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ТАЛАБАЛАРНИНГ ЁЗМА ИШЛАРИГА БИЛДИРИЛГАН ФИКР-МУЛОҲАЗАЛАРНИНГ АҲАМИЯТИ

ВАЖНОСТЬ ОЦЕНОК И МНЕНИЙ О ПИСЬМЕННЫХ РАБОТАХ СТУДЕНТОВ

SIGNIFICANCE OF FEEDBACK ON WRITING PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS

У.Хайдарова

Аннотация

Мақолада талабаларнинг ёзма ишларига баҳо бериш орқали чет тилларни ўрганишга бўлган иштиёқини ривожлантириш масалалари ёритилган. Унинг асосий мақсади энг муносиб ва самарали йўللارни топишдан иборат. Мақолада таълим мотивациясини шакллантириш ва ривожлантириш муаммолари бўйича тадқиқотларнинг таҳлилий шарҳлари келтирилган бўлиб, унинг чет тилини ўрганиш учун хос бўлган турлари ёритилган. Мақолада чет тилларни ўқитишда улардан самарали фойдаланиш бўйича мисоллар келтирилган.

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются вопросы развития мотивации студентов к изучению иностранных языков. Его основная цель - найти наиболее подходящие и эффективные пути выхода. В статье представлен аналитический обзор исследований по проблемам формирования и развития учебной мотивации, описаны ее виды и выделены разновидности, характерные для изучения иностранного языка. В статье приводятся примеры их эффективного использования при обучении иностранным языкам.

Annotation

The article deals with the questions how to develop students' motivation to learn foreign languages via giving feedback to writing of the students. Its main purpose is to find the most appropriate and effective ways out. The paper presents the analytical review of research on the problems concerning building and development of educational motivation, describes its types and highlights varieties that are specific to foreign language learning. The paper offers examples how to use feedback effectively while teaching foreign languages.

Таянч сўз ва иборалар: ёзув малакалари, режалаштириш, мазмун тузулиши, тузиш, таҳрир қилиш, ижодий хат, ижтимоий мазмундаги хат.

Ключевые слова и выражения: навыки письма, планирование, структура контента, составление, редактирование, творческое письмо, социальное письмо.

Keywords and expressions: writing skills, planning, content structure, drafting, editing, creative writing, social writing.

First of all, it should be noted that the concept of feedback is widely used in the methodology of teaching IA, but its interpretation in the scientific, methodological and reference-encyclopedic literature is very ambiguous.

Thus, in the General lexical English-Russian dictionaries feedback is translated as feedback; however, in the field of education it is interpreted much wider [1]. In the English-Russian educational and pedagogical dictionary, this term is presented as information provided to the student about the successes or failures of his educational activities. In methodical dictionaries of language teaching it is noted that feedback is, firstly, a control aimed at providing information about the level of training of the student, and secondly,

information about the results of his (the student's) speech and non-speech actions, allowing him to regulate his own speech and non-speech behavior.

Foreign methodologists interpret feedback as information that is provided to the student in relation to the results of the educational task performed by him. According to the norms of foreign methods of teaching foreign languages, feedback

performs two functions: evaluation (approval, disapproval of the answer, marks, scores, etc.), as well as correction of identified errors (discussion of the work performed, explanation of points that caused difficulties, allocation of correctly performed tasks, recommendations for improvement/correction of work, etc.)

Feedback can be nonverbal and can be manifested in the facial expressions and gestures of the

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teacher, expressing his approval or disagreement with the educational actions of the student. Generally, nonverbal feedback is effective for developing communicative motivation.

Of particular importance for the development of subject motivation are verbal feedback forms presented in the target language in accordance with the language level of the student. Verbal forms are divided into oral and written. The oral forms include:

- implicit feedback (indirect, expressed indirectly).

Example: - Learner: Yesterday, I went shopping.

- Teacher: Oh, you went shopping yesterday;

- explicit feedback (explicit, clear, unambiguous).

Example: - Learner: Yesterday, I went shopping.

- Teacher: You want to say "I went shopping", not "I goed 'shopping";

- metalinguistic feedback (detailed analysis of errors based on grammatical and lexical analysis).

Example: - Learner: Yesterday, I went shopping.

- Teacher: "Go "is an irregular past tense verb, so the past tense of" go "is" gone "and not"gone".

Implicit and explicit feedback are considered to be effective for the development of communicative subject motivation. Metalinguistic feedback, despite its use for the development of all kinds of subject motivation, is considered to be the least effective.

Written feedback usually consists of summarizing the goals of the learning task, description of the challenges the student has faced during its implementation, the teacher's mark correctly completed assignments and highlights the mistakes[2]. Methodists advised not to point out all the mistakes in order not to reduce level of learning motivation and to mention only those that are directly related to the purposes of this tutorial). At the end, as a rule, an individual recommendation is given to the student, aimed at correcting certain defects/errors in the work, as well as the development of appropriate skills. The advantages of written feedback for the development of subject motivation are to provide the student with the opportunity to track

their own progress in the study of IA, to receive more detailed feedback from the teacher in relation to specific types of training activities, recommendations for their improvement. An extremely important role is played by the fact that this kind of feedback is purely personal and is not voiced in the presence of other students.

