

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes general background which consists of discussion on various issues of language acquisition and learning, language skills, factors affecting English language learning, motivation, feedback, types of feedback and teacher feedback. It also includes affective aspect of teacher feedback, techniques of oral feedback, roles of feedback in language classrooms, feedback on oral work, feedback timing and principles of good feedback practices. Likewise, the review of related literature, and objectives and significance of the study have also been included in this chapter.

1.1 General Background

Language learning is a matter of discussion and debate among philosophers, psychologists, and linguists. Philosophers are divided into two groups in case of learning as: empiricists and rationalists. Empiricists believe in the role of sense organs and experience from which all human knowledge comes. Lyons (1981) says that empiricism is an "approach which states that the development of theory must be related to observable facts and experiments" (p. 41). But on the other hand, rationalists believe that linguistic knowledge is acquired innately. Lyons (1981) further argues that language is very difficult to define and it is unique to the human beings only.

Similarly, psychologists are also standing in two poles including behaviourists and mentalists. According to behaviourists, any kinds of behaviour are learned through practice, trial and error where the role of environment, reward and punishment, imitation and reinforcement tend to be significant. Likewise, a child's mind tends to be empty during his/her birth. Later on, when he/she is exposed to the environment then he/she begins to learn. On the contrary, mentalism is another school of psychology led by Noam Chomsky. Chomsky

(1957) is a key figure to make the existence of mentalism in psychology. Mentalists believe in human mind while acquiring and learning language. They say that a child's mind is already equipped with innate capacity which McNeil (1966) calls LAD (language Acquisition Device). Such innate capacity makes a human being a linguistic creature.

Finally, linguists are also standing in two poles namely; structuralists and generativists. From the view point of structuralists, language is learned bit by bit (i.e. phoneme, morpheme, word, phrase and sentence). In this sense, language is a collection of habit. But on the other hand, generativism is completely different from theoretical approaches of structuralism. Smith (1999) argues that language cannot be scrutinized in terms of the raw data gathered by field linguists.

In conclusion, language learning is affected directly and indirectly by so many factors such as, age, motivation, aptitude, culture, and so on. Among them feedback is one of the key factors playing a significant role in learning language.

1.1.1 Language Acquisition and Learning

The terms 'acquisition' and 'learning' are directly concerned with first and second language respectively. For Ellis (1985), these two terms are very controversial in psychology of learning. Acquisition is used to refer to picking up a language through exposure whereas the term 'learning' is used to refer to the conscious study of a second language. Acquisition and learning are interchangeable irrespective of whether conscious or subconscious processes are involved (Ellis, 1985).

The term 'second language acquisition' refers to the subconscious or conscious process by which a language other than the mother tongue is learned in a

natural or a tutored setting. It covers the development of phonology, lexis, grammar, and pragmatic knowledge but has been largely confined to morphosyntax. But on the other hand, "learning is a conscious process which takes place in classroom setting with limited time" (Ellis, 1985, p. 3). Krashen and Terrell (1963, p. 19) give the following points to distinguish between acquisition and learning:

Table No. 1
Acquisition and Learning

Acquisition	Learning
Similar to L1 acquisition	Formal knowledge of language
picking up language	Knowing about language
Subconscious	Conscious
Implicit knowledge	Explicit knowledge
Formal teaching does not help	Formal teaching helps

Similarly, Krashen (1983, p.2) says, "language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill." He proposed five hypotheses in his theory of second language acquisition namely; acquisition-learning hypothesis, monitor hypothesis, natural order hypothesis, input hypothesis and affective filter hypothesis. Acquisition-learning hypothesis is the combination of two systems, the acquired system and the learned system. Thus, second language is also acquired. At the same time he also mentions that learnt knowledge never becomes acquired knowledge and vice-versa. To sum up, Krashen's acquisition-learning hypothesis also distinguishes between acquisition and learning.

1.1.2 Language skills

Language has four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and speaking are categorized as primary skills, and reading and writing are classified as the secondary skills from one angle. But from the another angle, these four skills are categorized on the basis of reception and production. Listening and reading are considered as receptive skills while speaking and writing are productive skills.

a. Speaking skills

Speaking is the ability to express oneself fluently in a foreign language. It is a complex and complicated skill; in addition to the structure and vocabulary items, it involves thinking of what is to be said. But it is especially difficult in foreign language because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriate in social interactions. It requires more than its grammatical and semantic rules. Speaking skill has some sub-skills. Such skills of speaking as Munby (1979, p. 214) mentions are:

- articulating sounds in isolate forms.
- articulating sounds in connected speech.
- manipulating variation in stress in connected speech.
- manipulating the use of stress in connected speech.
- producing intonation patterns and expressing attitudinal meaning through variation in pitch, height, pitch range and pause.

In order to speak in a foreign language fluently and accurately, knowledge of sub-skills of speaking is required. While teaching speaking the students must be made familiar with various aspects of speaking. The students, as the learner of speaking make various mistakes and errors in their speaking. So, the teachers need to correct them very often with feedback strategies.

Thornbury (2005) suggests various dimensions of different speaking events in order to describe different speaking genres. For example, we can make a distinction between transactional and interpersonal functions. Transactional function has its main purpose conveying information and facilitating the exchange of goods and services, whereas the interpersonal function is all about maintaining and sustaining good relations between people. Thornbury (2005) further talks about the purpose of the speaking event. He has characterized it as interactive or non-interactive. The conversation that takes place when we buy a newspaper at a stationery is interactive, whereas learning a message on an answer phone is non-interactive.

b. Elements of speaking skill: The major elements of speaking skill have been discussed below:

i) Accuracy: According to Richards (1992), accuracy concerns "the ability to produce grammatically correct sentence" (p. 31). In other words, accuracy in language means grammatical accuracy only. Nevertheless, for Thornbury (2000), the term "accuracy" seems to cover more than that. Specifically, speaking English accurately means doing without or with few errors on not only grammar but vocabulary and pronunciation, as well. Likewise, he also sets the clear scale for assessment of accuracy.

