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Examining the link between feedback-seeking behaviors and learners' preferences for explicit and implicit oral corrective feedback

Mostafa Papi[1] | **Hyejin An**[1] | **Dominik Wolff**[2]

[1]School of Teacher Education, Anne Spencer Daves College of Education, Health and Human Sciences, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, USA

[2]Department of Languages and Cultures, West Chester University of Pennsylvania, West Chester, Pennsylvania, USA

Correspondence
Dr. Mostafa Papi.
Email: mpapi@fsu.edu

Abstract

This study examined how learners' feedback-seeking behaviors (FSB) are related to their preferences for different types of corrective feedback (CF) in second language learning. A questionnaire measuring learners' FSB and CF preferences was administered to 431 Spanish learners at a major US university. Factor analytic and reliability results supported the psychometric properties of the scales. Linear regression analyses indicated that Feedback Monitoring positively predicted Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue, and Prompt with Repetition, negatively predicted preferences for Conversational Recast and the Absence of CF, and did not predict preference for Didactic Recast. Feedback Inquiry positively predicted preferences for Prompt with Repetition, Conversational Recast and the Absence of CF. None of the predictors significantly predicted preference for Didactic Recast and class level did not predict CF preferences. The results indicate two distinct profiles related to CF: students who engage in Feedback Monitoring prefer more explicit CF types and those who engage in Feedback Inquiry either prefer the more implicit types of CF or even the absence of CF,

highlighting the importance of considering learners' FSB in relation to their preferences for oral corrective feedback.

KEYWORDS
corrective feedback preferences, explicit corrective feedback, feedback-seeking behavior, implicit corrective feedback, proactive language learning

Corrective feedback (CF) has been a focus of researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) over the last four decades. Researchers generally agree that some form of error correction is beneficial for language learning (Li, 2021; Lyster et al., 2013; Mao & Lee, 2020). Many empirical studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of CF on the acquisition of vocabulary (Ellis & He, 1999), grammar (Sato & Loewen, 2018), phonology (Saito & Lyster, 2012), and pragmatics (Takimoto, 2006). Meta-analyses support the findings of these studies, reaffirming the effectiveness of CF in the second language (L2) classroom (Li, 2010; Russell & Spada, 2006). However, controversies over the relative effectiveness of different types of CF remain to this date. In the context of oral CF, research generally supports the idea that explicit types of CF, such as explicit correction with metalinguistic clues or prompts, are more effective than the more implicit types of CF, such as recasts (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007; Tan et al., 2024). However, it is commonly observed that language teachers tend to favor using more implicit over more explicit types of CF (Lyster et al., 2013). In addition, learners tend to show a wide range of differences not only in their interest in receiving CF but also in their preference for various types of CF (e.g., Brown, 2009; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Lee, 2013; Tan et al., 2024).

Papi et al. (2019) attributed inconsistencies to researchers' lack of consideration for the learner as the agent of learning in the feedback process. They argued that much of the research surrounding CF presents language learners as passive recipients of feedback without considering learners' proactive engagement with the CF provided. To address this shortcoming, they introduced the notion of feedback-seeking behavior (FSB) to highlight the learners' strategic efforts in gathering and using feedback information for the purpose of enhancing their L2 abilities. FSB involves two main strategies: Feedback Inquiry, which involves directly asking others for feedback on one's L2 performance (e.g., *I ask my teachers to tell me what mistakes I make when I speak Spanish.*), and Feedback Monitoring, which concerns paying attention and trying to learn from the CF provided (e.g., *I pay attention when my teachers correct my mistakes while speaking Spanish.*). Papi and colleagues (2019) argued that viewing CF from the learner's perspective can shed light on the inconsistencies in the effectiveness of CF and learner preferences for CF. Studies have found that FSB is predicted by several motivational, affective, and contextual factors (e.g., Kessler, 2023; Mahbodi et al., 2026; Papi et al., 2019, 2020, 2026; Waller & Papi, 2017; Xu & Wang, 2023, 2024; Zhang, 2025; Zhang & Jiang, 2025) and predicts improvements in L2 performance over and beyond the quantity and quality of CF (Papi et al., 2024).

However, it is not clear if L2 learners' FSB is related to any specific type of CF. If FSB is a key factor in determining if learners seek and benefit from CF, it can also help explain learners' preferences for different types of CF. To explore this relationship, the present study examines

how different FSB strategies, that is, Feedback Monitoring and Inquiry, predict learner preferences for different types of CF, including Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with a Metalinguistic Clue, Prompt with Repetition, Didactic Recast, and Conversational Recast, as well as their preference for the Absence of CF. Identifying the relationship between FSB and learners' preferences for specific types of CF can shed light on the reasons underlying the differential effects of CF types.

1 | EFFECTIVENESS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Among the different types of oral CF, recasts have garnered considerable attention. Recasts refer to "a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, not language as object" (Long, 2007, p. 77). Teachers' preferences for recasts are well documented in the literature (e.g., Basturkmen, 2004; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava et al., 2020; Roothooft, 2014; Sheen, 2004). Brown's (2016) meta-analysis reported that recasts are consistently the most commonly used CF type in correcting learners' errors in instructional settings. The facilitative role of recasts is attributed to their immediacy and the juxtaposition of target-like and non-target-like forms. This reformulation occurs without disrupting the flow of communication (Trofimovich et al., 2007) and maintains the focus on meaning (Kim, 2019).

