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The Effect of Content Revision Logs and
Student-Teacher Conferences
on ESL Student Writing

Urim Yi

A master’s thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

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ABSTRACT

The Effect of Content Revision Logs and Student-Teacher Conferences on ESL Student Writing

Urim Yi
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Research has demonstrated the need for both teachers and students to find appropriate types of feedback for meaning-level (content) issues for English as a second language (ESL) writing (Kepner, 1991). The current study examines the use of a content revision log (where students monitor their revisions in such content issues as organization, paragraph development and use of topic sentences). Adding to the effect of applying the content revision log, the effect of holding conferences was also examined in the hope that referencing the content revision log during a conference session would bring the most positive results. There were three types of treatment, and the subjects included 3 teachers and 79 students. All of the student subjects’ pre- and post- tests, the recorded numbers of content-based needed revisions on the content revision log, and both students and teachers’ answers on an attitudes assessment survey were examined.

The study found a significant effect on overall writing improvement for the combination of the content revision log and conference feedback compared to the use of the content revision log itself which in turn was better than the results found for the control group. The log + conference group demonstrated the greatest improvement for both types of data: the degree of progress between the pre- and post- tests and the decreasing rates of revision marks on the content revision log. In addition, the log + conferences group had greater numbers of more treatable content issue categories, followed by the log group, lastly the control group. Finally, the results of surveys reflect most students and teachers’ preference toward the use of the log or conferences.

Keywords: logs, conferences, ESL writing, teacher feedback
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Chapter 1
Introduction

An ESL teacher starts reading her student’s draft with an initial intention of focusing on the student’s message and attending to only significant errors; but she says, “I end up plowing through each paper, systematically circling, crossing out, putting brackets around, and/or revising every usage error I find” (Butturff & Sommers, 1980). After she finishes reading it, the paper has countless red markings on form (grammatical and orthographical issues) but only a few suggestions on content (content refers to message of the text). As the student receives the draft back, he systematically and quickly fixes the errors on form. He finds some comments he does not understand and thinks maybe his teacher did not understand what he intended to say. However, asking the teacher to clarify the comment on content and explaining his intention seem too bothersome, so he decides to follow the teacher’s comments although it changes his primary message.

As adult ESL learners reach a certain proficiency level, they desire to appropriately express their opinions in more advanced topics. Writing on academic issues can be done successfully if the teacher and student use effective strategies; the teacher should instruct and provide feedback effectively by focusing on content, and the student should be engaged in cognitively developing ideas and following the teacher’s feedback after negotiation (Beach, 1979). However, often teachers and students fail to focus on developing content and end up correcting only form. Focusing only on formal issues, however, is detrimental to the development of the student as a writer and as a second language (L2) user. Focusing on content issues is important for at least two reasons. First, students can develop metacognitive awareness of their writing when they evaluate
content aspects of their writing and can monitor their own academic processes, (Commander & Smith, 1996). Second, students can discover why their writing matters and be motivated to write knowing the purpose and value of making meaning (Knolauch & Brannon, 1983). Therefore, there is a great need for having better methods to provide and use feedback focused on content that helps students’ metacognitive awareness. Moreover, improving content features also seems to improve form features of writing (Kepner, 1991).

**Rationale for the Study**

As discussed above, previous research has demonstrated the significant need of providing content feedback, since it affects both ideational quality and form features of accuracy (Kepner, 1991). However, many teachers struggle with how to provide feedback focused on content, and inexperienced writers often focus on the form features rather than substantive areas (Sugita, 2006; Ashwell, 2000; Zamel, 1985; Cumming, 1983; Sommers, 1982; Butturff & Sommers, 1980; Beach, 1979; Emig, 1971; Squire & Applebee, 1968). Therefore, finding appropriate strategies for providing content feedback can be difficult.

Many previous studies indicate the effectiveness of using logs and writing conferences for helping students focus on and improve form features (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999; Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisenand, 1993; Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985). These studies emphasize the benefit of these methods for developing cognitive monitoring and self-awareness (Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisenand, 1993). In addition, applying logs is not only effective for students but also for teachers to use as guides to focus on providing content
feedback. Researchers have also argued that providing conferences provides opportunities for students to interact with their teachers, gives opportunities to negotiate and discuss, and produces more successful revision (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988). However, although they emphasize the effectiveness of logs, only grammatical and orthographical issues are typically addressed in using logs, not content issues. Therefore, there is a great need for conducting research that studies the effect of using logs and conferences focused on content-based feedback.

**Purpose of the Study**

The first purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of two methods of providing content feedback for ESL students. In particular, this study applied error logs (or what we have termed a content revision log, see Appendix A) and writing conferences to determine whether using content revision logs helped ESL students better improve their writing, and whether using them alone or with teacher-student conferences was most effective. The second aim of this study was to examine whether students were able to use the content revision logs to recognize where they needed to revise in content areas and eventually how to make those revisions. Third, this study examined whether some content issues were more treatable than others, suggested by students being able to improve in these categories more than others. The last question was to examine the teachers’ and students’ attitudes toward using logs for improving writing.

Previous research which has studied the effect of the combination of logs and conferences in reading comprehension suggests the positive results of applying both logs and conferences rather than applying just one or the other (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999). However, the combination of these two feedback components has not been
applied to writing feedback focused on content. Therefore, the results of this study will contribute to investigations of the best way to provide content feedback.

**Definition of Terms**

*Content.* “Content” is another term for content features or meaning-level issues that is the opposite of form features or surface-level issues. Instead of grammatical and orthographical issues, content refers to the message of the text. Some representative issues of content include development of thesis statements, topic sentences, organization of paragraphs, and supporting points or examples. For example, teachers can give comments on the thesis statement if it does not include the topics of the paper or the key words.

*Form.* Other terms for “form” features are local or surface-level issues. All of these refer to grammatical and orthographical features. For example, if there are errors in the use of the past tense, the teacher marks the grammatical mistake by providing form feedback.

*Content revision log.* The “Content revision log” is a kind of awareness sheet or a tally sheet where students list how many comments on a particular area of writing. Many researchers have used logs for form issues, but in a content revision log, the categories focus on content. Teachers provide feedback using the abbreviations of the log, and a student counts the number of teacher comments under each category and records them on the log. (See Appendix A for the complete version of the content revision log.)

*Conferences.* This term refers to an individual interview between a teacher and student that is held outside of class. The rationale of holding conferences is for providing
opportunities to interact, negotiate, and discuss the issues of students’ writing between a
teacher and student.

**Research Questions**

Previous research in the field of ESL writing demonstrates the significant need for
finding appropriate ways of providing feedback for content. Logs and conferences have
been widely used to develop form features, but the effects of those two components on
content have not been examined. Therefore, this current study attempted to examine the
effect of applying logs and conferences on students’ writing proficiency by answering the
following questions:

1. What type of feedback is most effective for content features of writing: the
   content revision log, the content revision log + conference, or the traditional
   method of providing content feedback?

   This question examined which of two different treatments (log or log + conference)
   was more likely to help learners improve their writing scores from pre-test to post-
   test. In this study hereafter, the traditional method of providing content feedback
   indicates providing oral and written feedback that focuses on both form and content
   features of writing followed by individual writing teachers’ commentary styles
   without using a certain guideline such as the content revision log.

2. Are those students who keep a content revision log better able than students who
   do not keep a content revision log to recognize and correct revisions in content
   and gradually reduce their number?

   This question examined whether students in the treatment groups decreased their
   overall number of revision comments more than those in a control group.
3. Are there more “treatable” and less “treatable” content categories?

This question determined whether some content issues were improved more by using the content revision log or conferences than were others.

4. Do students and teachers perceive the content revision log to be effective and helpful?

This question examined teacher and student attitudes toward using the content revision log and/or the log combined with conferences.

**Basic Assumptions**

Conducting this study required certain assumptions about the effect of the two feedback components (logs and conferences), subject testing, and analysis.

*Feedback methods*

1. Logs. By using logs, students themselves and teachers can evaluate their academic outcomes and the areas that students need to develop (Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisenand, 1993). Applying logs focusing on content areas may also bring help students improve in content areas and develop their overall writing proficiency.

2. Conferences. Throughout conferences, students can actively interact with their teachers, participate in revisions, and clarify their teachers’ responses (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985).

3. The combination of logs and conferences. Applying these two feedback components may bring the most significant results (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999).

*Subject Testing*

1. The results of the pre- and post- tests reflect the student subjects’ writing proficiency.
2. Changes in the number of teacher comments on content issues over drafts reflect the student subjects’ degree of progress.

3. Both teacher and student subjects understood the manner of using logs.

4. Both teacher and student subjects understood the survey questions used to collect data.

Analysis

1. The pre- and post- tests of the student subjects were accurately rated.

2. The tallied number of comments on the logs is accurately counted and analyzed.

3. The answers of both teacher and student subjects on the surveys were accurately analyzed.

Delimitation

Although in a classroom setting, it was arranged so that students received only a specific type of feedback, students may have received another type of feedback from friends or tutors. However, previous research has found that students prefer their teachers’ feedback and use that more often than other feedback types (Paulus, 1999). For that reason, other sources of feedback were disregarded.

Outline

This research will examine 1) the most effective type of feedback for content features of writing among the three types: the content revision log, the content revision log + conference, or the traditional method of providing content feedback, 2) the amount of teacher’s comments on content issues: if those students who used the content revision log reduced their number of needed revisions more than the students in the control group, 3) more and less treatable content categories, 4) the teachers and students’ attitudes toward the use of the log and writing conferences. In order to analyze these issues, a
review of literature in related studies will be given first. Then, the research design of this current study will be described. Next, a description of the results will be presented. Lastly, conclusions based on the results of this study will be given.
Chapter 2  
A Review of the Literature

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of providing feedback on content related aspects of writing such as organization, topic development, and more meaning-related features of writing. In order to justify the need for this study, a review of previous literature will be provided. This review of literature will examine 1) different perspectives on writing feedback, 2) the various methods for providing teacher feedback, 3) historical attitudes toward providing feedback on form and content 4) the need for providing feedback on content-related aspects of writing, and 5) an explanation for the need of content revision logs and oral conferences to improve content aspects of writing.

Perspectives on writing feedback

Truscott (1996) argued that grammar correction does not benefit students' proficiency under any circumstance. He supports his argument in two ways. First, he suggests that teachers and students waste their time and effort providing and receiving feedback, so giving error correction is harmful rather than effective. To support this point, he used a meta-analysis to present the ineffectiveness of error correction. He analyzed the studies of Kepner (1991), Semke (1984), and Sheppard (1992) and concluded that there was no empirical research that teacher written feedback is effective. Second, he argues that the only way to demonstrate the effectiveness of teacher written feedback is to conduct a long-term study where students are followed for several months or years. He claimed that if there is no longitudinal study, researchers cannot definitely argue whether error correction actually benefits students’ grammatical accuracy or not. Therefore, for these two reasons, he claimed that language teachers should abandon providing feedback on writing.
Ferris (1999), however, has claimed the argument of Truscott (1996) was premature and cited growing research evidence that many ESL students actually improved their grammatical accuracy through having effective feedback. She also argued that if providing feedback did not have any value, teachers and students would not continue providing and receiving feedback for the past several decades. Chandler (2003) reported that although Truscott argued that there was no empirical research, Truscott himself did not provide statistical evidence that could support his argument either.

While some researchers support Truscott’s arguments, most researchers and teachers alike agree that they should ask what kind of feedback types are effective for what kinds of errors instead of asking whether providing feedback is effective or ineffective. Ferris (1999) has claimed that particular types and forms of commentary appeared to be more helpful than others. There are many researchers besides Ferris who have argued the significant role of providing appropriate feedback on students’ writing. For example, Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, Wolfersberger (2010) argues it is more important to contextualize “research findings and pedagogical practice within the framework of learner, situational, and methodological variables” rather than debating the value of such feedback” (p. 459). Kroll (2001) reported that if a teacher acknowledges the time, the appropriate type of feedback, and what errors they should correct, providing feedback will benefit the students’ writing ability. Chandler (2003) also addressed a similar suggestion to Kroll’s. She stated although she did not agree with Truscott’s argument, it underscored the fact that ESL teachers should know whether, how, and when to give feedback to students’ grammatical and lexical errors.
Although Ferris did not agree with Truscott’s argument, she noted that Truscott (1996) highlighted the practical subject that teachers should consider how to improve ways of providing writing feedback. Zamel (1985) also emphasized that teachers should be careful with the way they provide feedback. She said many times teachers gave responses in vague and contradictory ways, so students had difficulty understanding them. Zamel (1985) stated, “We need to replace vague commentary and references to abstract rules and principles with text-specific strategies, directions, guidelines, and recommendations” (p. 95).

Zamel’s suggestion was supported by Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986), who hypothesized that “more salient error feedback treatments would have a significant effect on improving the student’s overall written quality” (p. 85). Their study investigated the writing of one hundred and thirty-four Japanese students who wrote five essays during one academic year. Robb et al. divided them into four different kinds of feedback groups: (a) complete corrections of lexical, syntactic, and stylistic errors; (b) coded feedback; (c) uncoded feedback (excluding the location of errors); and (d) marginal feedback (number of errors were totaled and written in the margin). The result showed that those four groups did not demonstrate any significant differences based on accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Moreover, instead of showing the effectiveness of feedback, the study suggested some counterevidence to the claim. The researchers said “that overt correction ‘causes’ FL [foreign language] writers to be overly concerned with surface structure to the extent that fluent writing is constrained” (p. 89). Robb et al. (1986) explained that students often had difficulties analyzing and understanding their teachers’ comments, which also led to the ineffectiveness of teacher feedback. Therefore, the
conclusion from Chandler (2003), Ferris (1999), Kroll (2001), Robb et al. (1986), and Zamel (1985) was that it is essential to find appropriate types of writing feedback in order to help students’ writing.

Various ways of providing writing feedback

One of the relevant issues in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is how to give feedback on students’ writing. There are abundant ways of providing error correction on students’ writing and researchers have investigated these methods in the following areas: whether to provide handwritten or electronic comments, whether or not to use a rubric or other assessment tools, whether to provide feedback on preliminary drafts or final drafts, whether to use endnotes or marginal comments, questions vs. statements, praise vs. criticism, direct vs. indirect, or coded vs. uncoded feedback (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). A discussion of each of these is given below.