-) Grammar: Students use correct words order, tense, tense agreement, etc.
-) Vocabulary: Students have a range of vocabulary that corresponds to the syllabus year list and uses words teachers have taught.
-) Pronunciation: Students speak and most people understand.

ii) Fluency: Fluency is also used as a criterion to measure one's speaking competence. Speaking fluently means being able to communicate one's ideas without stopping and thinking too much about what one is saying. Richards (1992, p. 141) defines fluency as "the features which gave speech qualities of being natural and normal." Thornbury (2000) pointed out the criteria for assessing fluency:

- J Lack of hesitation: Students speak smoothly, at a natural speech. They do not hesitate long and it is easy to follow what they are saying.
- J Length: Students can put ideas together to form a message or an argument. They can make not only the simplest of sentence patterns but also complex ones to complete the task.
- J Independence: Students are able to express their ideas in a number of ways, keep talking and ask questions, etc to keep the conversation going.

c. Stages for teaching speaking

Speaking is a complex skill because of its vast network. So it needs systematic progression from easy to difficult stages and aims to teach pronunciation, grammar and so on. Generally, teaching speaking skill involves the following three stages (Harmer, 1991, p. 51).

i. Introducing new language

The introduction of new language is an activity that falls at non-communicative and of speaking continuum. In this stage, teachers often work with controlled techniques, asking students to repeat and perform in drills. At the same time as they will insist on accuracy, correcting where students make mistakes. Although these introduction stages should be kept short and the drilling should be abandoned as soon as possible, they are, nevertheless, important in helping the students to assimilate facts about new language and in enabling them to produce the language for the first time.

ii. Practice

Practice activities are those activities which fall somewhere between the two extremes of our speaking continuum. While students are performing, they may have a communicative purpose and while they may be working in pairs, they may also be a lack of language variety and the materials may

determine which the students do or say. During the practice stage, the teacher may intervene slightly to help, guide and to point out inaccuracy.

iii. Communicative activities

Communicative activities are those which exhibit the characteristics at the communicative and of speaking continuum. Students are somehow involved in activities that give them both the desire to communicate and a purpose which involves them in a varied use of language. Such activities are vital in language classroom since the students can use their users to use the language as individual aiming at a degree of language autonomy.

1.1.3 Factors Affecting English Language Learning

Regarding the factors affecting the second language learning, Schumann (1978) hypothesizes that "learning a second language is facilitated or inhibited by sociological and psychological factors involving the learner" (p. 252). For him, sociological and psychological factors tend to be important. Second language acquisition/learning is determined by the degree of social and psychological distance between the learner and the target language culture. Social distance is the result of a number of social factors which contact with the target language group. Psychological distance is the result of various affective factors which concern the learner as individual. The social factors are primary. Ellis (1985) lists the various factors which determine social and psychological distance. The social variables govern whether the overall learning situation is 'good' or 'bad'. An example of a 'good' learning situation is when (a) the target language and L₂ groups view each other as socially equal; (b) the target language and L₂ groups are both desirous that the L₂ group will assimilate; (c) both the target and L₂ groups expect the L₂ group to share social facilities with the target language group; (d) the L₂ group is small and not very cohesive; (e) the L₂ group's culture is congruent with that of the target language group; and both groups have positive attitudes to each other. Likewise, he also mentions psychological factors which are affective in nature. They include (1) language shock; culture

shock; motivation; and ego boundaries. Following Schumann, Brown (1987) mentions socio-cultural and personal factors which affect second language learning. Socio-cultural factors are interrelated with the living styles, beliefs, ideas and customs of the concerned society. But on the other hand, personality factors are directly associated with self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, anxiety, empathy, extroversion and motivation.

1.1.4 Motivation

To quote Brown (1987, p. 152), "Motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves on particular actions."

Motivation does not control or guide specific forms of behaviours but it influences human behaviour energizing innate or associate tendencies.

Similarly, Williams and Burden (1997) suggest that motivation is a "state of cognitive arousal which provokes a decision to act, as a result of which there is sustained intellectual and or physical effort. So that, the person can achieve some previously set goal" (p.120).

Gardener and Lambert (1972) define 'motivation' in terms of the L2 learner's overall goal or orientation and attitudes as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. They argue that there is no reason to expect the relationship between the two; the type of motivation is distinct from the attitudes displayed to different learning task. However, Gardner (1979) suggests that attitudes are related to motivation by serving as supports of the learners' overall orientation. Brown (1981) also distinguishes 'motivation' and attitude. So, he identifies three types of motivation:

- Global motivation
- Situational motivation
- Task motivation

Global motivation, which consists of a general orientation to the goal of learning a L2; situational motivation, which varies according to the situation in which learning takes place; task motivation, which is the motivation for performing particular learning tasks.

Gardner and Lambert (1979) made the distinction between extrinsic (i.e. derive from external sources such as material rewards) and intrinsic (i.e. derive from the personal, inherent interests) motivation, that is motivation which comes from 'outside' and 'inside'. Extrinsic motivation is the result of any number of outside factors, for example the need to pass an exam, the hope of financial reward or the possibility of the future level. Intrinsic motivation, by contrast, comes from within the individual. Thus, a person might be motivated by the enjoyment of the learning process itself or by a desire to make themselves feel better.

Most of the researchers and methodologists like Gardener and Lambert (1972) and Brown (1978) have concluded that intrinsic motivation produces better results than its counter part.