Some empirical evidence supports the relative efficacy of recasts in promoting L2 learning across experimental studies and meta-analyses (e.g., Goo & Mackey, 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Nassaji, 2009; Rassaei, 2022; Saito & Lyster, 2012). For instance, Rassaei's (2022) meta-analysis of 24 studies reported a medium effect size ($g = 0.70$) for the effectiveness of recasts. Similarly, Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis found a larger effect size ($d = 0.96$) for recasts in L2 development. These findings highlight the effectiveness of recasts across grammatical and lexical features and their efficacy over both short- and long-term periods. Despite these positive findings, the efficacy of recasts remains contested. Some researchers have found recasts are less effective than other CF types, such as explicit correction with metalinguistic clues (Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007) or prompts (Ammar & Spada, 2006). Similarly, Tan et al. (2024) synthesized findings from 31 studies on oral CF for lexical errors, concluding that prompts were more effective than recasts despite the latter being preferred by interlocutors.

A common explanation for the less desirable effectiveness of recasts is that they are implicit and ambiguous (Lyster, 1998), making it difficult for L2 learners to notice the gap between their errors and the target-like forms during conversation, which may prevent uptake (Sheen, 2004). This challenge is even more pronounced when recasts address morphosyntactic errors (Mackey et al., 2000). Meta-analyses have reported that the effects of recasts are more pronounced in lab-based research than in classroom settings, possibly due to the increased salience of recasts in controlled environments. Thus, the efficacy of CF can be influenced by various moderating factors. These include the study context (e.g., ESL vs. EFL; Sheen, 2004), delivery mode (face-to-face vs. computer-mediated communication; Parlak & Ziegler, 2017), and the linguistic target of CF (Li & Iwashita, 2021). Other studies have explored the role of individual difference variables such as learner anxiety and proficiency (Li, 2018; Rassaei, 2015; Sheen, 2008). For instance, Li (2018) found that while recasts were effective across proficiency, anxiety, and

correction orientation, prompts were particularly beneficial for beginner-level learners, those with low anxiety, and learners who focused more on correction. As CF researchers have suggested, there is a need for more studies that incorporate a range of learner variables to develop a comprehensive understanding of how these variables interact with CF-driven L2 learning (Goo & Mackey, 2013). One notable gap in the literature is the relationship between learners' FSB and CF preferences. According to Papi and Hiver (2025), where numerous individual-difference variables can influence learner behavior, learners' proactive behaviors, including their FSBs, are the more immediate antecedents of learning outcomes and can better explain the differential effectiveness of different CF types across L2 learners (Papi et al., 2024). To address this gap, the present study explores the relationship between learners' FSB and five distinct types of oral CF, which vary in terms of implicitness and whether they are input-providing or output-prompting (i.e., Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with Metalinguistic Clues, Prompt with Repetition, Didactic Recast, and Conversational Recast). Establishing connections between learners' FSB and their preferences for different CF types can shed light on why some CF types are more effective than others.

2 | LEARNER PREFERENCES FOR CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Several other studies have explored the factors underlying student preferences for different types of CF. For instance, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) found that while there were some mismatches in CF preferences between the students and teachers, the higher-proficiency learners preferred more implicit CF types, which elicited self-correction, whereas the lower-proficiency learners preferred more explicit teacher-led corrections. In a comparative study across ESL (US) and EFL (China) contexts, Wang and Li (2021) found that uptake and error correction rates in the EFL context were notably higher following explicit correction. Other studies have investigated the variety of CF preferences in relation to student gender, with mixed results (Geckin, 2020; Khorshidi & Rassaei, 2013). Papi et al. (2021) explored the role of learner mindsets and achievement goals on their CF preferences among 537 Spanish learners. The study found that learners with a growth mindset were interested in all types of CF, in contrast to the fixed mindset learners, who preferred only recasts or no CF at all. Furthermore, learners with learning approach goals (concerned with developing their L2 competence) preferred explicit forms of CF, whereas learners with performance avoidance goals (concerned with maintaining their L2 performance) preferred implicit forms of CF or no CF at all. These results reflect the idea that learners have "calculated and strategic preferences for different types of CF" (Papi et al., 2021, p. 873). This suggests that learners' FSB might account for their preferences for different types of CF, a topic which has not been examined in previous studies. To bridge this gap, the present study will explore how learners' FSB is associated with their preferences for different types of CF.

3 | FEEDBACK-SEEKING BEHAVIOR IN SLA

In response to the common view of the learner as a passive recipient of CF, Papi et al. (2019) introduced the notion of FSB to refer to learners' proactive engagement in seeking and using CF information for the purpose of L2 learning. FSB is one of the four principal

behaviors present in the proactive language learning theory, which outlines the strategic and agentic behaviors utilized by learners in a language learning context (Papi & Hiver, 2025). From this theoretical perspective, learners are proactive agents who seek, attend to, and learn from feedback information to reach their desired level of language proficiency. In addition, CF is "considered a learning resource that students take advantage of depending on their personal goals, needs, and preferences within a given instructional context" (Papi et al., 2026, p. 16).