When discussing whether to provide handwritten or electronic comments, researchers have discussed what means of doing so is best, including giving comments via email, via students’ word-processing file, and via audiotaped oral feedback in contrast to written comments (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Each of these techniques has its advantages, which are often related to the benefits of technology. When teachers provide feedback via computer, it has similar visual advantages as does handwritten feedback and encourages students to become familiar with a computer, which may enhance their writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Next, audiotaped oral feedback provides a chance to practice listening comprehension. This method is more beneficial to students who are more comfortable with aural than visual modes, but for the students who are not, this
method can frustrate them (Reid, 1993). Even within the tools of handwritten feedback, teachers have several options. They may use a pen or a pencil, and if they use a pen, they also need to choose what color of pen they will use, although Hedgcock and Lefkowitz argue that the tone, substance of the comment, and the relationship between teacher and student are far more important than the color of ink used (1994).

Next, teachers also have choices in assessment tools which include some sort of rubric, coding sheet, or checklist. A historical rubric demonstrates the criteria for the assignment and explains the stages of quality from excellent to poor (Andrade & Boulay, 2003). A coding sheet contains a list of codes indicating the type of error. For example, instead of correcting or writing out that there is a spelling error, teachers write the code SPG. A checklist identifies the error categories that teachers focus on such as responses to prompt/assignment, content (ideas), organization and language, and there is a range of scores beside each category (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Teachers record scores following the scales using a checklist. Regarding rubrics, checklists, and coding sheets, there are two different arguments. Some researchers including Andrade and Boulay (2003) argue that such forms provide standards-referenced assessment tools and a consistent framework. On the other hand, other researchers including Ferris (1997) argue that such forms can limit and inhibit teachers from providing personalized responses according to the individual students and the given assignments.

Teachers also need to decide if they want to give feedback on students’ preliminary drafts (also termed “between drafts”) or final drafts. Ferris conducted a study about the degree to which students paid attention to teacher feedback on first drafts versus final drafts. The students responded that they equally valued both stages of
feedback (Ferris, 1995). However, each stage of feedback has different characteristics. Feedback on between drafts is formative and provides students with feedback about how they can improve the text while feedback on final drafts is summative and evaluates their work and explains their scores (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Beach (1979) emphasized the importance of providing feedback on the content and organization of between drafts. He said if teachers give feedback on these areas, then students might be aware of the need to make substantive changes at that preliminary draft stage and might develop an ability to critically analyze their drafts. Beach (1979) conducted a study based on this assumption with 103 students at a high school in Minneapolis. He randomly assigned the students to three treatment groups: a group who only received between-draft teacher-evaluation (TE), a group who only received guided self-evaluation forms (SE), and those who received no evaluation between drafts (NE). The TE subjects showed obviously higher scores in degree-of-change scores which were related to the overall quality, support, sequence, and focus. The TE subjects also showed higher fluency scores and final draft support ratings than either the SE or NE subjects. Beach explained these results came because of the need to have another reader’s perspective on the between-drafts if the writer’s intention has been communicated and how well. Another finding from this study was that the SE subjects and the NE subjects did not show significant differences. Evidently the self-evaluation form did not contribute to the revision process. Beach said this result indicated that many subjects were not able to identify their strengths, weaknesses, or how to make necessary revisions. He also suggested another possible reason that the SE subjects did not show differences from the NE subjects was that the SE subjects might not have had enough motivation to critically evaluate their drafts without a
reviewer. These results emphasize the need of holding teacher-evaluation on between drafts (Beach, 1979).

The types of commentary for providing feedback are other issues that teachers need to consider since certain types of commentary may be more problematic than others. Using endnotes has the benefit of allowing teachers to summarize their reactions to the entire paper. In addition, since endnotes do not have space limitations, teachers can give longer and clearer feedback. On the other hand, marginal comments enable the teacher to give specific ideas in the text directly (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Ferris (1997) conducted a study that examined over 1,600 marginal and end comments on 110 first drafts by 47 advanced university ESL students. The purpose of the study was to discover if the teacher’s feedback actually improved students’ writing and what types of commentary were more effective than others. Ferris found that while marginal comments were used for requesting information regardless of syntactic form, endnotes were used for grammar issues. The results also showed that when both feedback types were used, the proceeding revisions were the most substantive.

Next, teachers also need to decide whether they will give comments in a question or in a statement form. In order to stimulate students’ cognitive awareness and to avoid providing direct correction, teachers are often encouraged to give comments in question form (Zamel, 1985; Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Sommers, 1982). However, ESL students have reported that teachers’ questions often confuse them (Ferris, 1995; McCurdy, 1992). Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) have found that writing teachers should be careful using questioning as a commentary method. They suggest when students have different cultural backgrounds, often they understand the question from their teacher
differently. For example, if the question is, “Can you give an example here?”, they would assume that the question is a simple yes/no question, they can simply choose “no” and ignore the question (2005). However, Ferris (1997) said still teachers have the responsibility to construct effective questions, or determine whether or not providing feedback in another commentary type would be more effective.

Teachers also need to explain that the purpose of questions is for stimulating students’ cognitive process, but not necessarily need to be answered in the essay. Another problematic commentary type is a form of statements which ask the writer to give more information. For example, Ferris (1997) found that this type of commentary did not bring any significant changes, and even when there were some changes, the students did not accurately make the revisions. Ferris said although many of the given statements asked students to consider certain important issues during the process of revision, students did not respond to the given information. Ferris explained this may happen because students were not accustomed to this type of comment since they do not explicitly ask the student to do some specific action. Therefore, Ferris suggests that teachers may need to give additional guidance to L2 students by providing explicit explanation in an endnote or orally.

The next areas of commentary types are praise and criticism. In order to examine the effect of praise and criticism, Cardelle and Corno (1981) conducted a study with four variations of feedback on 80 ESL students’ writing assignments. The four types of feedback were (1) praise only for students’ correct responses, (2) critical feedback that explained the students’ errors and give guidance towards correction, (3) criticism and praise, and (4) no feedback at all. Their results showed that groups 2 and 3 developed
significantly more in their writing abilities compared to the other two groups, with group 3 showing the greatest development on performance. Based on these results, Cardelle and Corno (1981) concluded that providing criticism and praise together guided students to identify their errors and motivated them to try better the next time. However, providing only praise did not improve students’ writing compared to providing criticism or combining criticism and praise in their study. Ferris’ (1997) study demonstrated similar results as those found in Cardelle and Corno (1981). She reported, “Not surprisingly, few of the positive comments led to any changes in the revisions, nor were they apparently intended to” (p. 327). However, a few positive comments did actually influence the process of revision, and it is notable that many more positive comments were in endnotes (31%) than in marginal comments (18%). Bates, Lanes, and Lange (1993) gave the advice that teachers should encourage students at the beginning of endnotes, and apparently the teacher who followed this advice in Ferris (1997)’ study confirmed that it was actually effective.

There are also many studies about direct and indirect feedback strategies and the extent to which each of these brings noticeable improvements in students’ writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). While direct feedback occurs when a teacher provides explicit corrections on errors, indirect feedback occurs when a teacher indicates that there is an error, but does not correct it, thereby allowing the students to determine what the problem is and correct it on their own. However, Sommers (1982) argued that this method may force “students back into the chaos” (p. 154) because students do not know how to revise on their own. Therefore, Ferris (1997) suggests that although there is value in applying implicit commentary to improve students’ critical thinking skills, L2 writing teachers
may need to provide additional guidance “by adding an explicit suggestion as to how the student should utilize the information or by explaining briefly, orally or in an endnote” (Ferris, 1997, p. 19). Her suggestion also leads to applying teacher-student writing conferences since they provide an opportunity of negotiating meaning and clarifying students and teachers’ intentions through oral communication.

In indirect feedback strategies, teachers can either use coded or uncoded feedback. Coded feedback occurs when teachers indicate the exact location of an error and the type of error with a code (for example, PS means that the past simple tense has been used in the wrong form). Uncoded feedback uses more implicit feedback, such as underlining or circling errors, and students are expected to diagnose and correct the error (Bitchener, Cameron, & Young, 2005). Ferris and Roberts (2001) conducted a study to examine the effects of three variations: (1) errors marked with codes (2) errors underlined or circled but not labeled (uncoded), and (3) no error feedback. The results indicated that the two treatment groups that received error feedback outperformed the control group, but there were no significant differences between the coded and uncoded feedback group. These findings mirror those discussed in Robb et al.’s (1986) study mentioned above. However, whether indirect feedback is coded or uncoded, students who had indirect feedback reduced their frequency of errors considerably compared to students who had direct feedback (Ferris, 2002).

Compared to the amount of research that has examined the effect of written feedback strategies of teachers, there is limited research on students keeping error logs and attending teacher-student conferences (Ferris, 2002). Error logs are logs where students tally their errors that have occurred in their writing. The purpose of logs is to
emphasize the connection between student actions and academic outcomes (Commander & Smith, 1996). By using logs, students themselves and teachers can evaluate the academic outcomes and the areas that students need to develop. Students seem to make certain errors repeatedly even though they have learned certain rules of grammar, so by using logs, they may become more aware of their repeated errors and reduce their recurrence.

One early study using logs and that demonstrates the effectiveness of this method is Lalande (1982). The researcher had students use an “Error Awareness Sheet” (p. 143) along with systematic marking, guided learning, and problem solving techniques on grammatical and orthographic correctness. Systematic marking referred to when teachers marked students’ errors using codes; guided learning referred to when students receive their marked essays back in the very next class meeting and possibly have the assistance of a teacher or peer in class in case they need help understanding the feedback; and problem solving techniques referred to when students interpret the codes, correct the errors, and rewrite the essay. The subjects in this study were 60 fourth-quarter college students studying German at Pennsylvania State University, who were divided into two experimental groups and two control groups. Both experimental and control groups had the same texts and lesson, but they received different types of feedback in terms of using codes and the associated rewrite activities. The experimental groups received feedback with systematic marking that asked them to interpret the error correction code, tally the number of errors on the log, revise their errors, and rewrite their essays. They also had a process of self-correction which was done in class.
During the process, students engaged in problem solving by interpreting codes and revising their texts and used their teacher or peer if needed. Next, the experimenter tallied the frequency of error types on the error awareness sheet for each student, and students in the experimental groups received a copy of the error awareness sheet, whereas the students in the control groups did not. The teacher of the control groups provided feedback in the traditional method. They corrected form errors on their students’ essays, and the students rewrote their essays following the teacher’s corrections without tallying error types on the error awareness sheet. After one academic quarter, the experimental group substantially outperformed the control group with fewer grammatical and orthographic errors. In eleven of the twelve non-lexical error categories, students in the experimental groups showed obviously fewer errors than students in the control groups. Based on these results, Lalande (1982) concluded that combining the error awareness sheet and the process of rewriting with problem-solving techniques contributed to a reduction in grammatical and orthographic errors, and it helped students develop their writing skills. However, it should be noted that this experiment was with students studying German not English as a second language. Also, the feedback was focused only on grammatical and orthographical errors rather than content. Therefore, it is significant to have further research in the use of logs in the field of ESL writing, especially focusing on content.

In composition pedagogy, teacher-student conferences are a widely recommended feedback strategy. Many researchers, teachers, and students expect that students would have opportunities to interact with their teachers, clarify their teachers’ comments, and participate in the revision through conferences (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990). Carnicelli
(1980) reviewed native speaker students’ evaluative comments towards their conferences and concluded conferences are more beneficial than written comments because “[i]f a teacher’s response is unclear the student can simply ask for an explanation” (p. 108). In a study of non-native speakers, Zamel (1985) and Sokmen (1988) discovered similar results. Zamel concluded that holding conferences is an effective means of providing feedback because when writers and readers sit face-to-face, dynamic interchange and negotiation can happen. Sokmen (1988) also stated that in conferences teachers can interact dynamically with the students to help them understand their intent, so conferences are more effective than written comments. However, Carnicelli (1980), Sokmen (1988), and Zamel (1985) did not specifically examine the discourse in the conferences but only came to their conclusions on the basis of students’ and teachers’ subjective evaluations of conferences. By contrast, Conrad and Goldstein (1990) studied the relationship between the discourse in conferences and subsequent revision or overall writing improvement. They especially focused on the roles of teacher and student during conferences and examined the students’ subsequent drafts. In the study, three students who were from three different cultural backgrounds were selected as subjects. They were in an advanced ESL composition class at a university. The subjects were required to submit multiple drafts of expository papers and every other week they had a 20-minute conference to discuss the draft they were working on. Next, in the week between conferences, their teacher provided written feedback on the proceeding draft that was revised after the conference. Until the actual conference, the teacher did not read the drafts that would be discussed, and the students were asked to identify areas they wanted to discuss in the conference. The researchers analyzed the relationship between the
development of the proceeding essays and the occurrence of negotiation during the conferences on the basis of the subsequent drafts. When revisions had not been negotiated, all three subjects had unsuccessful and unattempted revisions. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that for conferences to be successful students must actively participate in the revision and negotiate meaning rather than simply interact with teachers (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990).

**Feedback on Form versus Feedback on Content**

Many researchers agree that providing writing feedback is effective, but most of the studies discuss the effectiveness of writing feedback on formal aspects of writing (grammar and punctuation correction) not on content aspects such as organization, paragraph formation, and topic development. Fathman and Whalley (1990) presented the importance of providing feedback on both content and form simultaneously. They conducted a study with 72 ESL students and divided them into four groups. They did not give any feedback to the first group, gave grammar feedback only to the second group, gave content feedback only to the third group, and gave grammar and content feedback together to the fourth group. They found that “there was almost no difference between content scores on rewrites when only content feedback was given as apposed to when grammar and content feedback were given at the same time” (p.185). Chandler (2003) studied students over one semester to examine their improvement of grammatical accuracy followed by feedback on form issues. She divided the students into two groups, a control group and an experimental group. She reported that the control group, which did not have error correction between assignments, did not improve their grammatical accuracy while the experimental group presented notable improvement in accuracy. She
also stated a long-term effect of form-focused feedback in students’ compositions based on her over 10 weeks research.

Those researchers who do study how feedback improves content often focus on when in the writing process focus on content and form should be given. Zamel (1985) recommended that if there are at least two stages in the feedback process (draft 1 and draft 2), teachers should provide feedback on form and content separately to avoid confusing students what they should focus on. She also suggested giving content-focused feedback first and form-focused feedback later. Many researchers agree with this pattern of providing feedback because teachers can encourage the student to revise content features early before having students edit small-scale features on the final draft (Ashwell, 2000).