1.1.5 Feedback

Ur (1996, p. 242) says that "in the context of teaching in general, feedback is information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance." As Littlewood (1981) and Lewis (2002) also point out, feedback means telling learners about their progress and showing them their errors in order to guide them to areas for improvement. Feedback can be divided into two types on the basis of medium, oral or written. So, feedback is a information provided by the teachers to their learners through oral or written medium. Wajnryb (1990) states that oral feedback is given in the oral aspects of the language such as, pronunciation, stress, intonation, pitch etc. Similarly, Richards et al. (1999, p.

137) define feedback as "any information which provides a report on the result of behaviour." We can say that feedback is any comments given by listener, reader or viewer for the improvement and betterment of the writer's or speaker's output. Giving feedback helps students to develop their proficiency in English.

Ramaprasad (1983) defines feedback as "information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way" (p.4). Meanwhile, Sadler (1989, p. 77) argues that formative assessment is "specifically intended to provide feedback on performance to improve and accelerate learning".

From all the definitions mentioned above, we can say that feedback is a key factor in the process of second language teaching and learning. It assists students in learning the second language by correcting, suggesting and indicating their mistakes either in oral or written form.

1.1.6 Types of Feedback

Feedback can be categorized into different types as either oral or written on the basis of medium and either positive or negative. Gattullo (2000) and Harmer (2001) divide feedback into corrective, evaluative and strategic.

Corrective feedback focuses on helping learners notice and correct errors. So, this types of feedback explains why correct responses are right and incorrect ones are wrong. In language learning, corrective feedback is primarily concerned with accuracy. But on the other hand, evaluative feedback aims to provide a judgement on the learners' performance. Gattullo (2000) suggests that evaluative feedback is dominant in second and foreign language classrooms. While giving evaluative feedback, teachers use words or phrases to indicate the extent to which learners' performance is good or not (e.g. very good). Finally,

strategic feedback usually aims to offer learners advice on what to do to improve their performance. Tsui (1995) suggests that using strategic feedback may enhance learning as it can help learners to become self-reliant.

Furthermore, McNamara (1999) and Ayoun (2001) have pointed out the teachers' oral feedback might affect learners' attitudes to their learning positively or negatively and so feedback can also be classified as either positive or negative. Positive feedback shows learners that the teacher is interested in what they say and at the same time encourages them. But on the other hand, negative feedback expresses the teacher's displeasure, frustration which certainly hinders learning. Long (1996), classified feedback into two types as: verbal and non-verbal. Verbal feedback which is presented in a form that is spoken or capable of being spoken concerns not only phrases used but also tone of voice. Accordingly, non-verbal feedback refers to the one made in silence with cues like facial expressions.

Obviously, the point which all the aforementioned definitions have in common is the purpose of providing feedback, i.e. for learner's improvement.

1.1.7 Teacher Feedback

Another very important aspect of teacher talk is providing feedback to student responses. It is in the feedback that teachers make evaluations of and give comments on students' performance. This can be seen from the fact that classroom exchanges typically consist of three parts: an initiation from the teacher, a response from the student, followed by a feedback from the teacher (Tsui, 1995). Similarly, he argues that teacher feedback is a part of the classroom interaction routine that, when it is absent after a student response, students know that there must be something wrong or unsatisfactory about the response. For example:

T: Now can you change that sentence to 'they'? Instead of saying he runs quickly, can you change that sentence to they? Queenie?

S: They runs they runs quickly

T: Once more

S: They run quickly

T: Yes, that's better

(Tsui, 1995, p.43).

After the students' response, the teacher, instead of evaluating it, asks them to give the response once again. That the student realizes the response is unsatisfactory can be seen from the fact that, instead of giving an exact repetition of the response, she/he gives one with the error corrected. The teacher then accepts the response as an improvement on the previous one. Withholding feedback until a correct response is produced is a common strategy used by teachers to avoid giving negative evaluation (Tsui, 1995).

1.1.8 Affective Aspect of Teacher Feedback

The kind of feedback that a teacher provides affects student language learning. A teacher who constantly provides negative feedback is bound to create a sense of failure and frustration among students and will inhibit student contribution. Tsui (1995), on the other hand, a teacher who values every contribution and provides encouraging feedback is much more likely to get students motivated to learn and participate in class, and will help to create a warm social climate in the classroom.

Tsui (1995) also says that feedback is usually associated with evaluating and providing information related to student responses, but these are not only the functions. Teacher feedback can also acknowledge the information that students offer or provide personal comments on their response. Therefore, positive feedback provided by the teacher to his/her students encourage them to

do more interestingly whereas negative feedback given by the teachers may create negative attitude of students towards their learning task.

1.1.9 Techniques of Oral Feedback

Oral feedback is usually provided directly by the teachers; but they may also be elicited from the learner who made the mistake in the first place, or by another member of the class. Feedback may or may not include clarification of why the mistake was made, and may or may not require re-production of the acceptable form by the learner. Ur (1996, pp. 247-248) has classified oral feedback techniques into four stages as:

- i. Preparation
- ii. Observation
- iii. Interview
- iv. Summary and conclusions

i. Preparation: In this stage, teachers think and note down for themselves and then they provide feedback to their students.

ii. Observation: In this stage, teachers observe some lessons, if possible, by different teachers; or watch video recordings of lessons. Finally, they categorize the students' mistakes and then provide feedback to the students accordingly.

iii. Interview: In the form of interviewing, teachers can provide oral feedback to their students. But this can held in various ways. Kumar (1996) has classified interview into two types as: structured and unstructured interview. There is flexibility in question and content in unstructured interview. But on the contrary, structured interview is formal and pre-determined.

iv. Summary and conclusions: This is the final stage of oral feedback which is the sum total of aforementioned three stages. In this stage, teachers discuss or think about what they have found out.