Papi et al. (2019) classified FSB into two categories. Feedback Monitoring refers to learners paying attention and trying to learn from the CF present in the environment, and Feedback Inquiry involves directly asking for feedback on one's L2 performance. The researchers explored the relationship among achievement goals, mindsets, and FSB in a sample of 287 college students enrolled in foreign language classes in the USA. The study provided factor analytic results supporting the construct validity of the FSB variables. In addition, they found that a growth mindset predicted greater Feedback Monitoring and Inquiry, whereas a fixed mindset was only associated with the latter. In a similar study in the context of L2 writing, Papi et al. (2020) indicated that students with a growth mindset valued feedback more highly and engaged in Feedback Monitoring and Inquiry to develop their writing skills. By contrast, fixed-mindset learners felt that the cost of getting corrected outweighed the value of feedback and thus engaged in little FSB (see also Xu & Wang, 2023; Yao & Zhu, 2022). In addition, Mahbodi et al. (2026) found that students' trust in their teachers' competence was positively associated with feedback monitoring but negatively with feedback inquiry, further indicating the differential functions of Feedback Monitoring and Inquiry. In the context of L2 writing, Papi et al. (2024) found that only feedback monitoring predicted students' performance on a revised essay, supporting its predictive validity.

Overall, the studies reviewed above highlight the relevance and importance of studying FSB as a learner-centered approach to CF, especially learner differences in how they seek and use CF to improve their L2 abilities. Despite the contributions of these studies, no study thus far has explored how learners' FSB relates to their preferences for different types of CF. Exploring such links can shed light on the variable effectiveness of different types of CF by shifting attention to learners and help us understand which type of CF can be more beneficial for different types of learners. To bridge this gap, this study will explore whether and to what extent learners' preference for different types of CF is a function of their FSB in L2 learning.

4 | RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the objectives outlined above, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ 1. *What is the relationship between learners' Feedback Monitoring and their CF preferences* (*Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information*, *Prompt with Metalinguistic Clues*, *Prompt with Repetition*, *Didactic Recast*, *Conversational Recast*, *and Absence of CF*) *in the context of L2 speaking?*

RQ 2. *What is the relationship between learners' Feedback Inquiry and their CF preferences* (*Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information*, *Prompt with Metalinguistic Clues*, *Prompt with Repetition*, *Didactic Recast*, *Conversational Recast*, *and Absence of CF*) *in the context of L2 speaking?*

5 | METHODS

5.1 | Participants

Four-hundred-thirty-one students (197 males, 230 females, 3 others, 1 missing gender) learning Spanish as a foreign language at a US university participated in the study. They had various majors, including Kinesiology ($n = 63$), Psychology ($n = 52$), Biology ($n = 42$), Political Science ($n = 32$), and History ($n = 22$). The students' ages ranged from 18 to 48 years ($M = 21.4$, SD = 2.73). Most of the participants spoke English as their first language ($n = 404$) and had never lived in a place where their L2 was spoken as a native language ($n = 371$). In terms of their L2 proficiency, they were taking either 200-level (intermediate, $n = 245$) or 300-level (advanced, $n = 184$) classes. The majority were taking the courses as a requirement ($n = 394$), and they described their own class performance over the semester as average ($n = 197$), above average ($n = 94$), and very good ($n = 85$).

5.2 | Instruments

A questionnaire consisting of 32 items was used for data collection (see Appendix A). The list of the scales examined in this study, with example items, is presented in Table 1. In addition to 12 items gathering the participants' general demographic information (e.g., gender, age, first language, and class level they were taking), 12 items measured learners' preferences for different types of corrective feedback, namely Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue, Prompt with Repetition, Didactic Recast, Conversational Recast, Absence of CF (see Papi et al., 2021). Importantly, the two feedback types involving prompts—Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue and Prompt with Repetition—operationalize *elicitation* in the present study, as both are designed to prompt learners to notice errors and produce self-corrections rather than receiving the correct form directly. Eight items measuring participants' FSB were developed based on Papi et al. (2019), with four items addressing Feedback Monitoring and four regarding Feedback Inquiry from the teacher. Feedback Inquiry from other sources was not included because the CF preferences examined here were specific to the teacher as the source of CF. Participants responded to all questionnaire items using a 6-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *Strongly Disagree* and 6 indicated *Strongly Agree*.

5.3 | Procedures

Data were collected after obtaining approval from the relevant Institutional Review Boards for research involving human participants. Language instructors were contacted via email and asked for their cooperation. Several instructors consented to participate and allowed visits to their classrooms. During the visits, students were invited to complete a paper questionnaire. They were assured that participation was entirely voluntary, no identifying information would be recorded, and that they had the right to withdraw at any time or skip any questions. 100% of the students in the classrooms completed the survey within 15 min. At the end of the session, the students and teachers were thanked for their time and participation.

TABLE 1 The list of variables regarding FSB and CF preferences.