In order to examine if providing content feedback followed by form feedback brings superior improvements than other patterns, Ashwell (2000) examined four groups: (1) content then form feedback; (2) form then content feedback; (3) form and content then form and content feedback; and (4) no feedback. The result of this study showed that the first group with content feedback followed by form feedback was not superior to the reverse pattern or to any other patterns of feedback.

Although the results of Ashwell’s study did not show providing content feedback prior to form feedback brought superior results, there were several indications that providing content feedback prior to form feedback may be more effective than the results of this study suggest. Ashwell said since the students were inexperienced ESL writers who “may have been more concerned about the linguistic code they were writing with than about content issues,” they would be more engaged to improve form accuracy than
the meaning of the paper. As a result, the students paid approximately three fourths of their attention to the feedback on form and only paid one fourth of their attention to feedback on content. The next possible reason for these results was that making changes on form is relatively easy since students can act on small and local scale changes. However, the nature of content feedback usually requires making large-scale changes. Another possible reason is that there is a gap in expectations between what the teacher wants and what the students do.

There are fewer studies about teacher feedback on content compared to studies on feedback on form. Although the number of research studies seems to suggest that teachers should give feedback on form rather than feedback on content, teachers should develop appropriate types of feedback on content as well. Sugita (2006) has asserted that if teachers knew more appropriate ways of giving comments on content, they would give more comprehensible and clear comments on students’ revisions. Zamel (1985) reported that many ESL teachers give writing feedback to their students in the same way as L1 teachers do, and ESL teachers’ comments were often ambiguous and contradictory. Sommers (1982) also found that most students feel there is a lack of explanation and ambiguity in their teachers’ comments on content in writing.

**The primary need for providing feedback on content before form**

*Reasons for the primary need for content feedback*

Vygotsky (1978) has claimed “we don’t learn language by having our errors pointed out and corrected; we learn as a by-product of using language in order to do things we care about doing” (pp. 82-83). He emphasized that L2 learners should be cognitively engaged in the process of promoting writing proficiency. As mentioned
above, Beach (1979) also claimed that teachers should focus on content between the first and last drafts of writing based on his literature reviews about experienced and inexperienced writers. Many experienced writers self-revise their drafts extensively to clarify their intended message (Murray, 1978). They can see where they need to make a change because they have developed an ability to analyze their drafts critically. They can also receive advice from other readers to determine whether they understood the intended meaning or not. However, inexperienced writers often focus on the form features of writing—they revise in terms of minor editorial matters rather than substantive revising process such as the content and organization of rough drafts (Beach, 1979; Emig, 1971; Squire & Applebee, 1968)). Therefore, as Flowers and Hayes (1981) argue, these writers can be “locked in by the myopia” of their “low level goals” (p. 379). Beach (1979) has suggested one of the reasons that students often do not attempt to revise in substantive areas is that teachers often provide feedback only on final drafts not between drafts. Therefore, he emphasized the importance of providing content feedback on between drafts, so students can recognize the need of making substantive changes and revise the matter at that stage.

Problems of providing only form focused feedback

Many teachers mislead students by providing only form focused feedback that causes teachers to misread student texts and causes students to focus only on form features. Cumming (1983) also pointed out the problem of providing only form-focused writing feedback.

Error-identification appears to be ingrained in the habitual practices of second language teachers who perhaps by reason of perceiving their role solely as
instructors of the formal aspects of “language” therefore restrict their activities to operations exclusively within the domain of formal training rather than that of cognitive development (p. 6).

Adding to Cumming’s comment, Zamel (1985) has argued that ESL teachers widely view themselves as language teachers rather than writing teachers, and this point of view leads to the problem that “they attend primarily to surface-level features of writing and seem to read and react to a text as a series of separate sentences or even clauses, rather than as a whole unit of discourse” (p. 86). Consequently, they concentrate on language-related local problems (form) without noticing larger meaning-related problems (content).

Williams (1981) explained how the different attention brings different results: “when we read for typos, letter constitute the field of attention, content becomes virtually inaccessible. When we read for content, semantic structures constitute the field of attention; letters—for the most part—recede from our consciousness” (p. 154). Zamel (1985) analyzed the responding behaviors of 15 teachers from their feedback on 105 student texts. She found that ESL teachers often “misread student texts, are inconsistent in their reactions, make arbitrary corrections, write contradictory comments, provide vague prescriptions, impose abstract rules and standards, respond to texts as fixed and final products, and rarely make content-specific comments or offer specific strategies for revising the text” (1985, p. 86). Several responses of those texts in her article show how the teacher’s reading for form features of writing rather than content features can change the student’s intended meaning. Below is a student subject’s text and the teacher’s responses that was examined by Zamel.
… There are moments when you think everything is going wrong and nobody care about you. On does moments that you are really are down, they come up with some action that really surprises you… (p. 86).

The teacher corrected “On does moments” which is in the beginning of the second sentence to “One moment” because he did not recognize that does was for the graphic representation of those. If the teacher had read the text in a larger-content level, he would have understood that the student’s intention was to say “on those moments’ which directly refers to the preceding sentence.

Problems with the historical way of providing content feedback

Previous ineffective ways of providing content feedback provides one of the reasons that content feedback often does not significantly influence following revisions. Zamel (1985) found that content feedback did not significantly influence student text revisions because the students did not pay attention to the feedback “since most first drafts were seemingly read as final drafts” (p. 91). Moreover, although the students were required to make a change on the content features of writing, they could not make substantial changes because the provided comments were not specific but rather abstract.

The following comments are the common types of teachers’ comments in terms of students’ content-related and organizational issues (Zamel, 1985):

Organization O.K. However, you did not understand the topic you were assigned. I cannot understand a lot of what you are saying. Interesting examples and observations about people. A few unclear ideas and references, however. You need to support your opinion by giving details and you need to organize your thoughts a little better. Some of your statements are so general that I don’t know what you mean. (p. 91)
Zamel (1985) asserted that many teachers were not good models of good writing given their comments to students because their comments were unclear and not specific. For example, the last sample of teachers’ comments indicated that the student’s statements were so general, so the teachers did not understand what the students intended to present. However, the teachers were also ambiguous and imprecise when giving comments. They did not point out which statements were so general, and what part they did not understand. This issue leads to another negative effect that students may simply ignore teachers’ comments on content because they do not comprehend their teachers’ message.

**Needs for establishing priorities on providing content feedback**

Based on her analysis of 105 student texts and 15 teachers’ responses, Zamel (1985) suggested that when teachers give comments on students’ compositions, they should establish priorities to encourage students to address certain issues before others. Teachers often pinpoint both minor errors and larger content issues on the same draft, and the comments on two areas are frequently contradictory and confuse students. For instance, teachers address mechanical errors while also asking students to specify an idea and to give more interesting examples. As a result, the combined messages of feedback can only be contradictory and confusing, as students do not know which type of feedback they should attend primarily between the content-level suggestions and the form-level problems. Zamel concluded, “We should hold in abeyance our reflex-like reactions to surface-level concerns and give priority to meaning” (p. 96) as quoting Knolauch and Brannon (1983)’s statement.

To insist only on technical propriety is to underestimate [the] power [of composing] as a heuristic...Conversely, to accentuate the role of composing in
discovering new knowledge is to show students why their writing matters, therefore to increase their motivation to write, and therefore, ultimately, to increase the likelihood of improvement because they have become more aware of the purpose and value of making meaning. (p. 468)

Related studies on form vs. content feedback

There are very few studies that examine the ideational or content quality of ESL student writing regarding providing content-level focused type of feedback vs. local error focused type of feedback. However, research related to this topic has shown a significant effect of providing content focused feedback on improving student writing. Diaz (1985), Hildenbrand (1985), and Kreeft (1983) examined L2 students who kept journals for the purpose of acquiring the target language. Each reported that when the attention was on content rather than form, the students showed more improvement on their writing proficiency. Semke (1984) also found when teachers gave content focused written comments on their students’ writing, the students spent more time writing and achieved more fluency compared to the students who received only form focused written feedback. Kepner (1991) researched the question “Should written feedback take the form of error-corrections or should it pertain more to the content of the writer’s message?” (p. 305). She conducted a study with sixty students in a Spanish 201 course. She assigned the treatment independent variable, the type of written feedback—message-related comments versus surface error-correction. The students wrote eight journals and one group of students received message-related comments type, and the other group received surface error-correction. The results indicated that the group of students who received the message-related comments presented “a significantly greater number of higher-level
propositions in their guided journal entries (M= 12.1) than did students who received error-correction feedback (M= 10.4)” (Kepner, 1991, p. 309). Based on her research results, she concluded that content-focused written feedback is effective for improving the development of writing proficiency in both ideational quality and form accuracy. She suggested the reasons for greater improvement for the message-related feedback are that they had a correct L2 model of a paragraph, sentences, or phrases by the teacher in the comments and they inspired the students’ critical thinking.

The need for finding appropriate types of writing feedback focused on content

Sugita (2006) recognized the need for providing writing feedback focused on content. He demonstrated that when teachers know the appropriate types of writing feedback for particular types of errors, the students will be better able to make appropriate revisions. In other words, when teachers and students are aware of students’ frequent needed revisions in content, students can improve the issue. If they have metacognitive awareness in evaluating in which content area they lack skills, developing their writing skills will be a much easier task. Commander and Smith (1996) have commented that “[w]hile research studies have demonstrated the positive results of efforts to enhance metacognitive skills of students (Nist & Kirby, 1986; Weinstein, Goetz, & Alexander, 1988), many students lack experiences that teach them to monitor their academic progress, engage in self-regulation of learning, and share their thoughts with their instructor” (p 446). This suggests that developing a method for writing feedback that enables students’ metacognitive awareness of their writing and a tool to effectively discuss content feedback are significant tasks to develop ESL students’ writing proficiency.
The effect of writing conferences

Providing writing conferences is one effective method to facilitate the interaction between teachers and students and develop students’ metacognitive awareness on their writing. Conrad and Goldstein (1990) argue that students can actively interact with their teachers, participate in revisions, and clarify their teachers’ responses through writing conferences. Zamel (1985) found that many ESL students have difficulty understanding written comments from their teachers, so she emphasized the importance of holding writing conferences because “dynamic interchange and negotiation is most likely to take place when writers and readers work together face-to-face” (p. 97). Furthermore, Sokmen (1988) has stated, “responding in conferences is more effective than in writing because you, the teacher, can interact dynamically with the students to understand the intent” (p. 5). As mentioned above, Conrad and Goldstein (1990) conducted a study to examine the effect of having student-teacher writing conferences. Holding writing conferences is widely encouraged because many teachers and researchers believe that it brings active interaction between the teacher and student and gives an opportunity to clarify the student’s intention and the teacher’s response. However, in Conrad and Goldstein’s study, they found that the assumption is not true in every case. From their specified study in the relationship of the discourses in the conferences and the subsequent revisions, they found that the three subjects’ different attitudes towards the conferences varied the effectiveness of holding conferences. However, it was clear that when negotiation happened in the conferences, it promoted the students’ cognitive process, and they had obvious successful revisions.
The effect of logs

Commander and Smith (1996) say that learning logs are a benefit for cognitive monitoring and give opportunities for students to understand their own learning. Savage and Whisenand (1993) also emphasized the advantages of using a logbook. They researched how logbooks could help the learners’ understanding while they attended an intensive English for specific purposes (ESP) workshop. They concluded that logbooks contributed to both learners and teachers developing greater self-awareness. However, no studies in the field of ESL writing have applied the use of logs in discussing content issues. Using logs for providing content-focused feedback will not only help students be aware of where they need to revise in content areas but also help teachers provide systematic feedback focusing on content. Butturff and Sommers (1980) once described the difficulty of systematically focusing on providing feedback on content issues. The comment demonstrates there is a need of assisting teachers to focus on whole language issues rather than form features, and if teachers apply logs for providing content feedback, they need to provide the correction code used for the error tally (awareness) sheet. Therefore, since they have a guideline or a track to follow, they will be able to provide more effective feedback on content issues.

Related studies about the combination of conferences and logs

Conrad and Goldstein (1990) suggest that when students clearly see the need for revision before or while they have conferences, they negotiate points, may be more interested in being involved in the discussions, which brings more successful revisions. This suggestion emphasizes a need for helping students be aware where they make the most frequent errors on their drafts or at least review their drafts before they hold
conferences. Commander and Smith (1996) said by using logs, students themselves and teachers can evaluate the academic outcomes and the area that needs to be developed, and they may be aware of their most frequent errors and reduce their recurrence.

In order to examine the effects of using those two feedback components—logs and conferences, Saunders and Goldenberg (1999) conducted a study under the title “Effects of instructional conversations and literature logs on limited- and fluent-English-proficient students’ story comprehension and thematic understanding”. Although this study was focused on English learners’ reading proficiency not writing proficiency, it showed the positive combined effect of logs and conferences. Five teachers and 116 students in fourth and fifth grade participated in the study. Teachers had 1 year of literature log and instructional conversation training. The subjects were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 treatment groups: literature logs only, instructional conversation only, literature log + instructional conversation, and control. The design also included the level of English proficiency—fluent-English and limited-English proficient. The students in the literature logs and literature log + instructional conversation were asked to write about personal experiences related to the story. Next, in the instructional conversation only and literature log + instructional conversation groups, teachers led discussions to “clarify the factual content of the story and develop students’ understandings of the more sophisticated concept” of the theme of the story” (p. 287). Students in the control group read and studied independently or with the teaching assistant in the social studies curriculum without an individual session with the teacher. The subjects’ reading comprehension was measured by short questions and essays, which were scored individually by two teachers on a scale of 1 to 4.
The results showed that the scores of students in the instructional conversation and literature log + instructional conversation groups were significantly higher than the control group. Moreover, all those students in the three treatment groups had higher scores on reading comprehension tests than the control group. However, the combined effects of literature logs and instructional conversations varied depending on the students’ proficiency: while limited-English-proficient students had positive effects from the combined components, fully English-proficient students did not show such an effect. Another interesting finding was that the subjects in the literature log + instructional conversation group had significantly higher scores in reading comprehension than the group with just the literature log, but their scores were not so much differ from those in the instructional conversation group. In addition, students in the instructional conversation group showed significantly higher scores compared to the control group, while the subjects in the literature log group did not show much difference from students in the control group. The students in the instructional conversation group also had consistently higher scores compared to the literature log group.