1.1.10 Roles of Feedback in Language Classrooms

Hattie and Kimberley (2007) asserted in their review that "feedback is one of the most powerful influences on learning and achievement" (p.3). Friermuth (1998) supported that teachers' feedback helps "to improve learners' accuracy and language acquisition" (p.7). We see that teachers' feedback help students reflect what and how they perform, showing them their strong points to strengthen as well as the weak points to improve in future. Noticeably, when teachers leave mistakes untreated, the defective language might serve as an input model and acquired by other students in the class. In short, students, when doing activities without teachers' feedback, run a high risk of losing their ways. Added to this, Moss (2002) proposed that teachers' feedback can speed up the process of language learning by providing information about rules and the limits of language use, which would otherwise takes students a long time to deduce on their own.

1.1.11 Positive Feedback

Positive feedback can be very important to boost up learners' morale, for instance, confidence, pleasure etc, which itself can be powerful determinant of language learning outcomes. Following Ur (1995), most of the feedback given to learners is through correction and assessment, directed at specific bits of learner-produced language with the aim of bringing about improvements. This means the purpose of feedback is to form and to improve learners' performance. Drapher (2010) opines that a meaningful feedback involves some kinds of judgement and the teacher tries to make the attitude to feedback more positive with thinking that mistakes are natural and useful part of language learning. Teacher should give feedback to the learners with a purpose to help and promote learning since getting wrong is not bad rather a way into getting right. But mere positive feedback is not enough. The teacher should not just encourage but also say which aspects are good and why, success as well as

failures should be reported and diagnosed. If there is doubt that something is bad the feedback should say, "it is all fine except" which is midway neither positive nor negative. Isaacs (1932) says, "good feedback tells what was right, what was wrong and how to right wrongs without wronging the right"(p.17).

1.1.12 Feedback on Oral Work

Feedback can be given both on written and oral work. Generally, feedback on oral work is given orally. But in some situations, teachers cannot correct learner's mistakes on oral work. For example, during fluency work feedback disturbs and discourages learners than help. Oral corrections are usually provided directly by teachers and can be elicited from learners who make mistakes or by another member of class. Doughty et al. (2010) suggest that recasting in oral work is effective way of giving feedback. Most of the learners want and expect the teacher to give them feedback on their performance. The learners may be demotivated if they are recasted at every mistakes for that teacher should correct them without offending them. For this, the teacher should consider frequency and type of correction during oral work.

Feedback during oral work includes accuracy and fluency. Harmer (2001) presents alternative techniques of giving feedback on accuracy and fluency work. Feedback during accuracy work incorporates two alternative techniques namely; showing incorrectness and getting it right. These two techniques have sub-techniques which are as follows:

- i. Repeating: In this technique, teacher can ask the students to repeat what he/she has said, perhaps by saying Again?, Try again, etc.
- ii. Echoing: This is a precise way of pin-pointing an error. In this technique, teacher repeats what the student has said, emphasizing that part of the utterance that was wrong. For example, Flight 309 Go to Kathmandu (said with a questioning intonation). Therefore, it is

considered as an extremely efficient way of showing incorrectness during accuracy work.

- iii. **Statement and question:** In order to show incorrectness, teachers simply say Good try, but that's not quite right, etc in the form of statement and question.
- iv. **Expression:** Incorrectness can also be shown through facial expression or gesture. For example, a wobbling hand may be enough to indicate that something does not quite work.
- v. **Hinting:** A quick way of helping students to activate rule they already know. In this technique, teacher may give clues to the students.
- vi. **Reformulation:** A correction technique which is widely used both for accuracy and fluency work is for the teacher to repeat back a corrected version of what the student has said. In this technique, teacher reformulates the sentence, but without making a big issue of it.

In all the procedures above, teachers hope that students are able to correct themselves once it has been indicated that something is wrong. However, where students do not know or understand what the problem is (and so cannot be expressed to resolve it).

Similarly, Harmer (2001, p. 146) has presented the following activities for feedback during fluency works:

- i. **Gentle correction:** This can be offered in a number of ways. Teacher might simply reformulate what the student has said in the expectation that they will pick up this reformulation. In this technique, teacher should be more gentle.
- ii. **Recording mistakes:** In this technique, teacher acts as observer, watching and listening to the students so that he can give feedback afterwards. Such observation allows him/her to give feedback to students.
- iii. **After the event:** After recording the students' performance, teacher will want to give feedback to them.

1.1.13 Feedback on Content and Form

Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. Feedback can either be positive or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate in language classrooms. Feedback on a student's spoken language may be a response either to the content of what a student has produced or to the form of an utterance. Richards et al. (1996, pp.188-192) provide a variety of strategies in giving feedback on content and feedback on form. The strategies which come under feedback on content aspect of language are as follows:

- i. Acknowledging a correct answer: The teacher acknowledges that a student's answer is correct by saying for example, "Good", "Yes", "that's right" or "fine".
- ii. Indicating an incorrect answer: The teacher indicates that a student's answer is incorrect by saying, For example, "No that's not quite right" or Mmm.
- iii. Praising: The teacher compliments a student for an answer, for example, by saying, "Yes, an excellent answer".
- iv. Expanding or modifying a student's answer: The teacher responds to argue or incomplete answer by providing more information, or rephrasing the answer in the teacher's own words. Richards et al. (1996, p.189) provide example as follows:

T: Does anyone know the capital of the United States?
S: Washington.
T: Yes, Washington, D.C. that's located on the east coast.
- v. Repeating: In this technique, the teacher repeats the student's answer.
- vi. Summarizing: The teacher gives a summary of what a student or group of students has said.

- vii. Criticizing: The teacher criticizes a student for the kind of response provided.