	Explanation	Sample item
FSB		
Feedback Monitoring	Four items related to learners' deliberate use of attentional resources to observe and process feedback present in the environment	*I pay attention when my teachers correct my mistakes while speaking Spanish.*
Feedback Inquiry	Four items related to learners' behavioral tendency to directly ask for feedback from their teachers	*I ask my teachers to tell me what mistakes I make when I speak Spanish.*
CF preferences		
Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information	Two items measuring learners' preference for explicit correction of their L2 errors, along with metalinguistic explanations clarifying the mistakes	*When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher tells me I made a mistake and then explains it.*
Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue	Two items measuring learners' preference for receiving metalinguistic information about their L2 errors to prompt them to self-correct	*When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher explains the mistake that I made and allows me to correct it.*
Prompt with Repetition	Two items measuring learners' preference for having their L2 errors repeated to prompt them to self-correct	*When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence while saying the mistake with rising intonation and gives me the opportunity to correct it.*
Didactic Recast	Two items measuring learners' preference for their teacher to repeat their sentence with their error being corrected and move on	*When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistake corrected and moves on.*
Conversational Recast	Two items measuring learners' preference for their teacher to repeat their sentence with their error being corrected only when there is a misunderstanding of their intended meaning	*When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistakes corrected only when he or she does not understand what I mean.*
Absence of CF	Two items reflecting learners' lack of interest in their errors being corrected at all	*When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher does not correct my mistakes in class.*

Abbreviations: CF, corrective feedback; FSB, feedback-seeking behavior.

5.4 | Data analysis

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all scales included in the study. The analyses confirmed that the scales demonstrated high internal consistency, as indicated by strong alpha coefficients.

A comparison of the means for CF preferences revealed that students preferred more explicit forms of corrective feedback from their teachers. Among the six CF types, Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information received the highest mean score, while Absence of CF had the lowest. The overall pattern of mean scores showed a gradual decrease from more explicit to less explicit feedback types, suggesting that participants generally preferred more explicit CF. Table 3 presents the estimated marginal means and group differences in CF preferences by class levels. Although there were differences in mean scores, all of them were non-significant across all CF preferences, indicating that students' CF preferences did not differ meaningfully between intermediate and advanced classes.

In addition, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to examine the construct validity of the FSB items. Maximum Likelihood was employed as the extraction method, while Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization was used for rotation. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0.87, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant across all analyses ($\chi^2(13) = 59.17$, $p < .001$), indicating the dataset's appropriateness for EFA. The number of factors was determined based on eigenvalues greater than 1 (Kaiser's criterion) and scree plots. As seen in the scree plot (Figure 1), two factors were identified from the point of inflection. The EFA results, along with descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha coefficients are provided in Table 4. The pattern matrix confirmed the two-factor solution with the first factor, Feedback Monitoring, explaining 53.03% and the second factor, Feedback Inquiry, explaining 14.05% of the total variance. The mean scores for the factors identified in the EFA were used in the following analyses.

To assess the factor structure of the items measuring CF preferences, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out using AMOS 25 (IBM) with Maximum Likelihood estimation (see also Papi et al., 2021). The items loaded appropriately onto their respective latent variables, with factor loadings > 0.60. Model fit indices are presented in Table 5. Following Kline's (2016) guidelines, the chi-square test was significant ($p < .05$). However, given that this measure is less reliable for sample sizes exceeding 250 participants, alternative goodness-of-fit indices were used, including the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI). As shown in Table 5, all indices indicated excellent model fit, providing strong support for the construct validity of the CF preference measures.

TABLE 2 Descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales.

Scale	*K*	Alpha	*M*	SD
Feedback Seeking Behavior				
Feedback monitoring	4	.89	5.02	0.87
Feedback inquiry	4	.88	4.14	1.20
CF Preferences				
Explicit correction with metalinguistic information	2	.77	5.10	0.89
Prompt with metalinguistic clue	2	.83	5.09	0.98
Prompt with repetition	2	.80	4.56	1.21
Didactic recast	2	.76	3.76	1.44
Conversational recast	2	.74	3.17	1.34
Absence of CF	2	.76	1.94	1.14

TABLE 3 Estimated marginal means and group differences in CF preferences by class level.

CF preferences	Class level	*M*	Δ*M*	*SE*	*df*	*p*
Explicit correction with metalinguistic information	Intermediate	5.13	0.05	0.09	424	.58
	Advanced	5.08				
Prompt with metalinguistic clue	Intermediate	5.11	0.04	0.09	423	.70
	Advanced	5.07				
Prompt with repetition	Intermediate	4.65	0.21	0.12	424	.08
	Advanced	4.44				
Didactic recast	Intermediate	3.74	−0.03	0.14	424	.85
	Advanced	3.77				
Conversational recast	Intermediate	3.18	0.05	0.13	421	.68
	Advanced	3.13				
Absence of CF	Intermediate	1.93	−0.01	0.11	423	.90
	Advanced	1.94				