Based on these results, Saunders and Goldenberg (1999) suggested that if there is a case that teachers should choose between literature logs and instructional conversations, they should have instructional conversations since they bring more effective results. Next, for limited English-proficient students, teachers should apply both literature logs and instructional conversations because according to the study, low-proficient students had significantly higher scores from the combined feedback components compared to other groups. However, this study was focused on the effects of literature logs and instructional conversations on comprehension and thematic understanding, so there is a
great need of conducting a study in the field of ESL writing composition related to the combination of logs and conferences.

Bitchener et al. (2005) also suggest the importance of conducting the present study. They conducted a study to examine the effects of three different types of feedback on ESL students’ writing compositions. Although their study did not use logs, it is still meaningful to review their study because the three different feedback types used in their study are somewhat similar to the combination of logs and conferences in terms of applying written feedback and conferences. The teachers provided feedback on three grammatical areas that occurred most frequently during the first writing task—prepositions (29.23% of the total errors), past simple tense (11.96% of the total errors), and definite articles (11.45% of the total errors). Through explicit written feedback, teachers informed students what kinds of errors they made (although they did not apply a type of a log, they still used consistent terms for certain error types). Therefore, the two types of feedback—logs and explicit written feedback have similar aspects in that both informed the type of error category although the explicit written feedback did not show the frequency of error occurrence. Next, the teacher provided direct written corrective feedback and a 5-minute teacher-student writing conference after each piece of writing to group one. For group two, the teacher provided direct written corrective feedback only. For group three, the teacher did not provide any corrective feedback on the targeted features but on the quality and organization of their content to satisfy ethical requirements.

The effects of each type of feedback had different results on each error category—prepositions, past simple tense, and definite articles. The combined feedback
components of both explicit written feedback and individual conference brought significantly higher scores on the accuracy of the past simple tense and definite articles. However, a similar finding did not occur for prepositions. Bitchener et al. explained these results by citing Ferris’ suggestion about more “treatable” categories (1999). Ferris suggested those two categories—the definite article and the past simple tense are more treatable than prepositions, so the subjects in the combination of written and oral feedback showed significantly greater results on the two “treatable” categories than on the category of less “treatable” errors (prepositions). Because of the results of their research, they claimed that students gain knowledge of different linguistic categories such as the past simple tense, the definite article, and prepositions from different types of feedback. Thus, Bitchener et al.’s study demonstrates that teachers should provide particular types of feedback in order to improve students’ errors on particular types of linguistic features. However, their study examined the effect of written feedback and conferences on grammatical errors not content issues, so further research about the effects of applying different types of feedback, especially the combination of logs and conferences on content issues is needed.

Summary

For the previous several decades, there have been many studies about the effects of various types of writing feedback. Truscott (1996), however, argued that providing feedback is not effective and even harmful for students, so it should be abandoned. However, Evans et al. (2010), Chandler (2003), Ferris (1999), and Kroll (2001) stated that researchers should consider what types of feedback are effective for what types of errors instead of asking whether providing feedback is effective or ineffective. Many
researchers have emphasized providing feedback on form rather than on content. Fathman and Whalley (1990) stated that students can develop their ability to improve content skills by themselves without teachers’ feedback, but they cannot improve their grammatical accuracy without teachers’ comments. However, Zamel (1985) provided reasons why content feedback is less effective than form feedback. She said because many teachers give both form and content writing feedback at the same time, they confuse the students, and their comments on content are often abstract and general. Kepner (1991) demonstrated the significant need of developing content feedback based on her finding that providing written feedback on content-level issues developed both ideational quality and form features of accuracy. Thus, one of the purposes of this present study is to examine if providing feedback focused on content developed the subjects’ overall writing proficiency. In order to provide effective feedback on content, finding appropriate types of feedback strategy is important. Applying writing conferences and logs is a common method of feedback. Sokmen (1985) suggested providing feedback through conferences is more effective than through written feedback because teachers and students can interact dynamically in conferences. Using logs is also an effective tool of improving writing proficiency. Students can be aware of their frequent areas of errors, and teachers can have a guideline to provide systematic feedback using logs. However, none of studies in the field of ESL writing have attempted applying logs on content but only on form.

**Research Questions**

Given the lack of research in this area, the current study attempts to answer the following research questions:
1. What type of feedback is most effective for content features of writing: the content revision log, content revision log + conference, or the traditional method of providing content feedback?

2. Are those students who keep a content revision log better able than students who do not use a content revision log to recognize where they need to make content revisions and gradually reduce their number?

3. Are there more “treatable” and less “treatable” content categories?

4. Do students and teachers perceive the content revision log to be effective and helpful?
Chapter 3
Research Design

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of two methods of providing content feedback for ESL students. In order to accomplish the aims of the study, the following treatments were examined: (1) a group of students who used content revision logs (described below) and had oral conferences with their teachers to discuss the issues on the log (hereafter the log + conference group), (2) a group of students who used the content revision log and had oral conferences without referencing the log (hereafter the log group), and (3) a control group who received traditional written feedback oral conferences devoted to both form and content issues (hereafter the control group). The remainder of this chapter describes the research methodology of this particular study in terms of the following features: 1) the pedagogical setting in which the study took place, 2) the subjects who participated in the study, 3) the instruments used to gather and evaluate data, 4) the procedures for the study, and 5) the types of data analysis performed.

Pedagogical setting

This study was conducted at the Brigham Young University (BYU) English Language Center (ELC), an intensive English program which helps students improve their English proficiency so that they can eventually study at a university level in English-speaking countries. There are five levels of classes, and one class usually holds between 14 and 16 students.

In writing classes, students are required to submit three writing compositions and a minimum of three drafts for each of these compositions. However, the ELC only requires providing feedback on the first and second draft, not on the final draft.
Therefore, this study does not count the number of comments on the third draft for each of the three papers. The ELC writing teachers’ handbook introduces possible topics of compositions for each level, and most teachers follow the suggested topics in their classes, although the specific topics vary depending on the teacher and student level. Students are also required to write between three and five timed essays in which they write for 30 minutes on a designated topic using a computer. The topics of the essays are from the recent TOEFL writing tests.

Writing teachers at the BYU ELC give feedback on student compositions but are not required to use the same rubric. The ELC also requires that writing teachers hold five regular writing conferences throughout the semester with each student. Each out-of-class conference session is around 10 minutes per individual student. Requirements stipulate that two conference sessions be assigned at the beginning and at the end of the semester focusing on the students’ goals and objectives, and the other three sessions should correspond to the three required compositions during the semester. These conferences focus both on the content and organization of students’ writing. Also, the ELC writing coordinator holds mandatory workshops for writing teachers twice each semester. In these workshops, the writing coordinator sometimes presents methods for providing feedback and introduces different types of feedback for each stage of the writing process.

Data Collection

Subjects

Writing teachers and their students at Level 3 (intermediate) BYU ELC participated in the study between September 2008 and April 2009. These students were invited to participate because their English was proficient enough to be given feedback.
focusing on content. In addition, the essay assignments for Level 3 writing classes provide an opportunity to test the efficacy of the content revision log on papers that are short and relatively simple.

**Student Background.** Out of 107 possible students in the two semesters in which the study was conducted, 79 students participated in the study. Twenty-eight students were excluded from the study because they did not complete either requirements for this research or the required course work. The amount of time that the students had been in the United States and studied at the ELC varied, ranging from 3 to 26 months. The age range of the students was from 18 to 46. Fifteen students were under 20, 55 students were in their 20s, 5 students were in their 30s, and the last four students were in their 40s.

The native languages of the students also varied: Spanish (28), Korean (28), Mandarin (11), French (4), Portuguese (3), Japanese (2), Russian (1), Mongolian (1), and Thai (1). Two languages—Spanish and Korean—were the most representative languages, and were also the most representative of the ELC population as a whole. The number of female participants (51) was greater than the number of male participants (28). Perusal of the data suggests that these demographics were similar across both the control and experimental groups. See Table 3.1 for the number of participating students, their gender, and the average age in each group.
Table 3.1.

**Information of Participating Students in Level 3**

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males/females</td>
<td>10/16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The average age of participants</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log + Conference</td>
<td>Number of participants</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males/females</td>
<td>11/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The average age of participants</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Number of participants</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males/females</td>
<td>7/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The average age of participants</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total number of participants</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher Background.** Three female teachers participated in the study. Two of the teachers were non-native speakers of English who had recently completed a TESOL Graduate Certificate from BYU. The last teacher was a native speaker of English who also received a TESOL Graduate Certificate from BYU and was currently in the TESOL MA program. All three had taught ESL classes less than two years in the U.S. However, they had various experience of English teaching outside of English-speaking countries and had different amounts of experience in teaching ESL writing. One teacher had taught English for adults in her native country, Korea, for about 10 years, especially in the area of TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication). See Table 3.2 for more specifics about the participating teachers. The researcher was not one of the participating teachers.
Table 3.2.

*Teacher Experience and Education*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Amount of Education Completed</th>
<th>Area of Education</th>
<th>Months Teaching Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>TESOL Certificate</td>
<td>International Relationship, TESOL</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>M.A. in German TESOL Certificate</td>
<td>German, TESOL</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TESOL Certificate Currently in the TESOL M.A. program</td>
<td>German, TESOL</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Instruments*

Five main instruments were used in this study: 1) a pre/post-test, 2) three written essays (two drafts for each essay), 3) a content revision log, 4) a writing rubric, and 5) end-of-semester surveys given to both participating students and teachers.

*Pre/post-Test.* In order to place students in the appropriate level among five levels (1—beginning, 2—high beginning, 3—intermediate, 4—high intermediate, and 5—advanced), two types of tests are conducted. They are the Level Achievement Tests and the Placement Tests. At the end of the semester, every continuing student takes the Level Achievement Tests (LATs) and brand new students take the Placement Tests. Both types of tests are computer-based placement exams that cover four skill areas—listening, grammar, reading, and writing. Students also have oral interviews with faculty members of the ELC to evaluate their speaking proficiency. After they are placed in a level, their
teachers re-evaluate their students during the first week of classes to ensure that each student is located at the right level. In the Level 3 writing classes participating in this study, the diagnostic assessment was done through a 30-minute timed essay. After the diagnostic test, the participating teachers graded the essays using a rubric (Appendix B), which was different from the rubric that they used for the three required compositions during the semester (Appendix C). The results of this diagnostic test were used as a pre-test. In the last week of the ELC, the participating teachers also conducted another 30-minute timed essay in class (or in a computer lab) and used the same rubric for grading. Although the post-test essay was not part of the LATs, it follows the same format and was graded the same, so that pre- and post-test measurements were similar. This final essay was used as the post-test. Although these 30-minute timed essays do not require the same process of writing as do the three required writing compositions used throughout the study, these essays do enable teachers to “measure the students’ fluency and ability to produce English quickly, provide an indication of the students’ ability independent of other sources” (Writing Teachers’ Handbook, 2008). Therefore, these two timed essays that were used as the pre- and post-test to see the students’ overall writing proficiency.

Written essays. Writing three essays and three drafts for each essay is a requirement for Level 3 writing students throughout a semester at the ELC. For each composition, Level 3 students were required to write at least 3 pages for their final draft. There was no particular requirement for the length of pages for drafts 1 and 2. The ELC writing teachers’ handbook suggests possible topics for each level, and the suggested writing topics for Level 3 are “[d]ifferent topics that mainly focus on personal opinion on
societal issues, stories of historical figures, and information sharing such as historically famous person’s life, opinions on hot topics affecting society such as gangs, stress or crime, and current events” (Eckstein, Isaak, McCollum, Tarawhiti, & Wolfersberger, 2008). Although the specific topics could vary depending on the teacher, teachers were given the above as guidelines. Throughout the writing class, students were expected to develop several skills by the end of the semester. These skills, as defined for level 3 students are telling, describing, narrating, defining, explaining, classifying, interpreting, summarizing, predicting, comparing, and contrasting.

**Content Revision Log.** In the process of writing, writers need to organize ideas and structure them into a linear piece of language (Flower & Hayes, 1981). However, it is difficult to consider all the levels of writing (essay, paragraph, sentence, word/phrase) all at once (Shih, 1986). Therefore, writing multi drafts of essays is a typical method to help writers “continue to discover what they want to say and alter and refine initial plans” (Shih, 1986, p. 629). The specific categories of the content revision log in this study were designed to reflect the fact that students would be writing multi-drafts. These logs allow students to recognize the areas where they needed to make revisions in content issues across these drafts.

The categories in the content revision log were created based on pattern-centered approaches that require students to produce papers in strict organizational frames (Shih, 1986). Therefore, the content revision log includes those areas that students should address in an essay, such as presenting a thesis statement by the end of an introduction paragraph as well as features that they should avoid, such as inappropriate word choice and redundancy (more details about the log are given below). The major categories on
the content revision log (word, sentence, paragraph, content) were decided following the levels of the writing process (essay, paragraph, sentence, word/phrase) that were explained in Shih (1986). The specific content areas were decided based on discussions with writing teachers and others, observations of ESL students’ frequent needed revisions in content areas, and examination of textbooks and other materials that discuss typical areas where students need help in writing (more details about the log are given below).

The writing teachers of the log + conference group and the log group applied the content revision log (Appendix A) when they provided feedback on their students’ three required essays. The teachers used from the content revision log when giving feedback. (Table 3.3 shows a section of the content revision log—for a complete content revision log, see Appendix A.) As the teachers returned the draft with feedback, they asked their students to tally the number of teacher’s suggested content revisions on the content revision log to have them recognize where they made frequent mistakes in content areas. This process was done in class right after returning the draft in order to avoid students forgetting to record their teacher’s comments or their losing the draft. By the end of the semester, when students received back their second draft, they were asked to hand in the log to their teacher.

On the log, there are three sections: grade record, content revision log, and definitions of abbreviations and examples. Under the grade record section, students wrote the topic of each essay draft and their grade (scale 1-4). Next, on the content revision log (Table 3.3), students recorded the number of teacher comments in order to track the frequency of needed revisions in a certain content area. They were also asked to count the total number of content revisions needed in each draft after they marked the
number of teacher comments in each area. By the end of the semester, they tallied the number of content issues in each category throughout all the drafts. For example, if they marked three teacher comments on word choice on each draft and they wrote six drafts, they recorded the number 18.