The writing process is made up of several stages, each of these have to be taken into consideration by the teacher when planning the writing activity.

* **Planning:** Good writers plan what they are going to write. Before starting to write or type, they try and decide what they are going to say. For some writers this may involve making detailed notes. For others a few jotted words may be enough. Still others may not actually write down any preliminary notes at all since they may do all their planning in their heads. When planning, writers have to think about three main issues. In the first place they have to consider the purpose of their writing since this will influence not only the type of the text they wish to produce, but also the language they use, and the information they choose to include. Secondly, experienced writers think of the **audience** they are writing for, since this will influence not only the shape of the piece of writing (how it is laid out, how the paragraphs are structured), but also the choice of language- whether for example, it is formal or informal in tone. Thirdly, writers have to consider **the content structure** of the piece- that is, how best to sequence the facts, ideas, or arguments which they have decided to include. (Harmer 2004:04)

In other words, good writers concentrate on the meaning and organization of a text, and engage in the planning activities[3]. This will involve thinking about the purpose of the writing for example, a letter of complaint about a poor service, or a letter to inform friends about a daughter's wedding. The particular purpose implies an organization for the writing and the appropriate language for the readers. The complaint letter would follow formal conventions. The letter to friends would be informal, expressive, probably colloquial and a mixture of description and comment. Successful writers must be aware of their readers and seek to produce "**reader-based**" prose. In other words, they think about what the reader needs to know, how to make information clear and accessible, and what the appropriate

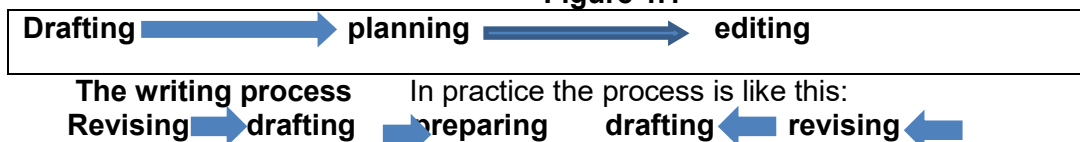
style is (formal, friendly, or persuasive). Most writing undertaken in the real world has a particular readership in view: a friend, a tutor or an official of some kind. It is the knowledge of that readership which provides a context for writing and which influences the selection of contents and style. Good writers are sensitive to the audience of their writing. However, it will also differ according to the preferred style of the individual writer, and considerable variation has been observed here. Some learners who appear to take very little time for thinking before starting to write, nevertheless, produce effective writing. They may, instead, pause frequently to reflect during writing. This means that they stop to think and plan again while writing. Flowers and Hayes (1981) (cited in **Hedge** 2000:305) contributed to our understanding of planning when they suggested that it goes on at many levels and throughout the process of composing. One level is that of the sentences, as writers turn the overall plan into text and draft out their ideas in English. This is often what they are doing during “the pregnant pauses” in composing. Any initial planning before writing is therefore subject to review at any point as the writer critically evaluates the emerging text and thinks of new ideas and new ways to organize and express them. **Allwright** (1981:41) points to this tendency when he says: “in writing one so

frequently arrives at a destination not originally envisaged, by a route not yet planned for in the original itinerary”.

Drafting. We can refer to the first version of a piece of writing as a *draft*. This first “go” at a text is often done on the assumption that it will be amended later. As the writing process proceeds into editing, a number of drafts may be produced on the way to the final version. (Harmer 2004:05)

Editing. Once writers have produced a draft they then, usually, read through what they have written to see where it works and where it does not [4]. Perhaps the order of the information is not clear. Perhaps the way something is written is ambiguous or confusing. They may then move paragraphs around or write a new introduction. They may use different forms of words for a particular sentence. In this way, addition, deletions, and rearrangements can be made in order to improve the piece of writing. It is noteworthy that all of these questions are to do with meaning and organization. Studies by **Perl** (1979) and **Sommers** (1980) showed that less experienced writers were constantly concerned with grammar and correctness and this distracted them from thinking about the clarity of the ideas and the organization (**Leki** 2000:306) [5].

Figure 1.1



Types of writing. There is a set of types of writing among which we can cite: personal writing, public writing, creative writing, social writing, study writing, institutional writing demonstrated in the following table.

Personal writing	Public writing	Creative writing
-diaries -journals -shopping lists -reminders for oneself -packing lists -addresses recipes	-Letters for -enquiry Complaints-request -form filling -application (for membership)	-Poems -Stories -Rhymes -Drama -Songs -autobiographies
Social writing	Study writing	Institutional writing
-Letters -Invitations -Notes of: -Condolence	-Making notes while reading -Taking notes from lectures -Making a card index Summaries	-Agendas posters -Curriculum vitae -speeches -instructions applications

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thanks -Congratulations -Telephone -messages -Instructions to friends -family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reviews Reports of: experiments Workshops -Visits -Essays -bibliographies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Minutes -Memoranda -Reports -Reviews -Contracts -Business letters -Public notices -Advertisements -Specifications -Note making (doctors and other professionals)
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(Reviewer: T.Egamberdieva - doctor of pedagogical sciences, professor)