners' preferred post-feedback behaviors (immediate repetition, incorporation into subsequent turns, self-monitoring, asking for clarification, peer practice). This aligns with the contemporary "engagement" turn in OCF research: what matters is not only what feedback is provided, but how learners orient to it and operationalize it (Kim & Mostafa, 2021). Although many belief questionnaires focus primarily on delivery preferences, the present findings indicate that learners also have coherent beliefs about their own role in making feedback productive. This opens a productive line for future research, linking belief profiles to behavioral indicators of uptake and longer-term development, and examining whether fostering particular uptake beliefs (e.g., self-monitoring, repair attempts) predicts more sustained engagement with feedback.

Theoretical Implications of Non-Emergent Dimensions and Non-loading Items

An additional set of findings that warrants discussion concerns theoretically plausible dimensions and item sets that did not emerge as distinct factors in the final measurement model. The questionnaire was initially designed to represent a broad conceptual map of OCF beliefs (e.g., value of correction, correction focus, and correction comprehensiveness), yet the EFA supported a more parsimonious six-factor structure and required the removal of items that did not load sufficiently or showed problematic cross-loadings. In scale development, such "non-emergence" should not be treated

as purely methodological attrition; it also provides information about how learners in this context organize OCF beliefs when responding to concrete classroom episodes.

First, the collapse from the initial conceptual structure to six factors suggests that some theoretically motivated distinctions may be less psychologically separable for learners in experience-near terms. For example, items intended to capture correction focus and correction comprehensiveness did not appear as independent dimensions, and several of these items were among those excluded (e.g., items from the Focus/Comprehensiveness sets). One interpretation is that learners do not treat "what should be corrected" (grammar vs. pronunciation vs. vocabulary/pragmatics) and "how much should be corrected" (most errors vs. major errors) as stable preferences independent of classroom conditions. Instead, these concerns may be folded into broader conditional judgments captured by the retained dimensions - particularly Context-Sensitive Correction and Timing Preferences. This reading aligns with the broader literature emphasizing that learner perspectives on OCF are often contingent on task goals (fluency vs. accuracy), communicative stakes, and face considerations rather than reflecting fixed, decontextualized correction principles (Weekly et al., 2022; Le et al., 2025).

Second, the non-loading of items associated with the value of correction construct (e.g., items removed from that pool) may reflect restricted variance in this population rather than theoretical irrelevance. In intensive preparatory programs, correction is typically institutionalized as part of legitimate language learning, which can yield broadly positive orientations toward being corrected and thus limit the extent to which value-related items discriminate among learners. In such a context, items assessing the basic desirability of correction may function as near-universal endorsements, whereas individual differences are more likely to appear in how correction should be enacted (type), when it should occur (timing), under what conditions (context sensitivity), and how learners respond (uptake/response). Similar patterns of generally positive stances coupled with differentiated preferences about delivery have been reported across multiple contexts (e.g., Sarandi, 2024; Le et al., 2025; Wiboolyasarin et al., 2023).

Third, the removal of several theoretically plausible items may also be attributable to the scenario-based design, which intentionally reduces reliance on abstract metalanguage. While this format enhances ecological validity, it can also make certain distinctions less cleanly separable because a single scenario may simultaneously cue multiple considerations (e.g., error type, publicness, timing, and interpersonal tone). As a result, items intended to signal a narrow construct such as "focus" or "comprehensiveness" may be interpreted holistically, as judgments about appropriateness in a particular event, thereby weakening their unique association with a single latent dimension.

These “non-findings” collectively imply an important condition for theorizing OCF beliefs in learner populations: distinctions that are theoretically central in SLA classifications (e.g., separating error targets or comprehensiveness as stable belief domains) may not necessarily constitute separable belief dimensions when learners respond to concrete instructional episodes. Rather than indicating a weakness of the instrument, the final six-factor solution may better reflect the organizing principles that are most usable for learners in this context (affect, type, timing, context, source, and uptake) each corresponding to a decision point that is immediately consequential in classroom interaction.