There are four broad content issue sections on the content revision log: word, sentence, paragraph, and content. Under each section are specific types of content issues. Under the word section, there are three specific content areas: ‘transitions for sentences’ (TRS), ‘transitions for paragraphs’ (TRP), and ‘word choice’ (WC). Next, the sentence section has two areas, ‘topic sentence’ (TS) and ‘thesis statement’ (TH). The third section is ‘paragraph’, and it contains three categories: ‘logical order within paragraphs’ (ORWP) which requires arranging sentences coherently in one paragraph, ‘logical order of paragraphs’ (OROP) which requires arranging paragraphs coherently, and ‘unity within a single paragraph’ (UN) which requires sentences in the paragraph to correspond to the topic sentence of the paragraph. The last section is ‘content’ that has four categories: ‘irrelevant information’ (IR) which records whether there is an unnecessary sentence or group of sentences, ‘supporting details’ (SP) that focuses on a good balance of supporting points, ‘examples’ (EX) that focuses on whether the example is appropriate for the topic sentence and if it clearly supports the topic, and ‘repetitive/redundant’ (RR) which means the information is unnecessarily repeated.

Each of the specific areas is indicated with an abbreviation on the content revision log. The content revision log does not contain a column for the third draft of each essay composition since the teachers at the ELC were not required to provide explicit written feedback on students’ final draft but only to give a grade.
The final section, definitions, acts as a reference to students using the log. If students did not understand the meaning of certain abbreviation such as TRS (Transitions for Sentences), they could go to the table of definitions and read the section for TRS. It explains the definition and provides an example. (See Appendix A for the complete content revision log.)

Before the semester started, the three participating teachers received the content revision log and had 30 minutes of training using the log. First, they listened to a description of the purpose of the log, the explanation of the terms and abbreviations, and practiced grading a short essay using the log. During the semester, the researcher contacted the teachers through emails to remind them to use the content revision log and to ask them if there is any problem or question regarding the use of the log. In the first week of the semester, the content revision log was distributed to the participating students, and the teacher held training in class. The teacher explained the abbreviations using the examples on the log and a short essay using an overhead projector. Students in the log and the log + conference group were in charge of recording on the log right after they received feedback, and after the recording, teachers collected them in order to prevent students from losing them. The students in the control group did not undergo this training since they did not use the log themselves but only their teacher.
Table 3.3.

Content Revision Log

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Essay 1</th>
<th>Essay 2</th>
<th>Essay 3</th>
<th>Area Total Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Draft</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>TRS</td>
<td>TRP</td>
<td>WC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>TS</td>
<td>TH</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph</td>
<td>OPWP</td>
<td>OROP</td>
<td>UN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>IR</td>
<td>SP</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student Writing Rubric. Participating teachers used two different rubrics; one for the three required essays and the other for the 30-minute timed essays. The rubric for the three required essays was the Persuasive Essay Scoring Rubric (Appendix B). One of the participating teachers created this rubric and wanted to use it throughout the semester and the other teacher in the experimental group also agreed to use this rubric for the three required essays. This rubric was especially designed to meet the objectives of level 3 writing classes, which were to improve the skills of writing content rather than only
focusing on structuring sentences. This rubric was also appropriate for this study in terms of focusing on content, especially development and organization of ideas rather than form features. Students were also rewarded for thinking and not just writing well-constructed sentences, so in that way they were motivated to produce insightful ideas in English. However, there was still a place to rate grammar because grammar is also important for conveying meaning clearly. Since this study was focusing on content issues rather than form features, applying this rubric seemed appropriate.

The Persuasive Essay Rubric contained nine categories that teachers were to consider: requirements, focus, argument, conventions, organizations, insights, development, process, and benchmarks (Table 3.4). A brief description of each section follows. In the category of “requirements,” teachers considered if the paper met the requirements of the essay assignment. The category of “focus” referred to if the essay “establishes its central idea clearly and effectively” and “each paragraph was logically linked to the main idea and all sentences within the paragraph.” Next, the “argument” section of the rubric focused on if there was “clear and accurate reasons” to support the claims in the essay. In the section of “conventions,” teachers focused on grammar issues, especially if the essay “shows a sound understanding of the structure of a good sentence and paragraph.” “Organization” required having “a logical and effective way” to relate ideas and to organize information within the sentence and paragraph, as well as the paper itself. Next, the “insight” section focused on “the degree to which [students] show insight into [their] theme” as well as its complexity. The “development” section referred to “specific, concrete examples from the text to illustrate the ideas.” The “process” section referred to “evidence of revision, planning and careful work” and the ability to
“work in writing response groups throughout the different stages of the writing process.”

Last, the “benchmark” section focused on the “quality of this work in relation to what I expect you to be able to do in this class at this time.” The persuasive writing rubric included a Likert scale from one (the student did not meet the requirement successfully) to four (the student performed excellently in this section) for each of these nine sections.

After the teachers graded each section, they averaged all the individual scores on each of the nine areas above to arrive at the overall score for the essay. Also, in the box of comments, the teachers provided overall feedback comments on the essay. (See Table 3.4 for the part of the Persuasive Essay Rubric.)

Table 3.4.

**Persuasive Essay Scoring Rubric**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Contains all notes, drafts, and final draft</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focus

Your essay establishes its central idea clearly and effectively in the opening paragraph and maintains this focus throughout the essay. Each paragraph is logically linked to the main idea and all sentences within the paragraphs serve to further develop and maintain this focus.

Argument

I make a claim and explain why it is controversial, giving clear and accurate reasons in support of my claim.

For the 30 minute timed essays, a different rubric was used since timed essays differ somewhat from traditional essays used as the assignments for the course. The name of the rubric is the 30-minute Essays Grading System (Appendix C) which was
created from the Student Writing Rubric. The Student Writing Rubric is used for grading Level 3-5 student writing portfolios and is the official rubric used at the ELC. By the end of the semester, writing teachers used the Student Writing Rubric to grade the students’ 3-4 page essays that were assignments for the course and included in their portfolios. The 30-minute timed essay grading system rubric was modified since the requirements for a 30-minute timed essay and the longer papers were different. However, the participating teachers were still familiar with the 30-minute timed essay grading system rubric since they had been trained to use the original rubric for the portfolio grading system. This modified rubric was also suggested by one of the participating teachers in this study, and the other two teachers agreed to use the same rubric for grading their students’ 30-minute timed essay. For the official LAT (Level Achievement Test) grading, there was no set rubric but only a rating calibration meeting and scores based on the portfolio rubric. Therefore, the modified rubric based on the Student Writing Rubric was deemed appropriate for this study.

The original Student Writing Rubric contains nine sections: topics, content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, editing, writing process, 30-minute essay, and thinking about your writing. The revised rubric for this study’s 30 minutes timed essay had only four areas from those nine: content, organization, vocabulary, and grammar. A brief discussion of each section follows. The area of content grades students’ ideas and effort. Next, under the organization section, teachers measured if the essay met the purpose for writing and if students used appropriate transitions. Also, having a logical order in paragraphs and the paper itself is another focus of the organization section. The vocabulary section examined how well students used “a good variety of words” and
“academic words.” The grammar section measures how well students use “difficult and complex grammar” that has “almost no errors.” Each area of the rubric included a Likert scale from one to four (much like the Persuasive Essay Rubric). Teachers totaled each score and gave overall scores for the 30-minute timed essay using the scale from one (poor) to four (excellent). (See Table 3.5 for an example section of the 30-minute timed essay grading system).

Table 3.5.

30-Minute Timed Essay Grading System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content:</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Your writing contains a lot of interesting ideas.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your writing shows excellent thinking and effort.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization:</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- You have a clear purpose for writing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You use transitions appropriately.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You put your paragraphs in a logical order.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You put the ideas in each paragraph in a logical order.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Surveys for students. At the end of the semester, the subjects in the log and the log + conference group were asked to complete a survey (Appendix D and E) regarding the content revision log and writing conferences related to the log. The survey was given in order to measure participants’ attitudes toward the content revision log and conferences that had been given in this study. Thus, the surveys were distributed at the end of the semester after students had finished all the assigned essays and received
feedback from their teachers. However, the survey was given before students received their grade for the semester so that their answers would not be influenced by their grade.

The survey investigated the participating students’ attitudes toward the instructions of the content revision log, their reactions toward the use of the log, and their personal feelings on their improvement on writing through using the log. The first question on the survey addressed whether the log was clear enough to understand. For this question, students were asked to rank among four choices of “very easy,” “somewhat easy,” “a little hard,” and “very hard.” For the rest of the questions, the students were asked to circle “yes” or “no” and wrote comments or suggestions if they desired. The log group and log + conference group had five questions among six questions that were similar with the last question differing for the log + conference group. Four of these questions asked about how easy it was to understand feedback using the content log, were the areas on the content log sufficient, whether the abbreviations were easy to understand and whether the student thought that they had improved in their writing by using the content revision log. The fifth question was different for the log + conference group and the log only group since it was regarding conferences about the log. For the log + conference group, the question was “When you had face-to-face conferences (interviews) with your teacher after you received written feedback using the log, was it helpful” while the question for the log only group was “If you had face-to-face conferences (interviews) with your teacher after you receive written feedback using the log, would it be helpful.” Both questions required choosing either yes or no, and below the choices, there was a space for the student to put any additional comments. The last question for both groups
was about their general opinions and suggestions either about the log or conferences. (See Appendix D and E for the complete Student Survey.)

_Surveys for teachers._ At the end of the semester, the participating teachers completed a survey as well (Appendix F and G). They were asked to answer questions about the effectiveness of using the log and their observation about their students’ improvement using the log. The first question was “Is it easy to give feedback using the content revision log,” which was the only ranking question where they needed to choose among four choices of “very easy,” “somewhat easy,” “a little hard,” and “very hard.” For the other questions, teachers were asked to choose between yes and no or respond to open-ended questions. Both of the teachers for the log and log + conference group had the same five questions among six including the question mentioned above. These questions corresponded and were similar to the questions asked on the student surveys. (See Appendix F and G for the complete Teacher Survey.)

_Procedures_

In Fall 2008 and Winter 2009, three of the four Level 3 writing classes at the ELC participated in the current study. All the participating students took a diagnostic writing test in class given at the beginning of the semester. The three participating teachers used the same rubric for grading this 30-minute timed essay. The results of this diagnostic test served as the pre-test for this study.

Throughout each semester, students were required to write three essays and three drafts for each essay composition. Teachers provided feedback on the first two drafts of each essay, and the students in the log or log + conference groups tallied the number of suggested revisions on the content revision log in class right after their teacher returned
their paper. Teachers used the same abbreviations on the paper as students were using to record the number of teacher’s comments on their content revision log. The log and log + conference groups differed from each other in that after the students in log + conference group received written feedback, they had oral conferences with the teacher individually for five to ten minutes regarding the comments provided on content categories. The teacher held these conferences after the second draft of each essay. Importantly, the log only and the control groups also had conferences with their teachers. However, the teachers of the log group and the control group did not refer to the log during the conference. In contrast, students in the log + conference group were asked to bring the content revision log to the conference. During these conferences, the teachers specifically referred to the log. However, since the ELC requires teachers to focus on content and organization of student composition during conferences, the teachers of all three groups (log, log + conference, and control) would have discussed content issues of the students’ writing. The only difference, therefore, in the teacher-student conferences of the three groups was whether or not the teacher explicitly discussed the log. For each draft of three required essays, the three participating teachers used the same rubric (the Persuasive Essay Scoring Rubric) because grading within the same standard and the same range of scores was necessary to analyze the results from these three groups.

In the last week of the semester, participating students wrote another 30-minute timed essay in class that was graded as a final test. This timed essay was also used as the post-test of this study. The same rubric for the diagnostic test was used for each group.

After the participating students finished the final draft of the last required essay, they were asked to fill out a survey. (See Appendix D and E.) They completed the survey
before their final grade of their last essay was presented and returned to them. Teacher surveys (Appendix F and G) were also distributed on the same day. The teacher in the control group was not asked to complete the survey.

The content revision log was applied in this study in the hope that it would help students track the areas where they need to make frequent revisions in content areas and how to reduce them. It was also created because it could provide a guideline to teachers to focus on the content issues without focusing on form.

Data Analysis

Statistical procedures were used to analyze the results from this study and to answer each research question. Two kinds of data were used in this study. For the scores from the pre/post-test ranging between 1 and 4, 1 represents “poor” and 4 represents “excellent.” The second type of numerical values was from the content revision log. The number of revision comments was tallied on the log, and they were transferred into percentages. Below, the statistical analyses for each of the research questions are given.

1. What type of feedback is most effective for improving overall writing proficiency: the content revision log, content revision log + conference, or the traditional method of writing feedback?

The participants’ overall writing proficiency was measured by the pre/post-test (30-minute timed essays). The specific writing skills were graded for each of the following categories: content, organization, vocabulary, and grammar. For each category, the teachers gave the essay a score from one (the student did not meet the requirement successfully) to four (the student performed excellently in this section), and
the average score of those four categories was used as the final score of the pre/post-test. The individual students’ results from the pre- and post-test were compared. These processes were done for each individual student in the three subject groups, and the degree of change was compared among three groups.

To determine whether these improvements reached statistical significance, a repeated measures ANOVA was applied to the data with time (pre- versus post-test scores) as the within subject variable and group (control, log, and log + conference) as the between subjects variable. The dependent variables were the pre- and post-test scores for each participant and group (log, log + conference, control) was the independent variable.

2. Are those students who keep a content revision log better able than students who do not use a content revision log to recognize where they need to make content revisions and gradually reduce their number?

The participating students in the log and the log + conference group were asked to record the number of content revisions that were marked by their teachers on the log right after they received feedback in class. After they finished recording the number of revisions needed under each category, they added up the total number. This process was done for the first and second draft of each of the three essays. The students in the control group were not provided the log, but the teacher kept the log for each student.

Again, a repeated measures ANOVA was used to determine whether the groups using a content log were better able to reduce the number of teacher comments than were the control group participants. The total number of revision comments from draft 1 and
draft 2 were used as the within subjects variable and group (log, log + conference, control) was the between subjects variable.

3. Are there more “treatable” and less “treatable” content categories?

   Again, on the content revision log, the participating students in the log and log + conference group tallied the number of teacher’s comments in content issues for the first and second draft of the three required essays. After they finished recording this number, they calculated the total number for the draft and wrote the number in the row named “Draft Total Number.” After they finished submitting all the required essays, they tallied the number of comments from each single content area under the column “Area Total Number.” For the control group, the number following the content revision log was also added up although students in the group did not see the explicit marks. The teacher tallied the number on the log.

   For this analysis a series of repeated measures ANOVAs was used to determine whether the groups using a content log were better able to reduce the number of needed revisions of some content areas than others. The number of needed revisions from draft 1 and draft 2 for each of the context types were used as the within subjects variables and group (log, log + conference, control) was the between subjects variable.