Similarly, learners' errors which occur on form should also be corrected. For this purpose Harmer (1991) on Omaggio (1986, as cited in Richards et al., 1996, p. 190) suggest the different ways of providing feedback on the form as follows:

-) Asking the students to repeat what he or she said.
-) Pointing out the error and asking the student to self-correct.
-) Commenting on an error and explaining why it is wrong, without having the students repeat the correct form.
-) Asking another student to correct the error.
-) Using a gesture to indicate that an error has been made.

From above discussion we can say that feedback provided by the teachers to their students should focus equally on content and form of the language.

1.1.14 Feedback Timing

According to Ur (1995), feedback is given to the learners through correction and assessment during oral or on written work. Teachers should take care of time while giving feedback, whether correction facilitates the language learning or disturbs it. There should be considerable time to give the students feedback.

On the basis of feedback timing, Roger (2006) says that, there is immediate and delayed feedback. In a typical classroom setting immediate feedback is more effective. For example, in accuracy work, the learners remember what should be there instead whereas if the learner is given feedback after the event then there is more chance to forget what the learners have said. Drapher (2010) has mentioned feedback timing depends on the type of feedback, type of

knowledge, type of error and present learners' skill level. For example, delayed feedback is more effective under the condition of procedural knowledge, elaborative feedback, non-critical effort and learners' low skill level.

1.1.15 Principles of Good Feedback Practices

Feedback activities include tasks which have no specific language learning goal but are intended to improve the motivational climate of the classroom and to develop the students' interest, confidence and positive attitudes towards learning. Richards et al. (1996) say in a foreign language class, students may keep a journal in which they write about their feelings, fears, and satisfactions in relation to the experiences they have in the class. They may share these both with their classmates and the teacher, and attempt to resolve concerns as they arise. Nicol and Macfarlane (2006) present a framework of seven principles of good feedback practices which extend beyond written comments, to support each of the principle. Their work is built on the idea that feedback should strengthen the students' capacity to self-regulate their own performance and contribute to the students' ability to learn for the longer term. According to Nicol and Macfarlane (2006, pp.207-214), following principles are basis for good practice of giving feedback:

- i. Helps to clarify the good performance of the students.
- ii. Facilitates the development of self-assessment. Self and peer assessment processes help develop the skills to make judgements against standards.
- iii. Delivers high quality information to students about their learning.
 -) Encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning; Understanding and correct misunderstandings and to get an immediate response to difficulties. Nicol and MacFarlane (2006) argue that peer dialogue is more important due to the following points. Peer dialogues enhances: Students who have just learned something are often able to explain it in a language and in a way that is more accessible that teachers explanations.

-) It exposes students to other perspectives on problems and alternative approaches and methods for addressing problems.
 -) Students develop detachment of judgement (of the work from themselves) which they are able to transfer to assessment of their own work.
 -) It can encourage students to persist and it is sometimes easier to accept critique from peers.
- iv. Encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem.
- v. Provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance.
- vi. Provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape teaching. Frequent low stakes assessment (e.g. diagnostic testing) can provide feedback to students on their learning and information to the teachers about students level of understanding and skills, so that teaching can be adjusted to help students close the gap.

1.2 Review of Related Literature

The researches related to feedback have been reviewed below:

Al-Fadhi (2006) carried out a research on "Teachers' Use of Oral Feedback" to find out the types of oral feedback used by them. The data were collected in boys' school with about thousand learners. Similarly, data were collected through audio recordings and observations. From this research, it was found that strategic feedback was not used very often by the teachers. Such feedback helps learners to develop skills which allow them to avoid errors in future by monitoring and checking their own performance. Likewise, teachers did seem to be aware of the need to avoid discouraging learners by being too negative in their responses.

Bhandari (2007) has carried out a research on "Role of Feedback in Teaching the English Language" in order to find out the role of feedback in teaching

English at grade ninth. Major objectives of her research were: to explore the ways of giving feedback in teaching English at secondary level by the English teachers, and to find out the students' perception on the role of feedback in learning the English language. Similarly, she employed simple random sampling as a sampling procedure selecting ten schools from the different parts of Morang district. From each school one secondary teacher and ten students from the grade ninth were selected. Meanwhile, semi-structured interview and non-participant observation were the major tools of data collection. From this research, it has been found that the ninth grade English teachers take feedback as a means of motivating and encouraging the students mostly they give positive feedback to the students and sometimes depending upon the circumstances they cannot discard the role of negative feedback. The ninth grade students take any kinds of feedback positively and a way to obtain success in learning the English language.

Mackey et al. (2007) conducted research on "Teachers' Intention and Learners' Perception about the Corrective Feedback in the L₂ Classroom". In this study, it was found that learners' perception and teachers intention about the linguistic target of the corrective feedback overlapped the most when the feedback concerned lexis and was provided explicitly. Also, the linguistic target of the feedback were perceived more accurately when feedback was directed at the learners themselves rather than at their classmates.

Lamichhane (2009) conducted a research on "Teacher's Written Feedback on the Writings of Grade Nine Students" to find out the teachers' feedback-giving practice in the ninth grade students' writing and students' reactions towards the feedback they received. The researcher employed questionnaires and observation as a major tool for data collection. It is found that majority of the ninth grade teachers give positive feedback to the students and sometimes depending upon the circumstances they cannot discard the role of negative

feedback. Similarly, 100% of the teachers give feedback to help students and most of the students of grade nine expect positive feedback from the teachers.