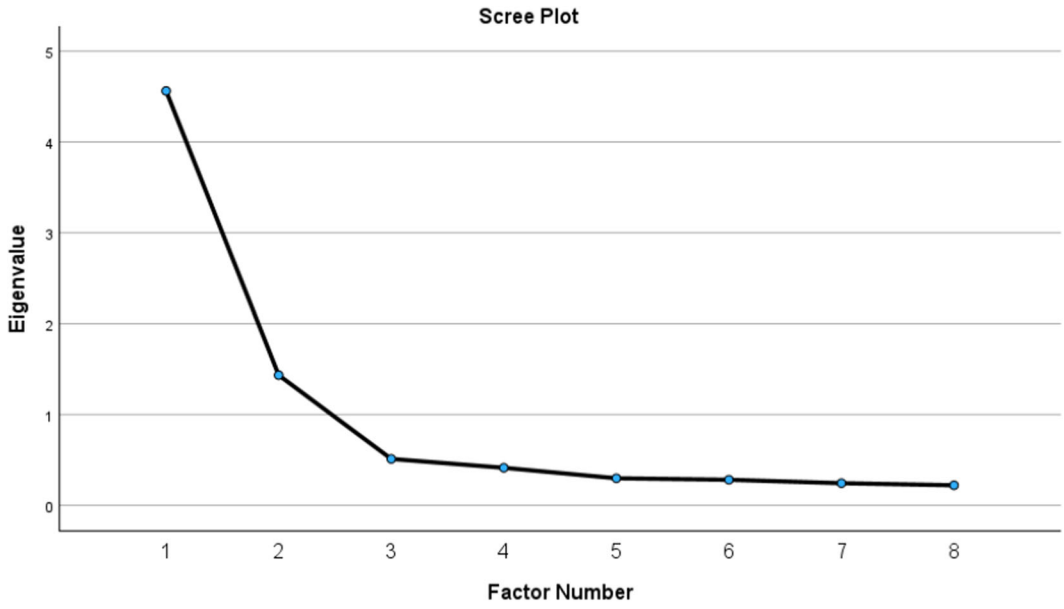

FIGURE 1 Scree plot from the initial exploratory factor analysis on FSB items. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

TABLE 4 Exploratory factor analysis pattern matrix for FSB items.

Items	*M (SD)*	Monitoring	Inquiry	h^2
I pay attention when my teachers correct my mistakes while speaking Spanish.	5.06 (0.96)	0.90		0.75
I listen carefully when my teachers correct my Spanish pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary.	5.01 (1.01)	0.82		0.74
When my teachers correct other students' Spanish, I pay attention and try not to make the same mistakes.	5.05 (1.02)	0.79		0.58
I try to remember my teachers' comments on my mistakes when speaking Spanish.	4.94 (1.03)	0.72		0.66
I ask my teachers to tell me how I can improve my Spanish speaking.	4.08 (1.38)		0.88	0.71
I ask my teachers to tell me what mistakes I make when I speak Spanish.	4.33 (1.35)		0.86	0.75
I ask my Spanish teachers to show me strategies to improve my speaking.	4.14 (1.40)		0.80	0.65
I ask my Spanish teachers to point out my speaking weaknesses.	4.02 (1.44)		0.67	0.53
Percentage of variance		53.03	14.05	
M (SD)		5.02 (0.87)	4.14 (1.20)	
Cronbach's alpha		0.89	0.88	

Abbreviation: FSB, feedback-seeking behavior.

TABLE 5 Goodness of fit indices extracted from confirmatory factor analysis on CF preference.

Index (ideal value)	χ^2/df ($p < .05$)	CFI (> 0.90)	TLI (> 0.90)	GFI (> 0.90)	RMSEA (< 0.08)
CF preferences	58.94/39 ($p < .05$)	0.97	0.95	0.97	0.03

Abbreviations: CF, corrective feedback; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI, Tucker–Lewis Index.

6 | RESULTS

To address the research questions, "RQ1: What are the relationships between Feedback Monitoring and CF preferences in the context of L2 speaking?" and "RQ2: What are the relationships between Feedback Inquiry and CF preferences in the context of L2 speaking?", six linear regression analyses were conducted. In each model, Feedback Monitoring and Feedback Inquiry were included as predictors, and each of the six CF preference variables served as the dependent variable. Class level (intermediate and advanced) was included as a covariate. The normality of the residuals for the dependent variables was examined, and no severe deviations were observed. The results of the analyses are summarized in Table 6.

Across the models, Feedback Monitoring emerged as the strongest and most consistent predictor of CF preferences. Specifically, more explicit CF preferences, including preference for Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue, and Prompt with Repetition, were strongly associated with Feedback Monitoring (e.g., Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information: Estimate = 0.71, $SE = 0.04$, $t = 16.82$, $p < .001$). Interestingly, Feedback Monitoring negatively predicted preferences for Conversational Recast (Estimate = −0.23, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .01$) and Absence of CF (Estimate = −0.58, $SE = 0.07$, $p < .001$), indicating that students who engaged more in Feedback Monitoring tended to disfavor these types of corrective feedback. Feedback Inquiry, on the other hand, was a significant predictor only for a subset of CF preferences. Higher Feedback Inquiry scores positively predicted preferences for Prompt with Repetition (Estimate = 0.11, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .03$), Conversational Recast (Estimate = 0.18, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .01$), and Absence of CF (Estimate = 0.15, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .01$). For other CF types, Feedback Inquiry was not a significant predictor, suggesting that Feedback Inquiry had a more selective influence on preferences compared with Feedback Monitoring. Class level was not a significant predictor for any CF type, indicating that students' preferences for CF types were comparable across class levels.