4. Do students and teachers perceive the content revision log to be effective and helpful?

   Since this question sought to discover the participants’ subjective opinions toward the use of the log or conferences, a survey was applied. The participating teachers and students in the log and the log + conference group were requested to answer the questions
of the survey by the end of the semester but before the students received their grade.

Each survey contained six questions which consisted of one ranking question, four yes/no questions, and one open-ended question. The averages of the ranking question and the four yes/no questions were calculated, and the answers for the open-ended question was summarized.
Chapter 4
Results

The main purpose of this study was to examine whether using content revision logs (or what we have termed a content revision log, see Appendix A) helped ESL students better improve their writing than not using a content revision log, and whether using them alone or with teacher-student conferences was most effective. Three teachers, 79 students, 79 sets of pre- and post- tests, and 52 logs were studied to answer the following questions:

1. What type of feedback is most effective for content features of writing: a content revision log, content revision log + conference, or the traditional method of providing content feedback?

2. Are those students who keep a content revision log better able than students who do not use a content revision log to recognize where they need to make content revisions and gradually reduce their number?

3. Are there more “treatable” and less “treatable” content categories?

4. Do students and teachers perceive the content revision log to be effective and helpful?

This chapter presents the analysis of these four questions. Before analyzing the results, understanding the nature of the data is necessary. As mentioned in Chapter 3, three kinds of data were used to answer the four research questions of this study. The scores from the pre- and post- test (scale 1-4), the tallied needed revisions on the logs of the experimental groups, and the answers from the student and teacher surveys were analyzed.
Research Question 1

This first research question of this study examined whether two different treatments (log or log + conference) were more likely to help learners improve their writing scores from pre-test to post-test. In order to answer this question, all the subjects’ pre- and post-test scores were analyzed. Teachers used a Likert scale to rate the quality of these writings in four categories (content, organization, vocabulary, and grammar) using the same rubric. (See Table 4.1 for the pre- and post-test scores of each group.)

To determine whether students’ improvements from pre- to post-test reached statistical significance, a repeated measures ANOVA was applied to the data. The dependent variables were the pre- and post-test scores for each participant with group (log, log + conference, control) as the independent variable. The results of the analysis were positive, meaning that treatment did affect learners’ writing ability. All three groups improved from pre- to post-test (F (2, 73) = 39.901, p = .0001), although there was an effect of group (F (1, 71)=5.123, p = .008). Post-hoc tests revealed that the log + conference group improved the most and improved statistically more than the log group and the control group. In addition, the log group improved statistically more than the control group. The control group improved the least from pre- to post-test. Although in Figure 4.1, it appears that the control group had higher pre-test scores than the other two groups, the difference in pre-test scores was not significant (F (2, 78) = 2.011, p > .05). (See Appendix H for a complete list of each student’s pre- and post-test scores.)
This result demonstrates the degree of improvement throughout the semester using each treatment. The log + conference group showed the most significant improvement from pre- to post- test, so it tells that the treatment of the group brought the most significant effect. In addition, the positive result from the log group compared to the control group also more demonstrates the positive effect of the content revision log.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question examined whether the students in the treatment groups decreased overall number of needed revisions and whether the log group and the log + conference group differed in the level of improvement from the control group. In order to answer this question, the number of teacher comments on content following the categories of the log was tallied from the first and second drafts of three essays.

The results showed that all three groups improved from draft 1 to draft 2, but the degree of improvement differed by each group. The log + conference group improved more than the other two groups; they reduced greater number of needed revisions from
draft 1 to draft 2 more than did the log and control groups. Below is the specific analysis of this finding.

Log Group

The data from the log group suggests that the average number of needed revisions from draft 1 to draft 2 for each paper decreased from paper 1 to paper 3. This decreasing pattern suggests that the students in the log group recognized the areas where they needed to make revisions and revised them following the teachers’ marks. However, the first draft of the last essay had a greater number of needed revisions (11.18) than did the first draft of the second essay (9.07), although students had the lowest number of needed revisions in the very last paper (3.48). In addition, it should be noted that the log group made significant progress from paper 1-draft 1 (16.18) to paper 2-draft 1 (9.07) in which they had 43.94% fewer needed revisions. See Figure 4.2 for details. In this figure, the three sets of bars indicate the average number of needed revisions on drafts 1 and 2 from paper 1 to paper 3. Each blue bar demonstrates draft 1 and each red bar indicates draft 2. (See Appendix I for individual students’ scores.)

Figure 4.2. Average number of suggested revisions throughout the draft of essays (log group)
Log + Conference Group

The data from the log + conference group shows two positive patterns of decreasing; One is from paper 1 to paper 3, and the other is from draft 1 to draft 2. Figure 4.3 demonstrates that the students in the log + conference group had fewer needed revisions throughout the three papers. The log + conference group also showed a similar pattern of decreasing the number of needed revisions from paper 1 – draft 1 (19.17) and paper 2 – draft 1 (12.95) in which they had 32.45% fewer needed revisions. In addition, the rate of decreasing the average needed revisions between paper 1 - draft 2 (9.95) and paper 2 - draft 2 (4.47) is particularly noticeable since they reduced the number by 55%. As with Figure 4.2, in Figure 4.3, there are three sets of bars which indicate paper 1 to paper 3, and the first bars are for the average number of needed revisions from the first drafts and the second bars are for the second drafts. (See Appendix J for individual students’ scores.)

![Figure 4.3: Average number of suggested revisions throughout the draft of essays (log + conference group)](image)
Control Group

The data from the control group also demonstrates that the subjects reduced the average number of needed revisions through paper 1 to paper 3 as well as the 1st draft to the 2nd draft. These two decreasing patterns were not very different from the other two experimental groups with the log, but there was a difference in the degree to which subjects reduced the average number of needed revisions from paper 1 – draft 1 (12.96) to paper 2 – draft 1 (10.22). While the other two groups showed a significant progress from paper 1 – draft 1 to paper 2 – draft 1 (the log group reduced their needed revisions about 43.94 % and the log + conference group about 32.45%), the control group reduced their needed revisions about 21.14 %, which was the lowest amount among the three groups. This result could support one of the purposes of the content revision log which is to help students become aware of where they needed to revise in content areas. (See Appendix K for individual students’ scores.)

Figure 4.4. Average number of needed revisions throughout the draft of essays (control group)
To determine whether students improved in their overall number of needed revisions from first to second drafts, a repeated measures ANOVA was applied to the data. This analysis revealed a significant difference from pre- to post- test for all three groups ($F(2, 85) = 177.65, p = .0001$), and a significant effect of group ($F(1, 2) = 3.71, p = .03$). In other words, all three groups decreased the number of overall content revisions they had from pre- to post- test. Post-hoc tests revealed that the log + conference group improved more than the other two groups.

In the above analysis, all draft 1 suggested revisions from all three papers were averaged and compared to all draft 2 suggested revisions from all three papers. Another analysis was also run to determine whether the groups decreased their number of needed revisions on both first and second drafts across the three essays. Table 4.1 displays the three groups’ total number of needed revisions across all three papers. The results of this analysis revealed that all three groups were able to decrease the number of needed revisions on both drafts 1 and drafts 2 (for drafts 1: $F(2, 85) = 29.552, p < .0001$; for drafts 2 $F(2, 85) = 21.767, p < .0001$). However, Post-hoc tests revealed that the log + conference group reduced their number of needed revisions more than the other two groups.

Table 4.1.

*Three Groups' Total Number of Teacher Comments across All Three Papers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Draft 1.1</th>
<th>Draft 1.2</th>
<th>Draft 2.1</th>
<th>Draft 2.2</th>
<th>Draft 3.1</th>
<th>Draft 3.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log + conference</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 3

The third question of this study examined whether some revisions in some content areas were reduced more when using a content revision log than were others. As discussed in Chapter 3, the log contained twelve content areas: Transitions for sentences (TRS), Transitions for paragraphs (TRP), Word choice (WC), Topic sentence (TS), Thesis statement (TH), Logical order within paragraphs (ORWP), Logical order of paragraphs (OROP), Unity within a single paragraph (UN), Irrelevant information (IR), Adding details: how to balance supporting points (SP), Adding details: have appropriate examples (EX), and Repetitive/ Redundant (RR). It is important to know the areas that students are able to reduce the number of needed revisions using the log in order to examine the effectiveness of the log.

Table 4.2.

Number of Needed Revisions from the 1\textsuperscript{st} Draft to the 2\textsuperscript{nd} Draft

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Log Draft 1</th>
<th>Log Draft 2</th>
<th>Log + conference Draft 1</th>
<th>Log + conference Draft 2</th>
<th>Control Draft 1</th>
<th>Control Draft 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transitions for sentences</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitions for paragraphs</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word choice</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic sentence</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis statement</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical order within paragraphs</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical order of paragraphs</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unity within a single paragraph</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrelevant information</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting points</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2. (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Log</th>
<th>Log + Conference</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Draft 1</td>
<td>Draft 2</td>
<td>Draft 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetitive/Redundant</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Number of Revisions</strong></td>
<td><strong>916</strong></td>
<td><strong>400</strong></td>
<td><strong>1008</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4.2 reveals, the greatest number of needed revisions occurred in the content area of “word choice” among three groups (30.38% in the log group, 26.95% in the log + conference group, and 34.81% in the control group). The next most recurrent number of needed revisions occurred in the use of supporting details in the log (18.03%) and log + conference group (22.15%), and it was the third most recurrent number of needed revisions in the control group (9.61%), followed by transitions for sentences (12.24%).

To analyze whether participants improved in a specific content area, we assumed that when there was a statistical difference in scores from first to second drafts in the number of needed revisions in a particular content area that this constituted a content area where the log successfully helped students be aware of areas where they needed to revise. In order to ensure that these changes were caused by using the log and not by another source, we compared improvements in each specific content area with improvements of the control group in these same areas. Analyses of individual factors followed the same procedure as that used to examine changes in overall scores: a repeated measures ANOVA was applied to the data where the dependent variables were the first and second draft number of needed revisions for each of the content areas for all three groups.

Because we were not interested in comparisons across content areas, this analysis was run
separately for each of the content areas. A Bonferroni procedure was applied to the data because of multiple comparisons, making the p-value set at .004.

The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 4.3 below. This table depicts for which revision types there are differences from pre- to post-test and whether these differences are greater for one group than for another. As shown in this table, the only content area where none of the groups improved from pre- to post-test was in the area of ORWP (logical order within paragraphs). Other than in this area, the log + conference group improved from pre- to post-test on all other content areas. By contrast, the log group did not improve in the RR (repetitive/redundant) area and the control group did not improve from pre- to post-test in the RR (repetitive/redundant), OROP (logical order of paragraphs), or UN (unity within a single paragraph) content types. Moreover, in areas where all three groups improved from pre- to post-test, the log + conference group improved more than the other two groups in the areas of TRP (transitions for paragraphs), TS (topic sentence), and RR (repetitive/redundant).

Table 4.3.

Improvement in Number of Needed Revisions and Differences between Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Log</th>
<th>Log + conference</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Difference between groups?</th>
<th>Differences between groups?</th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRS</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>17.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRP</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>log + conference &gt; log, control</td>
<td>18.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WC</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>93.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TS</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>log + conference &gt; log, control</td>
<td>47.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>25.664</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3. (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Log</th>
<th>Log + conference</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Difference between groups?</th>
<th>Differences between groups?</th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph</td>
<td>ORWP</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OROP</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UN</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>IR</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>16.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SP</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>22.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RR</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>14.390</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Y = the scores of post-tests were better than the pre-tests (improved); N = the scores of post-tests were not better than the pre-tests (not improved); When a certain group is better than the other, it is indicated with a >.

In sum, the log + conference group improved in more categories than did the log and control groups. In addition, the log + conference group usually had a greater degree of improvement than the other two groups. In five categories, the log + conference group improved more than the control group, and in three categories (TRP-transitional word for paragraph, TS-topic sentence, and RR-repetitive/redundant), they showed bigger improvements than the log group. Another interesting finding was that the control group did not reduce their number of needed revisions in any category under “paragraph.” These revisions might require them to make more complicated metacognitive revisions; since the categories under “paragraph” focus on organization of sentences or paragraphs, it would require more cognitive thinking than changing a word.
Research Question 4

The last research question examined teacher and student attitudes toward using the content revision log and/or log + conference in their writing class. In order to answer this question, the participating teachers and students in the log and the log + conference group were requested to answer the questions of the survey which had one ranking question, four yes/no questions, and one open-ended question.

As Tables 4.4-4.5 show, the students were mostly positive about the easy use of the content revision log. For the question asking if it is easy to understand feedback using the content revision log, 17 of 26 students in the log group marked “somewhat easy,” 6 students marked “very easy,” and 3 students marked “a little hard.” Out of 26 students in the log + conference group, 14 students marked “very easy,” 10 students marked “somewhat easy,” and 2 students marked “a little hard.” These results show that most students who used the log felt the use of the log was easy to follow, but more students in the log + conference group answered it was “very easy” (14) than the students in the log group (6). This reaction suggests that the provided conferences focusing on the log helped students in the log + conference group to feel more positive toward the use of the log.

Table 4.4.

Students’ Answers about the Easiness of the Use of the Content Revision Log (Ranking Questions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Log</th>
<th>Log + conference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very easy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat easy</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little hard</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very hard</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The next four questions examined students’ personal feelings toward the effectiveness of the content revision log. For these questions, most students showed positive reactions, especially about the categories of the log. The second question asked whether they felt the log contained enough content categories. All 26 students in the log group marked “yes” while only two students marked “no” out of 26 in the log + conference group. However, they did not write suggested content categories under the question. In addition, the survey asked if the abbreviations were easy and effective to follow. About 85% of the log group and 92% of the log + conference group students expressed positive reactions. For the question that asked whether their writing improved by using the log, 100% from both the log and log + conference group students answered positively. They also showed their preference on having conferences along with the content revision log. To investigate this issue, a different question was applied for each group. For the log group, the question was “If you had conferences (interviews) using the log after you received written feedback, would it be helpful?”, and 100% of the students in both the log and log + conference groups answered “yes”. In addition to these answers, a minor number of students expressed their desire to have more specific comments adding to the abbreviations of the log and some other students expressed their satisfaction on the use of the log.
Table 4.5.