Phucqh (2010) conducted a research on "Oral Immediate Feedback" to find out teachers' immediate oral feedback in speaking lessons for 11th grade students in Vietnam. The major objectives of this research were to obtain a sharp insight into an issue of multi-facts and complexities, namely teachers' and immediate feedback in speaking lessons from the view points of both teachers and students. Similarly, the researcher employed survey questionnaire, semi-structured interview and classroom observation as the major tool of data collection. From the study it was found that the majority of the target teachers and students show positive perceptions of teachers' immediate oral feedback provision in speaking lessons. Meanwhile, in terms of the tenets of teachers' on the spot corrective feedback, feedback on form especially on grammatical mistakes is more frequent use than feedback on meaning. Positive feedback on students' effort seems to be preferred to that on students' ability. Finally, regarding different types of corrective feedback, immediate corrective and positive feedback used though teachers and students had different preferences for the types of corrective feedback.

Although a number of researches have been carried out in teaching English at secondary level in Nepal, none of the researches has been carried out on the exploring teachers' use of oral feedback at primary level.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

- i. to find out the types of teachers' use of oral feedback on students' oral work at primary level.
- ii. to suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Feedback is one of the key factors that influences in teaching and learning the English language. The properly given and perceived feedback assists language learning. By receiving feedback, students get motivated and teachers can teach effectively. English language teachers should also use feedback as a tool in teaching and learning activities and try to understand what students are expecting from the teacher.

The findings of this study will be fruitful to subject experts, curriculum designers, textbook writers, language teachers and to all who are keenly interested in second language teaching and learning. More specifically, the study will be significant to those teachers and students who are directly or indirectly involved in teaching and learning of English as a foreign language.

CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology adopted during the study. The study was conducted as follows:

2.1 Sources of Data

I used both primary and secondary sources of data in this study. The primary source was used for collecting data and the secondary source was employed to facilitate those data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The teachers who were teaching English at primary level were the primary sources of data. The data from primary sources were collected from the selected schools through non-participant observation.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

Secondary sources of data were books, previous theses, journals, articles, and different websites related to the present research to facilitate the research work. Some of them were Ellis (1985), Brown (1987), Tsui (1996), Ur (1996), Littlewood (1998), and Harmer (2001).

2.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure

The total sample of the study were ten teachers of ten different schools who were teaching English at primary level of Dailekh district. I applied judgemental sampling procedure to select the schools. I adopted the simple random sampling procedure for the selection of the teachers. Among them, five

were public (government-aided) and other five were private school teachers. One teacher from each school was selected to observe their classes.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

Observation checklist was the major tool for data collection. To supplement collected data through observation, field notes were also taken during the observation. For the observation, I prepared an observation checklist which included nine items: classroom situation, teacher's activities, types of feedback used by the teachers, words and phrases used by the teachers while giving feedback, students' activities, teachers' response to the mistakes and directing feedback. I observed four classes of each teacher. Altogether forty classes were observed.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

I adopted the following processes to undertake the study:

- i. At first, I went to the concerned schools and talked to the authority (Head Teacher) to get permission to carry out the research and explained its process and purposes.
- ii. I consulted the teachers of primary level who were teaching English and explained the purpose of my study.
- iii. After getting permission from the teachers, I observed each teachers' classes 4 times using observation checklist. Altogether 40 classes were observed regularly.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations:

- i. The study was limited only to the teachers' use of oral feedback on students' speech at primary level.

- ii. The study was limited to only 10 schools of Dailekh district.
- iii. Only primary level English teachers were included as sample of this study.
- iv. The study only examined/observed oral feedback used by the teachers in teaching in the classroom.

CHAPTER-THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data from primary source. In this study, collected data were converted into percentage and analysed and interpreted descriptively as presented below:

3.1 Holistic Analysis of Data

The following table provides a holistic picture of data.

Table No. 2
Holistic Data

Item/Scale	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor
1. Classroom situation	-	20%	50%	20%	10%
2. Teacher's personality	-	50%	40%	10%	-
3. Teacher's activity	Frequently		Sometimes		Seldom
a. Oral practice	20%		70%		10%
b. Drilling	10%		30%		60%
c. Question	40%		50%		10%
d. Answer to the students orally	50%		40%		10%
4. Giving feedback					
a. Answer the students politely	70%		20%		10%
b. Answer the students aggressively	-		40%		60%
5. Types of oral feedback used by the teacher					
a. Positive	70%		30%		-
b. Negative	-		30%		70%
c. Evaluative	70%		30%		-
d. Corrective	30%		70%		-
e. Strategic	-		10%		90%

6. Words and phrases used by the teachers			
a. Thank you/very good/yes, yes/ok	70%	20%	10%
b. No			
c. Excellent	10%	20%	70%
	-	-	-
7. Teacher's response to the mistakes			
a. Indicates there is mistake but does not provide further information.	50%	20%	30%
b. Say what was wrong and provides a model of acceptable version.	10%	50%	40%
c. Provides an explanation of why the mistake was made and how to avoid it.	10%	-	90%
8. Directing feedback			
a. Group	40%	50%	10%
b. Individual	60%	10%	30%
9. Student's activities			
a. Listen attentively	60%	30%	10%
b. Ask questions relatively	-	20%	80%
c. Answer questions relatively	70%	-	30%
d. Follow the directions	80%	20%	-

The table shows that none of the classroom situation was found excellent. It was also found that 50% of the teachers' personalities were found very good. Among various activities 70% of the teachers did oral practice to provide feedback. Likewise, 70% of the teachers answered the students' queries politely while 30% of them responded aggressively. Among the types of feedback, positive and evaluative feedback were used by the teachers more frequently (i.e. 70%). Ninety per cent of them used 'thank you', 'very good', 'thank you very good', 'nice', 'yes, yes' while providing evaluative feedback. Majority of them (50%) indicated students' mistakes. The table also shows that 90% of the teachers did not provide an explanation of why mistakes were made and how to

avoid it. Furthermore, it shows that 50% of the teachers directed feedback in group sometimes and 40% of them directed feedback to group frequently. Finally, in item no. 9 it was found that 80% of the students did not ask questions in the classroom but they answered teacher's question frequently.