7 | DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to explore the relationship between learners' FSB and their preferences for different types of oral CF. The results showed that Feedback Monitoring positively and strongly predicted the preferences for the more explicit types of CF (i.e., Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Information, Prompt with Metalinguistic Clue, and Prompt with Repetition), negatively predicted learners' preference for Conversational Recast and Absence of CF, and did not predict Didactic Recasts. These findings suggest that learners who tend to engage in Feedback Monitoring, that is, those who carefully pay attention to and try to learn from CF, prefer to receive the more explicit forms of CF on their oral L2 production errors over the implicit types, such as recasts. This may reflect a strong motivation to learn, as such

TABLE 6 Linear regression model estimates predicting CF preferences.

Predictors	Estimate*	Std. E.	*t*	*p*	Dependent variables
Monitoring	0.71	0.04	16.82	<.001	Explicit correction with metalinguistic information (R^2 = .48)
Inquiry	0.01	0.03	0.04	.97	
Class level	0.03	0.03	0.95	.34	
Monitoring	0.76	0.05	16.79	<.001	Prompt with metalinguistic clue (R^2 = .50)
Inquiry	0.04	0.03	1.26	.21	
Class level	0.05	0.04	1.32	.19	
Monitoring	0.59	0.07	8.52	<.001	Prompt with repetition (R^2 = .25)
Inquiry	0.11	0.05	2.14	.03	
Class level	−0.07	0.06	−1.33	.18	
Monitoring	0.11	0.10	1.14	.25	Didactic recast (R^2 = .01)
Inquiry	0.07	0.07	1.01	.32	
Class level	−0.07	0.08	−0.89	.38	
Monitoring	−0.23	0.09	−2.70	.01	Conversational recast (R^2 = .03)
Inquiry	0.18	0.06	2.83	.01	
Class level	−0.07	0.07	−0.93	.35	
Monitoring	−0.58	0.07	−8.31	<.001	Absence of CF (R^2 = .15)
Inquiry	0.15	0.05	2.94	.01	
Class level	−0.07	0.06	−1.27	.21	

*Estimates represent unstandardized regression coefficients.

learners appear to seek opportunities for improvement and prefer feedback that explicitly highlights the target forms of their errors and is more salient.

Previous studies have shown that learners who engage in Feedback Monitoring tend to have highly adaptive psychological characteristics, which makes them more interested in receiving the more explicit types of CF. Learners who show high levels of Feedback Monitoring have been shown to have a growth mindset; that is, they believe in the malleability of their language learning intelligence through effort and strategy (Papi et al., 2019; Waller & Papi, 2017). Due to their growth mindset, these students tend to adopt development goals, which focus improving L2 competence (Papi et al., 2020). Such achievement goals seem to have driven them to focus on the process of L2 learning. This focus on L2 development helps these students view and value CF as a resource and be less concerned with the negative consequences of being corrected (Papi et al., 2020). The high learning value these students attach to CF leads them to engage in monitoring the CF more carefully when it is explicitly provided in the environment, such as through Explicit Corrections with Metalinguistic Information.

Prior research has also shown that explicit types of CF are generally more effective than the implicit types (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007; Tan et al., 2024). The relative effectiveness of the explicit types of CF is usually attributed to the salience of explicit CF, which makes explicit CF a more accessible and richer source of learning. Although explicit CF may be perceived as threatening by some learners, the adaptive characteristics of this group

of students make them less concerned with such costs and potentially more motivated by its learning value. In other words, feedback-monitors may desire more explicit CF types because they view them as more valuable resources for learning than the implicit types of CF, which are often regarded as less valuable learning resources due to their ambiguous nature and lack of salience (Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2004).

By contrast, Feedback Inquiry positively predicted the more implicit CF types, including Prompt with Repetition and Conversational Recast, as well as the Absence of CF. It seems that learners who tend to seek feedback by asking their teachers are either interested in less explicit forms of CF or not interested in receiving CF at all. These results can be attributed to the interaction between the psychological profiles of the learners and the unique features of different CF types (Papi et al., 2019, 2020, 2021; Waller & Papi, 2017; Xu & Wang, 2023, 2024). Previous studies have shown that learners who only engage in Feedback Inquiry tend to have a fixed language mindset, that is, they believe that their ability to learn new languages is inborn and cannot change through effort (e.g., Papi et al., 2019). Such a deep-seated belief in the unchangeability of their language learning talent may lead these learners pursue demonstration goals, which focus on validating their abilities by outperforming others (a demonstration-approach goal) or avoiding performing worse than others (a demonstration-avoidance goal) (Papi et al., 2020). Considering their lack of belief in the malleability of their language learning intelligence and their focus on validation through performance, these students may not fully value or seek CF as a resource for learning; rather, they seem to either interpret it as a means for improving class performance or as a potential threat to their image and identity (Papi et al., 2020). Therefore, they might react anxiously when they are explicitly corrected. In a systematic review on the role of anxiety in L2 learning, An and Li (2024) also support this interpretation by indicating that more anxious learners tended to prefer and benefit more from implicit feedback, such as recasts, which they perceive as less threatening. Further evidence supporting this interpretation can be found in Papi et al. (2020), who found that learners with a fixed mindset and a performance-avoidant goal reported engaging in Feedback Inquiry from their peers because they appeared to perceive their peers as safer sources of CF than their teachers. This was also supported by Mahbodi et al. (2026), who found that learners' trust in teachers' competence was associated with Feedback Monitoring, whereas their affective relationship with the teacher was associated with Feedback Inquiry.