Students’ Answers on the Surveys (Yes/No Questions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Log</th>
<th>Log + conference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are the areas on the log good enough to give feedback on content to you?</td>
<td>Yes: 26</td>
<td>Yes: 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No: 0</td>
<td>No: 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the abbreviations easy and effective for you?</td>
<td>Yes: 21</td>
<td>Yes: 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No: 5</td>
<td>No: 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think your writing has improved by using the content revision log?</td>
<td>Yes: 26</td>
<td>Yes: 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No: 0</td>
<td>No: 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you had conferences, would it be helpful?</td>
<td>Yes: 26</td>
<td>Yes: 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No: 0</td>
<td>No: 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participating teachers also had responded to similar questions. For the first question about the convenience of providing feedback using the log, both teachers marked “very easy.” For the rest of the four yes/no questions, both of them marked “yes” for each question. They wrote suggestions about the log as well. One teacher said if the log contained the category for “cohesion,” “concluding sentence,” and “clarifying” it would be more effective.

Summary

The results of the analysis supported the hypothesis that the students in the log + conference group improved most compared to the log and the control group. All three groups improved from pre- to post-test on their writing ability; however, there were differences in the level of improvement among those three groups. The log + conference group statistically showed the highest level of improvement followed by the log, and
lastly the control group. The next question examined if there was a significant difference of overall needed revision rates decreasing over time for the log, log + conference group, and control groups. The results showed that the log + conference group had a greater improvement than the log and control groups. The third question was to discover more and less treatable content areas using the log. The log + conference group improved in more categories than did the log and control group. In addition, the log + conference group improved more than did the other two groups. In fact, the log + conference group did not show any improvement in only one category, ORWP (organization within a paragraph). The control group had the highest number of revision categories that they did not reduce the number of needed revisions. Lastly, the results of the survey examined the attitudes of students and teachers toward the logs. The results of this survey demonstrated that students and teachers mostly liked using the log.

Further exploration of the analyses, implications and suggestions for future research are discussed in Chapter 5.
Chapter 5
Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine whether using a content revision log and corresponding conferences improves ESL students’ overall writing proficiency and to determine whether using the log alone or with teacher-student conferences was most effective. The results of this study seem to confirm that using a content revision log both improves writing in general and helps students to reduce the needed revisions for content-level issues. These improvements seemed greater for students who used both logs and writing conferences than for the other students. This chapter interprets the findings of this study, describes its limitations, analyzes theoretical and pedagogical implications, and suggests future research in this area.

Findings

Research Question 1

The first research question examined the effect of the content revision log and corresponding conferences by analyzing the overall progress in writing ability from pre- to post-test in the log, log + conference, and control group. Scores of pre- and post- tests on a written essay were compared to determine gains in writing ability over the three groups. The results show that all three groups improved from pre- to post- test, but the degree of improvement differed for each group. The log + conference group improved the most, followed by the log group, and lastly the control group.

This result corresponds to previous research on the effect of applying logs and conferences to improve ESL students’ writing proficiency (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999; Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisenand, 1993; Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985). These previous studies emphasized the benefit for
developing cognitive monitoring and self-awareness through using an error tallying log (Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisendand, 1993). In addition, previous research has argued that providing conferences gives opportunities for students to negotiate and understand their writing issues and produce more successful revisions. The results of this study demonstrated a positive effect of applying both methods of feedback on ESL students’ writing. The difference between this study and others is that this is the first study to determine that using a log to record content-based needed revisions also improves student writing. Previous studies have only examined the effect of logs on improving surface- or form-based errors.

These results suggest that applying the content revision log may have helped the subjects track their frequent needed revisions in content issues and reduce them. Right after they received the written feedback, the students in the log and the log + conference group were asked to record the categories of teacher’s comments on the content revision log, and the intentions of this process was for helping them become aware of their academic outcomes and to reduce their recurrence.

The greater positive results of the log + conference and log group students’ improvement from pre- to post-test compared to the control group may also reflect the effectiveness of the log in terms of providing feedback. Previous research mentions the great need of having guidelines for teachers to have them focus on content (Butturff & Sommers, 1980). One of the purposes of applying the content revision log in this study was to provide a guideline to teachers, and the results of this study suggest that teachers were able to have more consistent and helpful feedback on content issues without having to also focus on form features.
Additionally, these results suggest that the most effective method of using a content revision log is to have teachers also focus on the log during student conferences. The conferences may have enabled clarifying the intention of the students and the teachers’ feedback along with the content revision log. Although previous research recommends holding conferences to have interactions, negotiation, and opportunities for clarifying teachers and students’ intentions, there has not been any formatted guideline for a conference session. The participating teacher and students of the log + conference group were asked to have conferences based on the issue of the content revision log, so they could concentrate on the major problems in content. Regarding this process, the greater positive results of the log + conference group may prove the effectiveness of referring to the log during conferences.

Although previous research emphasizes the benefit of applying logs to develop greater self-awareness, academic monitoring, and reducing the recurrence of frequent errors (Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage & Whisenand, 1993), there has not been any previous research that studies the effect of logs in content issues in ESL writing. Therefore, the analysis of this study is especially significant to demonstrate the effect of applying logs in content issues to develop ESL students’ overall writing proficiency.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question of this study explored whether using a content revision log helped students decrease their overall needed revision rates in content features over time (i.e., from draft 1 to draft 2 across all three papers and from paper 1 to paper 3). The analysis of the data from this research showed that all three groups, the log, log + conference, and control groups, differed from pre- to post-test on the number of
needed revisions they had, but the log + conference group improved more than the log and control groups. This means that the log + conference group had a greater difference from pre- to post-test than did the log and the control groups.

One of the hypotheses of this study was that the content revision log may help students be aware of significant needed content-based revisions they frequently make and have greater self-monitoring of these issues. The average number of marks throughout the drafts demonstrates each group reduced the amount number of marks throughout paper 1 to paper 3 as well as draft 1 to draft 2, except one case that the log group showed greater number of marks in paper 3 – draft 1 (11.18) than in paper 2 – draft 1 (9.07). There was a noticeable result in the degree of progress between paper 1 – draft 1 and paper 2- draft 1. Reducing the number of marks from draft 1 to draft 2 would be easier than reducing the marks from paper 1 to paper 2 since students can make changes following the teacher’s feedback from draft 1 to draft 2. As regarding this issue, the improvement of the log and the log + conferences group throughout paper 1 – draft 1 to paper 2 – draft 1, which showed noticeable improvement compared to the control group, could demonstrate the significant effect of the content revision log. The log group reduced the number of teacher’s comments by 43.94% and the log + conference group 32.45% from paper 1- draft 1 to paper 2- draft 1 while the control group reduced only 21.14%. This result may suggest the positive effect of logs in terms of enabling awareness and monitoring. Previous research has commented on the importance of enhancing metacognitive skills of students to monitor their academic outcomes (Nist & Kirby, 1986; Weinstein, Goetz, & Alexander, 1988), and the benefit for cognitive monitoring through logs for both students and teachers (Commander & Smith, 1996;
Savage & Whisenand, 1993). The result of this study could support this hypothesis, and this finding is especially meaningful in that this study was the first to examine the effect of applying logs in content-based areas. Even in this first attempt we see positive results in the development of self-awareness and academic progress.

Earlier research also recommends applying conferences for feedback. This research purports that holding conferences facilitates the interaction between teachers and students and develops students’ metacognitive awareness in the process, gives an opportunity to participate in revisions, and clarify their teachers’ responses (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985). Adding to the effect of holding conferences itself, the effect of using the content revision log during the conference sessions was examined in this study compared to holding conferences without using the content revision log. For teachers, there was a great need of having guidelines to follow while providing feedback (Zamel, 1985) as well students’ need of a tool for monitoring academic outcomes. Therefore, referencing the content revision log during the conference session was expected to bring the most significant result since both the teacher and students had guidelines to discuss and negotiate during the conference session. In order to examine this effect, the other two groups had conferences without referencing the content revision log. The results of this study positively proved this expectation. The log + conference group showed the highest progress in the scores of pre- and post- tests compared to the log and control group. This finding suggests the positive effect of holding conferences along with a guideline that delineates the major areas of revision. It may also help both teachers and students to have something to focus on in the conference session.
**Research Question 3**

The third set of findings were meant to examine whether learners were better able to improve on some content areas more than in others and whether these differences may have been related to the treatment group they were in (log, log + conference, or control group). Students in the log, log + conference, and the control groups were able to improve in the following content categories: TRS (Transitions for sentences), TRP (Transitions for paragraphs), WC (Word choice), TS (Topic sentence), TH (Thesis statement), IR (Irrelevant Information), SP (Supporting points) and EX (Examples). For one of the content categories, only the learners who had both logs and conferences improved in this area: RR (Repetitive/ Redundant). In the other two categories (OROP-logical order of paragraphs and UN-Unity within a single paragraph), the log and the log + conference group improved from pre- to post-test better than the control group. This result might suggest the place where treatment with the log + conference is more effective than the other two types of feedback (the log only and the control groups). The students who used both the log and held conferences might have a better chance to recognize and develop needed revisions in this particular area (Repetitive/ Redundant).

In two other content categories (OROP-logical order of paragraphs and UN-Unity within a single paragraph), the log and the log + conference group improved from pre- to post-test more than the control group. This result might suggest the specific content categories where the content revision log helps students improve in content issues. However, no group seemed to improve in the content category, ORWP (Organization within paragraphs) over time—this might be a place where treatment with the log or the log + conference is not enough.
Although the greatest number of teacher’s comments occurred with the use of word choice among three groups (30.38% in the log group, 26.95% in the log + conference group, and 34.81% in the control group), students were able to considerably reduce the number of comments in this category. In contrast, although the number of needed revisions for logical order within paragraphs (ORWP) and logical order of paragraphs (OROP) were comparably lower (range: 0.08% to 7.57%), students did not make a significant improvement from first to the second draft in these areas. However, if the nature of the categories were considered, the great and small rates of decreasing number of needed revisions under each different category are be understandable; for example, “word choice” should be marked every time the student made an inappropriate word choice while “Unity within a single paragraph” can only be marked once per paragraph. This may explain why it was easier to improve in “word choice” than in unity in a paragraph. Changing a word to fit into the content is likely easier than rearranging the sentences or paragraphs since working on organization requires more critical thinking. Therefore, the categories under “Word,” TRS (Transitions for sentences), TRP (Transitions for paragraphs), and WC (Word choice), could be named minor issues, and the categories under “Paragraph,” ORWP (Logical order within paragraphs), OROP (Logical order of paragraphs), and UN (Unity within a single paragraph) could be named major issues. Based on this understanding, the analyzed data of this study demonstrates an interesting finding; the groups with the content revision log (the log and the log + conference group) have reduced their number of needed revisions in the major categories (OROP, and UN) better than the control group. This finding may be significant evidence
that using logs helps in content issues in writing, especially in reducing the number of
needed revisions in major issues.

The log + conference group also showed a greater improvement in three
categories—TRP (transitional words for paragraphs), TS (topic sentence), and RR
(repetitive/ redundant)—compared to the other two groups. The difference may come
from the existence of the content revision log during a conference session. Both the
teacher and student in the group had one more opportunity to examine suggested
revisions when referencing the log and could discuss these issues. Therefore, referencing
the content revision log may result in more categories where needed revisions are
treatable.

Examining more or less treatable content categories after using a content revision
log has been studied, but only in grammatical categories. In Bitchener et al.’s (2005)
study, which focused on providing written feedback and individual conferences in form
features, they found that the students in the two feedback components showed
significantly greater accuracy in the use of the simple past tense and definite articles, but
not with the use of prepositions. This result was not surprising since some researchers
including Ferris (1999) already suggested that the former are more “treatable” areas than
the latter. Likewise, the results from this research also suggest that there are more and
less “treatable” content categories. However, as mentioned in chapter 2, there has not
been any empirical research on the topic of the use of the log in content as well as less
and more treatable content categories using a log or conference.
Research Question 4

The last research question examined teachers’ and students’ opinions about using the content revision log. The results of the survey from the log and log + conference group showed that most students and teachers felt it was easy to use the log, but more students (14) in the log + conference group answered it was “very easy” than in the log only group (6). Although students in both groups had the same type and amount of training, more students in the log + conference group felt it was easier to use the log. This was not particularly surprising since the students in the log + conference group were able to refer the content revision log during a conference but not the students in the log group. Therefore, the students in the log + conference group had more opportunities to ask about the meaning of the categories on the log.

Next, for the questions about effectiveness of the content revision log, most students thought the categories on the log were effective. However, for this same question, one teacher suggested that if there were the categories for “cohesion,” “concluding sentence”, and “clarifying,” the content log would be more effective. This suggestion was significant since they felt the categories of the log were not good enough to provide feedback on content. On the log, the category UN (unity within a single paragraph) was meant to cover cohesion, but the teacher’s suggestion was important and may be used in later use of the content revision log. This category could be added under the category “content.” Also, this same teacher commented that a category called “concluding sentence” would be helpful since this is one of the frequent areas that students missed or did not write properly. This category could be included under the category “sentence” along with “topic sentence” and “thesis statement.”
The last suggestion given by a teacher was about “clarifying.” Although, the purpose of this research was focused on content not grammar, writing a sentence in a correct structure is still very significant to convey meaning. However, a lot of times the students wrote in a broken structure or with ineffective vocabulary so they did not convey their meaning clearly. Consequently, this pattern of error disrupted the flow of the essay and could also be considered important for content-level revisions. Actually, this type of revision category was not only related in terms of grammar but content since “clarifying” contains revising a word or expression as well. Therefore, this category also could be included under the category of “sentence.”

The two participating teachers also suggested that writing additional comments beside the abbreviation of the log helped better than just writing the abbreviation. For example, if a student needed to work on a topic sentence, specifically about inserting key words, but if the teacher only wrote “TS”, the student may have ignored the feedback since they did not understand the point, or could have misunderstood the focus of the feedback (for example, instead of inserting key words in the sentence, they could change the topic itself, change the structure, or change the content). Therefore, writing specific comments is a necessary process in addition to writing the abbreviation.

**Implications**

The results of this study have both theoretical and pedagogical implications. Both are discussed below.