3.2 Item-wise Analysis

Item-wise analysis of the collected data has been presented below:

Table No. 3

Classroom Situation and Personality

Item/Scale	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Classroom Situation	-	20%	50%	20%	10%
Teacher's Personality	-	-	50%	40%	10%

The classroom situation was found to be good. Classroom situation incorporated classroom discipline and furniture arrangement. Out of forty classes observed 50% were found good, 20% very good, 20% fair, 10% poor and none of the classroom situation was found excellent. Similarly, item no. 2 consists of different aspects of the teacher such as personality, attitude to the students, self confidence, pleasing and classroom language. Regarding these aspects, it was found that in 50% classes, teachers were found good, in 40% classes they were fair and in 10% they were poor.

3.2.1 Teacher's Activity

The third item includes teacher's activity such as oral practice, drilling, question and answers to the students orally.

Table No. 4
Teacher's Activity

Teacher's activity	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Oral practice	20%	70%	10%
Drilling	10%	30%	60%
Question	40%	50%	10%
Answers to the students orally	50%	40%	10%

The table shows that in 70% classes the teachers did oral practice sometimes, in 20% classes they frequently did and in 10% they did not do oral practice at all. Similarly, in 60%, 30% and 10% classes the teachers did not perform drilling, used drilling sometimes and used it respectively. Likewise, the data shows that in 50% classes the teachers asked questions to the students sometimes. Teachers asked questions to the students frequently in 40% classes. Regarding the response of the teacher to the students, the table shows that in 50%, 40% and 10% classes, teachers responded to the students frequently, sometimes and did not respond to all respectively.

3.2.2 Giving Feedback

The fourth item includes how teachers answer students' questions. The following table shows the data:

Table No. 5
Giving Feedback

Giving feedback	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Answer the students politely	70%	20%	10%
Answer the students aggressively	-	40%	60%

We see that in 70% classes the teachers frequently answered the students politely and in 20% classes they answered students politely only sometimes and in 10% they did not answer politely. Similarly, in 60% classes the teachers

did not answer the students aggressively and in 40% classes they answered the students aggressively only sometimes.

3.2.3 Types of Oral Feedback

Likewise, the fifth item is about the types of feedback.

Table No. 6
Types of Oral Feedback

Types of oral Feedback	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Positive	70%	30%	-
Negative	-	30%	70%
Evaluative	70%	30%	-
Corrective	30%	70%	-
Strategic	-	10%	90%

The above table shows that teachers used positive feedback frequently in 70% classes and sometimes in 30% classes. Likewise, in 70% classes the teachers did not use negative feedback at all but in 30% classes they used sometimes. Similarly, the teachers used evaluative feedback frequently and sometimes in 70% and 30% of observed classes respectively. In 70% classes the teachers used corrective feedback only sometimes and in 30% classes they used it frequently. Finally, 90% teachers did not use strategic feedback i.e. only 10% teachers sometimes used such feedback.

3.2.4 Words and Phrases

The item no. 6 is related to the words and phrases used by the teachers while providing oral feedback. About 90% teachers used evaluative feedback during their lesson/teaching. A range of expressions was used by the teachers to give evaluative feedback to the students. For example, **Teacher 1** regularly said, "thank you very good", "good", "yes, yes", "thank you sit down" whereas after

correct answer **Teacher 2** said, "yes, good", thank you (name)", "very nice" and "very good". They also said 'no' when incorrect answers were provided, as in this example from **Teacher 1**.

T: What time it is now?

S: It is sik/sik/ O, clock.

T: No, it is six O, clock. Say again.

S: It is six O, clock.

T: Thank you, sit down.

Similarly, the teachers used "No", "Not good", "Bad answer", "Wrong answer", and "Not right" to give negative feedback to their students. But this type of oral feedback was used by only 10% of the teachers. For example, from **Teacher 3**

T: who changed the whole body?

S: changed the whole body.

T: Wrong answer.

In brief, most of the teachers used common words and phrases as mentioned above while giving different types of oral feedback. In general, evaluative feedback was the most commonly used type of feedback.

3.2.5 Teacher's Responses to the Mistakes

The item seven is concerned with the responses of the teachers to the students' mistakes. It includes other three sub-items.

Table No. 7

Teacher's Responses to the Mistakes

Teacher's responses to the mistakes	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Indicates there is mistake but does not provide further information	50%	20%	30%
Says what was wrong and provides a model of acceptable version	10%	50%	40%
Provides an explanation of why the mistake was made and how to avoid it	10%	-	90%

The table shows that in 50% classes, the teachers frequently indicated students' mistakes and did not provide further information. In 30% classes they did not indicate mistakes and provide further information and in 20% classes they sometimes indicated students' mistakes. Likewise, in 50% classes the teachers sometimes told about students' mistakes and provided acceptable versions and in 10% classes they told about students' mistakes and provided models of acceptable versions. In 90% classes the teachers did not provide an explanation of mistakes that is only in 10% classes teachers frequently provided an explanation.

Table No. 8

Directing Feedback

Directing feedback	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Group	40%	50%	10%
Individual	60%	10%	30%

As above table shows that in 50%, 40% and 10% of the observed classes the teachers provided feedback in group sometimes, frequently and never respectively. Similarly, the data shows that in 60%, 30% and 10% of the observed classes, the teachers provided or directed feedback to individual frequently, never, and sometimes respectively.

3.2.6 Students' Activity

The last item is about students' activity during the feedback. It incorporates different sub-items such as listen attentively, ask questions relatively and follow directions.