Students who engage in Feedback Inquiry still prefer to receive Conversational Recasts because they view this type of CF as a means of facilitating more effective communication. As Conversational Recasts function as a means for negotiating meaning and clarifying misunderstandings (example item: *When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like it when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistakes corrected, only when he or she does not understand what I mean.*), they can still be instrumental for communication purposes.

In sum, the students who reported solely engaging in Feedback Inquiry do not prefer to be explicitly corrected, as they may not value explicit correction as a resource for learning and growth and may instead be more concerned with either L2 maintenance, performance, or the image and identity threats of receiving such CF. These results seem to be in line with Papi et al.'s (2024) conclusions that while Feedback Monitoring represents students' engagement in gathering and using the CF provided, Feedback Inquiry may not consistently function as a valid FSB strategy. This may be because the items measuring Feedback Inquiry are not only focused on corrective feedback but also capture learners' general tendency for directive feedback. According to Papi et al. (2019, 2020), Feedback Inquiry could be a strategy that learners employ to make a positive impression on their teachers or to better understand teachers' evaluation standards. In another study by Mahbodi et al. (2026), students' emotional trust in their teachers positively predicted their Feedback Inquiry and

Monitoring, whereas students' trust in their teachers' competence positively predicted their Feedback Monitoring but negatively predicted their Feedback Inquiry. In addition, the self-presentation cost of feedback seeking was found to negatively predict Feedback Monitoring but not Feedback Inquiry. The authors noted that "if learners' fear of embarrassment or evaluation does not dissuade them from engaging in feedback inquiry, the latter may have a different function" (p. 22). Taken together, these results suggest that a conceptual and operational revision of Feedback Inquiry as an FSB strategy is warranted.

8 | PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study highlight the importance of tailoring CF to different types of students in L2 classrooms. Specifically, teachers may benefit from first identifying how their learners typically engage with CF. This could be done at the beginning of a semester through brief questionnaires or semi-structured interviews designed to elicit learners' feedback-related beliefs and practices. Such diagnostic activities may help teachers distinguish learners who primarily engage in Feedback Monitoring from those who rely more on Feedback Inquiry. Learners who can be characterized as proactive feedback monitors, that is, those who truly pay attention to and try to use and learn from the CF, tend to prefer more explicit types of CF, which they see as more valuable sources of learning due to their greater salience. In contrast, learners who engage only in feedback inquiry tend to prefer more implicit types of CF or no CF at all. Due to their tendency to endorse a fixed mindset and performance goals, these learners may place little value on CF and may experience anxiety when they are corrected. In the short term, these learners may benefit from receiving implicit CF in a non-threatening and supportive manner until they develop more adaptive psychological dispositions toward FSB (see An & Li, 2024).

Given the association between feedback monitoring and a growth mindset, teachers may emphasize the pedagogical value of CF (e.g., Papi et al., 2019). Instruction that explicitly introduces different types of CF and their relative effectiveness may encourage learners to attend more closely to the feedback they receive and foster the development of a growth mindset. Teachers can go a step further by incorporating content in their syllabus that promotes a growth mindset and the adoption of development goals among students (Lou & Noels, 2019). They can have students engage in class discussions, reflective reading and writing, and goal-setting activities that encourage students to think more deeply and modify their fundamental beliefs about intelligence and learning. Similarly, they can structure their syllabus and instruction in a way that the students' focus is placed on the process of learning, and success is defined in terms of students' progress over time rather than comparison with an external norm or peer. Finally, teachers can train or provide guidelines for students on how to seek CF from different sources (e.g., teachers, peers, AI tools), how to cognitively engage with and process the CF, and how to incorporate the CF in their L2 use. Employing such training or guidelines can enhance students' perceived value of FSB, reduce its perceived social costs, and, in turn, increase the quantity and quality of FSB.

9 | LIMITATIONS & FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This study has limitations, as it employed a questionnaire to measure learners' FSB and CF preferences, without classroom observation or student performance data. Future research can build on the findings of the present study by employing qualitative methods such as interviews

or observations to provide more in-depth insight into students' FSB and CF preferences. Incorporating FSB into experimental research designs involving the actual provision of CF (e.g., Papi et al., 2024) may help researchers examine how differences in FSB influence the effectiveness of various types of CF. It is also recommended that future studies broaden their designs to include contextual and relational variables (e.g., Mahbodi et al., 2026; Xu & Wang, 2023), or to explore emerging avenues such as the use of *ChatGPT* and other AI-based tools as CF sources (Yan et al., 2026). The present study did not examine differences across specific classes or teachers, which may influence learners' FSB (e.g., Mahbodi et al., 2026; Papi et al., 2026). Although we included course level (200-level vs. 300-level) as a proxy, due to the absence of class identifiers, we were unable to model class-level effects. Therefore, some of the observed variability may reflect potential class-specific differences. Future research incorporating multilevel designs is needed to better account for class-specific influences and to further clarify how broader contextual and instructional variables can shape learners' FSB and CF preferences.