Limitations

Several limitations constrain interpretation. The sample is drawn from a single Turkish university preparatory context and a single proficiency band (B2), which limits generalizability. Future research should therefore (a) test measurement invariance across proficiency levels and institutional settings, and (b) validate the instrument in additional national contexts to support comparative claims. In addition, although the scenario-based approach strengthens interpretability, scenarios may still be understood differently across classroom cultures; cognitive interviewing could help verify item interpretation across contexts.

Future Research

Future studies should examine criterion-related validity by linking belief dimensions to behavioral indicators of uptake and participation and by exploring how learner beliefs interact with teacher cognition and feedback practices over time (cf. the teacher-belief change perspective reported by Ha, 2023).

CONCLUSION

This study developed and validated a student centered, scenario based instrument for measuring learner beliefs about

oral corrective feedback in a Turkish university preparatory context. Using a split sample design, the analyses supported a six factor structure. The factors include Affective Response to Correction, OCF Type Preferences, Correction Timing Preferences, Context Sensitive Correction, Correction Source Preferences, and OCF Uptake and Response. Overall, the results suggest that learners organize their beliefs around practical decision points grounded in classroom experience rather than around abstract theoretical labels. The findings also indicate that affect and contextual calibration play a central role in how corrective feedback is evaluated, alongside preferences related to delivery, timing, source, and the learner’s own response after feedback.

From a methodological perspective, the scale provides a usable measurement model for identifying belief profiles, examining belief practice alignment, and supporting comparative research across instructional settings. From a pedagogical perspective, the results point to the value of corrective feedback practices that make task goals explicit, adapt to communicative conditions, and attend to emotional safety while encouraging active learner uptake. Future research should test measurement invariance across proficiency levels and across institutional and cultural contexts, verify item interpretation through cognitive interviewing, and strengthen criterion validity by linking the belief dimensions to observed interactional behavior and to learning outcomes.

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DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST

None declared.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire Items

Factor 1: Value of Error Correction

1. When I mispronounce “vegetable” as “vege-teybl,” I want my teacher to correct me.
2. If I consistently say “he don’t” instead of “he doesn’t,” having my teacher point this out helps me improve my English.
3. When I use the wrong word (like saying “borrow” when I mean “lend”), I learn better when my teacher corrects me.
4. If I make a mistake with word order (saying “I like very much pizza” instead of “I like pizza very much”), I want my teacher to help me fix it.
5. When I use an impolite expression without realizing it (like saying “Give me that!” instead of “Could I have that?”), I appreciate my teacher correcting me.

Factor 2: Emotional Response to Correction

6. When my teacher corrects my pronunciation of “comfortable” in front of everyone, I feel embarrassed.
7. After being corrected several times during a discussion activity, I become reluctant to speak up again.
8. Even though I blush when my teacher corrects me during a presentation, I still find the correction valuable.
9. When my teacher lets small mistakes slide during a debate, I feel more confident participating.
10. When my teacher helps me fix my sentence structure during pair work, I feel more confident about using those structures in the future.

Factor 3: Correction Timing

11. When I say “Yesterday I go to the store,” I prefer if my teacher immediately says “went” rather than waiting until I finish my story.
12. During my 2-minute presentation, I prefer if my teacher writes down my errors and discusses them with me after I’ve finished speaking.
13. When several students make the same mistake (like using “very” with “exhausted”), I prefer if the teacher addresses it with the whole class later without naming individuals.
14. If I make several errors during a role-play activity, I prefer if my teacher waits until the activity is over before telling me what I said wrong.
15. When I make grammar mistakes during morning discussion, I prefer if the teacher saves these examples for our grammar focus at the end of class.