Table No. 9
Students' Activity

Students' Activity	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom
Listen Attentively	60%	30%	10%
Ask question relatively	-	20%	80%
Answer question relatively	70%	-	30%
Follow, the direction	80%	20%	-

The above table shows that the students listened to the teachers frequently in 60% of classes observed whereas only in 30% of observed classes students listened to the teachers sometimes during the class. Likewise, I found that in 80% of the classes students did not ask questions to the teacher whereas they did so sometimes in 20% of classes. Similarly, the table also shows that the students answered teachers' questions frequently in 70% classes and in 30% classes they did not answer those questions. Finally, we see that in 80% classes the students frequently followed teacher's direction in teaching and learning activities and in 20% classes they did it sometimes only.

CHAPTER - FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section deals with findings and major recommendations of the study.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of analysis and interpretation of data the following findings have been drawn:

- i. All the teachers were found giving oral feedback to the students more frequently.
- ii. Regarding the types of feedback, 70 per cent of the primary level English teachers frequently used evaluative feedback in the classroom activities.
- iii. Majority of teachers were 70 per cent found careful while providing feedback so they less frequently used the negative feedback.
- iv. Sixty per cent of the teachers preferred to use (not + correct version) while providing corrective feedback to the students.
- v. Ninety per cent of the teachers answered the students' queries politely and reacted students' mistakes verbally. While doing so most of the teachers (90 per cent) did not provide explanation and acceptable version of the mistakes.
- vi. Strategic feedback was not used very often by teachers. Only 10 per cent of them used it. This study suggests that learners are not being encouraged to develop these skills; rather, they are dependent on the teacher for feedback about the quality of their work.
- vii. Eighty per cent of the teachers used "thank you, very good", "Good", "thank you, sit down ", "Yes, good", "very good", etc to provide evaluative and positive feedback to the students in the classroom activities.

- viii. Thirty per cent of the teachers used negative feedback using "no", "not", "bad answer", "wrong answer", and "not good".
- ix. Fifty per cent of the teachers directed feedback to group rather than to individuals.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Teachers should provide their students an opportunity to revise their task at least two times so that they can improve themselves.
- ii. It is better to provide oral feedback by using varieties of words and phrases.
- iii. While giving oral feedback to the students teachers should use all types of feedback except negative one. Such feedback may not encourage students to do more.
- iv. Teachers should use polite language while giving feedback to their students in the classrooms.
- v. It would be better to use strategic feedback. Such a feedback helps learner to develop skills which allow them to avoid errors in future by monitoring and checking their own performance.
- vi. While giving evaluative feedback teachers should start with positive words like, 'very good', 'good', 'nice', 'excellent', etc and so on.
- vii. It would be better to encourage students orally to improve their oral skill.

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APPENDIX I

Observation checklist

This observation checklist has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work entitled "The Teachers' use of oral feedback at primary level of the English Language." This research is carried out under the guidance of Asst. Lecturer, **Mr. Prem Bahadur Phyak**, Department of English Education, Faculty of Education English, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your kind co-operation will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher

Chakra Bahadur Karki

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T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu

APPENDIX II

Classroom Observation Checklist

Name of the Teacher:

Period:

Name of the School:

No. of Students:

Teaching Class:

Teaching Item:

Date:

S.N.	Observed Items	Excellent	V. Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Remarks
1.	Classroom situation						
	a. Discipline						
	b. Furniture arrangement						
2.	Teacher						
	a. Personality						
	b. Attitude to the student						
	c. Self confidence						
	d. Pleasing						
	e. Classroom language						
3.	Teacher's activity	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Remarks		
	a. Oral practice						
	b. Drilling						
	c. Question						
	d. Answer to the students orally						
4.	Giving Feedback						
	a. Answer the students politely						
	b. Answer the students aggressively						
5.	Types of oral feedback used by the teacher						
	a. Positive						
	b. Negative						
	c. Evaluative						
	d. Corrective						
	e. Strategic						

6.	Words and phrases used by the teachers while giving feedback orally				Remarks
	a. Corrective				
	b. Evaluative				
	c. Strategic				
	d. Positive				
	e. Negative				
7.	Teacher's response to the mistakes	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Remarks
	a. Does not react at all				
	b. Indicates there is mistake but does not provide further information.				
	c. Say what was wrong and provides a model of acceptable version				
	d. provides an explanation of why the mistake was made and how to avoid it.				
8.	Directing feedback				
	a. Group				
	b. Individual				
9.	Students' activities				
	a. Listen attentively				
	b. Ask questions relatively				
	c. Answer questions relatively				
	d. follow the directions				

APPENDIX - III

The following 5 public and 5 private schools of Dailekh district were selected by the researcher to collect the primary data for the research study. They were as follows:

Public Schools

1. Shree Janakalyan Lower Secondary School, Dullu- 6, Dailekh.
2. Hanuman Primary School, Paduka- 5, Dailekh.
3. Shree Shanti Sirjana Lower Secondary School, Dull- 7, Dailekh.
4. Shree Nareshwor Primary School, Nepa- 9, Dailekh.
5. Shree Panchadeval Primary School, Paduka- 8, Dailekh.

Private Schools

1. Chautara English Boarding School, Dullu- 6, Dailekh.
2. Jwala Siddasthali English Medium School, Dullu- 8, Dailekh.
3. Baleshwar English Medium Boarding School, Paduka- 5, Dailekh.
4. Karnali Bright English Medium School, Nepa-5, Dailekh.
5. Suryadaya Academy, Naule- 2, Dailekh.

APPENDIX- IV

Name list of the teachers

1. Chandra Dahal
2. Bimala Rijal
3. Lokendra Bahadur B.C.
4. Bhakta Bahadur Sarki
5. Dinesh Dahal
6. Pashupati B.K
7. Dipa Karki
8. Harka Bahadur Thapa
9. Ratna Prasad Regmi
10. Neelam Shah