Future research can explore the links between FSB, CF preferences, and the impact of CF on their L2 learning to deepen our understanding of the mechanisms underlying feedback-driven L2 development. Feedback Inquiry has produced inconsistent results and does not seem to offer a clear and coherent picture of students' involvement in feedback seeking for the purpose of learning. A reconceptualization of the construct may strengthen future FSB research (see Papi et al., in press).

10 | CONCLUSION

Traditionally, CF researchers attribute the higher effectiveness of the explicit types of CF to their higher salience compared with the implicit types of CF. The findings of this study highlight the psychological dimension of the feedback process and show that, whereas technical features of CF, such as its salience or clarity, matter, the effectiveness of CF also depends on the learner's psychology and their proactive engagement in eliciting, monitoring and using CF on their L2 performance. Our findings suggest that the higher effectiveness of the explicit types of CF (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Tan et al., 2024) and their higher preferability by the learners (e.g., Lee, 2013; Tan et al., 2024) seem to be due to the feedback-seeking students who prefer to receive this kind of CF. From this perspective, the effectiveness of recasts in laboratory settings can also be attributed to students' enhanced proactivity driven by the motivational effects of laboratory conditions (e.g., Goo & Mackey, 2013; Nassaji, 2009; Saito & Lyster, 2012) and teachers' preference for the more implicit types of CF can be linked to their concern with emotional impact of CF on less proactive learners who experience lower psychological security (e.g., Mahbodi et al., 2026).

Taken together, the present study confirms the ecological view of CF, not only as an instructional technique, but also as a learning resource that learners benefit from depending on their own proactive tendency to seek and use it (Kadivar & Papi, in press; Papi et al., 2019). CF research and theory may, thus, benefit from adopting this theoretical perspective, where the effectiveness of different or any type of CF can depend on students' psychological readiness to seek, use, and learn from the feedback information. Such a learner-centered approach can further our understanding of the different CF features and conditions that lead to the effectiveness of CF, or lack thereof, for different types of learners. In addition, it can shift our attention from the technical features of CF to the emotional and psychological states that motivate or dissuade learners from engaging in FSB. Adopting this perspective in L2 pedagogy

may lead to an adaptive instructional approach in which CF types and strategies are aligned with learners' individual characteristics. Such alignment can maximize the learning potential of CF while improving learners' emotional experience and relationships with their teachers.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

ORCID

Mostafa Papi https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4309-0483
Hyejin An https://orcid.org/0009-0004-5259-7707

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

- **Background Items (12 items)**

1. Gender:
2. Age:
3. First language (if not English):
4. What is your university status?
5. Year of study at college?
6. How long have you been studying Spanish?
7. Do you speak Spanish with any family members?
8. What is the class level you are enrolled in?
9. What is your current major?
10. Is the course required in your major?
11. Length of Residence in L2 Context:
12. How would you describe your performance in your Spanish classes over this semester?

Feedback Seeking Behavior Questionnaire (8 items)

Feedback Inquiry

Q1. I ask my Spanish teachers to point out my speaking weaknesses.

Q2. I ask my teachers to tell me how I can improve my Spanish speaking.

Q5. I ask my teachers to tell me what mistakes I make when I speak Spanish.

Q6. I ask my Spanish teachers to show me strategies to improve my speaking.

Feedback Monitoring

Q3. I try to remember my teachers' comments on my mistakes when speaking Spanish.

Q4. I listen carefully when my teachers correct my Spanish pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary.

Q7. When my teachers correct other students' Spanish, I pay attention and try not to make the same mistakes.

Q8. I pay attention when my teachers correct my mistakes while speaking Spanish.

CF Preferences Questionnaire (12 items)

Prompt with repetition

Q1. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence while saying the mistake with rising intonation and gives me the opportunity to correct it.

Q10. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like it when my teacher repeats my sentence while saying the mistake with rising intonation and gives me the opportunity to correct it.

Absence of CF

Q2. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like it when my teacher does not correct my mistakes in class.

Q8. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like it when my teacher does not correct my mistakes in class.

Explicit correction with metalinguistic information

Q3. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like it when my teacher tells me I made a mistake and then explains it.

Q11. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher tells me I made a mistake and then explains it.

Prompt with metalinguistic clue

Q4. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher explains the mistake that I made and allows me to correct it.

Q7. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher explains the mistake that I made and allows me to correct it.

Didactic recast

Q5. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistake corrected and moves on.

Q9. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistake corrected and moves on.

Conversational recast

Q6. When I make a grammar mistake speaking Spanish in my class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistakes corrected only when he or she does not understand what I mean.

Q12. When I say a word wrong in my Spanish class, I like when my teacher repeats my sentence with my mistakes corrected only when he or she does not understand what I mean.