Factor 4: OCF Type Preferences

16. When I say “Yesterday I go to the store,” I prefer when my teacher naturally responds “Oh, you went to the store” while continuing the conversation.
17. When I say “She don’t like pizza,” I prefer when my teacher clearly states “No, you should say ‘She doesn’t like pizza’ - remember the ‘s’ with third person.”
18. When I say “I very confusing about this,” I find it helpful when my teacher asks “Sorry, what do you mean? Can you say that again?”
19. When I say “I have 20 years old,” I appreciate when my teacher says “Think about the verb we use with age in English.”
20. When I say “Last weekend I goed to the movies,” I like when my teacher says “Last weekend I... what’s the past tense of ‘go’?” and waits for me to self-correct.
21. When I mispronounce “comfortable” as “comfor-table,” I find it useful when my teacher simply repeats “Comfor-table?” with rising intonation.
22. When my teacher uses hand signals (like holding up fingers to indicate missing words), I find it easy to understand what needs fixing in my sentence.
23. If my teacher raises an eyebrow or says “Hmm?” when I make an error, I find it helpful to understand what the problem was.
24. When I make an error and don’t catch it after one prompt, I appreciate when my teacher tries different types of hints before giving me the answer.

Factor 5: Correction Provider

25. When I pronounce “focus” incorrectly during group work, I prefer correction from my teacher rather than from my classmates.
26. During pair activities, I feel comfortable when my partner quietly tells me “I think it should be ‘doesn’t have’ not ‘don’t have’.”
27. When I say “I very happy” in class discussion, I’m comfortable with my teacher asking “Can someone help fix this sentence?”
28. In small group presentations, I find it helpful when students are encouraged to politely correct each other’s English.
29. When writing sentences on the board, I prefer to check and correct my own mistakes before others point them out.

Factor 6: OCF Uptake and Response

30. When my teacher corrects my pronunciation of “comfortable,” I prefer to immediately repeat the word correctly to show I understood.
31. During a discussion about my hobbies, after my teacher corrects “I like to cooking” to “I like to cook,” I want to use the correct form in my next sentence about cooking.
32. When I’m describing my weekend plans and say “I will going shopping,” if my teacher prompts me and I successfully change it to “I will go shopping,” I appreciate when they say “Good!” or nod approvingly.
33. If my teacher corrects my grammar during a role-play activity but I’m not sure what was wrong, I prefer to quietly ask “What should I say instead?” rather than just continuing with the activity.
34. After my teacher helps me fix “Yesterday I buy new shoes” to “Yesterday I bought new shoes” during pair work, I like to practice using past tense with my partner before we continue our conversation.

Factor 7: Correction Focus

35. When I say something unclear like “The thing for the water not good,” I want my teacher to help me express this clearly.
36. If I say “He go to school everyday” and everyone understands me, I still want my teacher to point out I should say “goes.”
37. During a conversation about my weekend, I want my teacher to correct grammar mistakes like forgetting past tense endings.
38. When I pronounce “recipe” as “re-sipe,” I want my teacher to show me the correct pronunciation.
39. If I use an overly casual expression in a formal presentation (saying “kids” instead of “children”), I want my teacher to suggest more appropriate vocabulary.
40. When I use the wrong word during a discussion (like saying ‘I made a travel to Paris’ instead of ‘I took a trip to Paris’), I want my teacher to help me find the correct word choice.
41. If I make grammar mistakes with articles (saying ‘I bought car’ instead of ‘I bought a car’), I want my teacher to point this out even during fluency activities.

Factor 8: Correction Context

42. I want different types of correction when practicing dialogues versus when having a free discussion about my opinions.
43. During grammar drills, I want every mistake corrected, but during a debate, I prefer if the teacher only fixes errors that cause misunderstanding.
44. If I consistently struggle with pronouncing “th” sounds, I prefer if my teacher discusses this with me after class rather than in front of everyone.
45. When practicing new vocabulary in pairs, I want more correction than when I’m giving a prepared presentation.
46. During challenging speaking tasks, I prefer if my teacher focuses on major errors rather than correcting everything.

Factor 9: Correction Comprehensiveness

47. During a short presentation, I want my teacher to correct most of my errors, not just the serious ones.
48. When I’m telling a story about my weekend, I prefer if my teacher only corrects major errors that change the meaning.
49. If we’ve just studied conditional sentences and I say “If I will go, I will tell you,” I especially want this error corrected.
50. If I repeatedly say “persons” instead of “people,” I want my teacher to prioritize fixing this pattern rather than one-time slips.