*Theoretical Implications*

There have been many studies that discuss the benefit of applying logs and conferences in ESL writing. Mostly they comment on the importance of enhancing
metacognitive skills of students to monitor their academic outcomes (Commander & Smith, 1996; Savage and Whisenand, 1993; Nist & Kirby, 1986; Weinstein, Goetz, & Alexander, 1988). Previous research also recommends applying conferences as describing the benefit of facilitating the interaction between teachers and students, developing students’ metacognitive awareness in the process, providing an opportunity to participate in revisions, and clarifying their teachers’ responses (Conrad & Goldstein, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985). Although previous studies have demonstrated the positive effects of using logs and conferences, there has not been any research that examines the effect of applying logs in content issues. Therefore, there has been a great need of proving the theoretical assumption that using logs for content issues is also important.

Based on previous research, it was hypothesized that applying logs in content-based feedback would also help students develop their writing proficiency as well as their metacognitive awareness of their academic outcomes. Students need to make certain revisions repeatedly in content as well as grammar even though they have learned certain rules to organize and to develop an essay. The results of this study suggest the positive effect of logs is not only useful for form features but also for content issues. It also suggests that referencing the content revision log during conference sessions may be an effective guide to both the teacher and student since they can discuss the suggested revisions marked on the log. It also proves the assumption that referencing the content revision log during the conference session may be an effective guideline to both the teacher and student since they could discuss based on the tallied number of revisions on the log. In addition, the positive results of the log only group compared to the control
group show that applying the content revision log itself still benefited students’ writing proficiency.

**Pedagogical Implications**

As stated previously, using the content revision log and holding conferences along with the log are effective ways of providing feedback on students’ writing. In addition, the content revision log may act as a guideline for teachers to help them keep their intended focus on content issues without being distracted by systematically circling and crossing out grammatical issues. Likewise, throughout the use of the content revision log, teachers can increase their awareness and have a track that guides what they need to focus on for providing feedback. However, to increase the effectiveness of the content revision log, teachers should be aware of some aspects of using the logs.

First, teachers should be trained on how to use the content revision log. Since students only count the abbreviations of the categories and tally the number on the content revision log, it is important to have consistent use of writing abbreviations to help students track their number of needed revisions. For example, there is a case that a student needs to work on a topic sentence, but the teacher forgets to write the abbreviation, and only gives comments in the margin. Since the student does not see any abbreviation for the issue, he does not count it as a needed revision on the log and would therefore not be able to track this type of needed revision on the log. Therefore, in order to increase the benefits from the content revision log, teachers should fully understand the categories of the log and be accustomed to providing feedback using the log.
Teachers also should help students keep the content revision log without losing or forgetting it. In the beginning of a semester, teachers should firmly decide whether the students or the teacher will keep the log. Since one of the purposes of the content revision log is to help students’ metacognitive awareness on their frequent areas of needed revision, asking students to record and tally the number of needed revisions may be a better idea; however, the teacher also should prevent students from losing the log or from forgetting to record the suggested revisions. For example, teachers may hand out the log to each student when they receive the written feedback with abbreviations of the categories of the log, ask them to count the number of needed revisions and record them on the log, collect the logs, and repeat the same process in the future. However, if the teacher wants to give students more opportunities to use the content revision log as a guideline, he can also let students keep the log but arrange a certain rule to prevent students from losing or forgetting it.

Teachers also need to consider if they need to provide additional comments beside the abbreviation of the content revision log. They should remember the initial purpose of using the content revision log is to help students improve their writing proficiency. Therefore, if there is a need of providing additional comments, they should explain how students can improve in a particular area. Occasionally writing only simple abbreviations may not be an ideal way of providing feedback. For example, if a student makes a mistake writing a topic sentence, the teacher writes the abbreviation “TS” and gives an additional comment “This sentence is too detailed and does not cover the whole paragraph. Find the key words of this paragraph and rewrite this including the key words.” This additional comment would be much clearer to the student. Therefore, if
writing only an abbreviation of the content revision log may be ambiguous, teachers should consider giving additional comments.

Based on the results of this study, teachers also could benefit from referencing the content revision log during a conference session. Although the other two groups (the log and control groups) had a conference after each written feedback, they did not have the content revision log during a conference while the log + conference group was required to refer to it. Therefore, the most significant progress of the log + conference group may prove the positive effect of referencing the content revision log during a conference. In order to have the positive effect of referencing the content revision log during a conference, teachers and students should examine the tallied number of needed revisions on the log and discuss them. Teachers may ask students to examine the content revision log prior to the conference session and bring major questions that they want to negotiate or discuss.

Within establishing the standards mentioned above, the effect of the content revision log and conferences may bring more significant results in the development of students’ writing proficiency.

**Limitations**

Although this study provided evidence for the effectiveness of using content revision logs in teaching ESL writing, several limitations must also be discussed. Therefore, in future research, certain issues should be considered, regulated, and modified.

First, individual teacher’s teaching and proving feedback style was variable. Although they all agreed to participate to this study and followed the core processes of
In this study, there were still some uncontrolled aspects. In the first semester, the control group’s teacher assigned less academic writing topics for two of the three writing assignments examined. These topics did not require a formal academic organization since students were asked to describe and narrate a story. This made using the categories of the content revision log difficult (such as whether or not the students had a topic sentence or thesis statement). Consequently, the number of the tallied number of suggested revisions from this group that was supposed to answer for Question 2 and 3 in this study had less reliability.

Another limitation to this study was that, although this study sought to examine the different effect of applying the log + conference and the log only, the log group also had to have conferences due to the policies of the English Language Center. The ELC required having five conferences every semester. Three out of the five were for an interview for each paper. Therefore, although the teacher of the log and the control group did not refer the log during conferences, they still discussed focusing on content issues. What is interesting about this, however, is that despite all three groups having writing conferences, it was still the log + conference group that made the most gains in writing ability and in reducing total number of needed revisions. Therefore, these results suggest that having students focus and discuss the log may have been more effective than having conferences without a content revision log.

Another limitation of the study was from the method of data collection. After the teachers returned the paper with feedback, the students were asked to count the number of the suggested revisions and to record them on the log. Although the students were assigned to do that in class for about 3-5 minutes, still some of them were not diligent or
miscounted or skipped some marks. The reason that the students were asked to tally the number by themselves was to give them the opportunity to recognize in what areas they needed content revisions. However, 21 students were excluded from this study because they failed to track the number of suggested revisions draft by draft. In addition, the teachers also needed to recount the number of revisions since some students had a tendency to skip or miss recording the number of suggested revisions on the log. (See Appendix L for one of the graded essays following the content revision log.)

Another limitation of the study was that the grading process of the pre- and post-tests did not include an inter rater; only the teacher of each group graded their students’ pre- and post- tests. Although they used the same rubric (the 30-minute essay grading system), individual teacher might give different scores on the same essay. If this study included inter raters, Question 1 would have more reliable results.

**Directions for Future Research**

The results of this study suggest several possibilities for future research in this area. For example, one future study could examine how teachers and students can more effectively use the content revision log, such as through training. Also, a teacher and student training packet for the use of the log could be created to help them more successfully apply the log.

Another possible topic for future study is examining the discourse of conferences after the use of the log. It can also study the relationship between the log and students’ comprehension and recognition of their frequent needed revisions, and if there is negotiation in the issue of content between the teacher and student.
Future research can also examine if providing feedback focused on content issues on the first draft using a type of content revision log and providing feedback focused on form features on the second draft brings any different results. More studies should be conducted to examine less and more treatable categories of content using a log. Finally, more studies could support the effect of a content log along with conferences.

**General Conclusions**

Applying a log to develop content has not been researched in the field of ESL writing. Therefore, it is hoped that this study opens another effective way of providing writing feedback. Although there were some limitations in the process of this research, the results of this study have suggested the effectiveness of the content revision log and the positive results of using both logs and conferences for improving students’ writing. In addition, this research found that the treatment groups with the content revision log more significantly improved in content issues, especially those that require more complicated cognitive processes compared to the control group. Through using the content revision log and referencing it in a conference session, teachers also can increase their focus on providing feedback on content without being disrupted by providing feedback on form features. In addition, students also can increase their recognition of the needed revision area in content and have more chances to improve in this area.
References


Appendix A:  
Content Revision Log

Grade Record

<table>
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<th>Essay</th>
<th>Draft</th>
<th>Topic</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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Content (Content Revision Sheet)

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<tr>
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<th>Essay 3</th>
<th>Area Total Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>TRP</td>
<td>WC</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Sentence</td>
<td>TS</td>
<td>TH</td>
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<td>Paragraph</td>
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<td>OROP</td>
<td>UN</td>
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<td>SP</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draft</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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</table>
Definitions of the Abbreviations

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<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Specific Area</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Transitions (for sentences)</td>
<td>TRS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transitions (for paragraphs)</td>
<td>TRP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word Choice</td>
<td>WC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>Topic Sentence</td>
<td>TS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thesis Statement</td>
<td>TH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph</td>
<td>Order: logical order within paragraphs</td>
<td>ORWP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Order: logical order of paragraphs (in the paper)</td>
<td>OROP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unity within a single paragraph</td>
<td>UN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Irrelevant Information</td>
<td>IR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adding Details: how to balance supporting points</td>
<td>SP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adding Details: have appropriate examples</td>
<td>EX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetitive/ Redundant</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definitions:

1. Transitions for words (TRW): Students do not have a transition word or do not use a proper transition word in the context.
   Ex) Independence day is a big holiday in Switzerland. __TRW__ People celebrate the day with many events on the day.

2. Transitions for paragraphs (TRP): Students did not have a transition word or did not use a proper transition word to start a new paragraph.
   Ex) Have you ever heard about nuclear effects? These days, we are exposed to nuclear effects without alerts. Nuclear is made from natural resources for alternative energy because nuclear reaction makes huge energy instead of other energies like water, wind, solar and so on. As nuclear power spread out in our lives, we have a lot of problems in our natures, world wars, and future environment. Now we have to observe the effects of nuclear power carefully, so we can prevent the side effects from nuclear power.
   __TRP__ Radioactivity is harmful in the world. Generally, when people are exposed more than six hundred REM (measurement unit of radioactivity),......

3. Word Choice (WC): Students did not use an effective word or a wrong word.
   Ex) A lot of families go to the forest to have a barbeque party, or they gave (WC) time to go swimming.
4. Topic Sentence (TS): Students did not have a topic sentence in the beginning of a paragraph, or the topic sentence was not proper for the paragraph (it did not cover the details in the paragraph).

   Ex) People do not work on Independence Day. (TS) A lot of families go to the forest to have a barbecue party, or they go to the river to swim. Some of people go to the place called Ruetli. It is in the mountain where is in the middle of Switzerland. It is the place where our ancestors wrote a letter that they promised they would protect our nation. Every year, a speaker gives a speech in the place.

5. Thesis Statement (TH): There was not thesis statement, or the thesis statement was not effective.

   Ex) They make big fires on the top of mountains and big fireworks in the city. (TH) (The student wrote about Independence Day, but he only wrote having fires and fireworks. In addition, he did not have the key term “Independence Day”. Next, in the body paragraphs, the student wrote about other activities besides having fires and fireworks on Independence Day. Therefore, the TH is not effective).

6. Order: Logical order within paragraphs (ORWP): In a paragraph, the student did not arrange sentences effectively.

   Ex) Making a ceramic plate has many steps. The clay should be trimmed and dried. Then, you can bring the clay to a firing place. People should wedge the clay to have consistency first. They also need to choose the proper clay that has moisture and good color that presents the quality of the clay. (ORWP)

   → Making a ceramic plate has many steps. First, they need to choose the proper clay that has moisture and good color that presents the quality of the clay. Then, they should wedge the clay to have consistency. The clay also should be trimmed and dried. Last, they can bring the clay to a firing place.

7. Order: Logical order of paragraphs in the paper (OROP): The paragraphs are not arranged effectively. For example, the second body paragraph would be better if it was arranged to the first body paragraph.

8. Unity within a single paragraph (UN): In a single paragraph, students wrote about several things that are not related to the topic sentence, so it confuses the focus of the paragraph.

   Ex) On Independence Day, most people do not work because it is our big holiday day. The stores and all other business are closed. There is a famous place called Ruetli. It is in the mountains in the middle of Switzerland. It is the place where our ancestors wrote a letter that they promised to protect our nation. Every year in Ruetli, there is a speech from one of the leaders in Switzerland. (UN) → The topic sentence introduced that most people have a day
off on the day, but in the middle of sentence, the student started talking about the place, Ruetli, and the readers cannot see the unity of information in the same paragraph.

9. Irrelevant Information (IR): The student wrote unnecessary information in a paragraph that confused the purpose of the paragraph and the essay.
   Ex) Making a ceramic plate has many steps. First, people need to choose the proper clay that has moisture and good color that presents the good quality of the clay. People should wedge the clay to have consistency first. Next, the clay should be trimmed and dried well. The use of ceramic plates is historical. (IR) Then, they can bring the clay to a firing place.

10. Adding Details: how to balance supporting points (SP): The supporting points were not effective, or the supporting details were not enough.
   Ex) People in Switzerland celebrate Independence Day with a lot of events in monumental places. They go swimming, have a barbeque party, and have fun with their families. On the day, everyone in Switzerland does not have to go to work but has fun. I also like having a lot of events on the day. (SP) → In the topic sentence, the student mentioned about having events on monumental places, but he talked about different activities that people enjoyed.

11. Adding Details: have appropriate examples (EX): The example is not effective, or there is no example.
   Ex) Second, to be a successful student and a hard worker, one needs to learn how to manage time efficiently. There are many tasks for students to accomplish it. (EX) Therefore, to learn time management skills, having a part time job would help them to develop the skill.

12. Repetitive/Redundant (RR): The words or sentences basically have the same meaning, so the student did not need to repeat it.
   Ex) To be a successful student and a hard worker, one needs to learn how to manage time efficiently. Learning time management skills through working helps a student to study effectively. (RR)
Appendix B

Persuasive Essay Scoring Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Requirements:</strong> Contains all notes, drafts, and final draft.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus:</strong> Your essay establishes its central idea clearly and effectively in the opening paragraph and maintains this focus throughout the essay. Each paragraph is logically linked to the main idea and all sentences within the paragraphs serve to further develop and maintain this focus.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Argument:</strong> I make a claim and explain why it is controversial, giving clear and accurate reasons in support of my claim.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conventions:</strong> Your essay's prose is written in grammatically correct English; it has no spelling or grammatical errors; it shows a sound understanding of the structure of a good sentence and paragraph.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Organization:</strong> Your ideas follow and relate to each other in a logical and effective way. Information is organized within the sentence and paragraph, as well as the paper itself, for maximum rhetorical effectiveness. Also means ideas and topics within the essay are balanced.</td>
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<td><strong>Insight:</strong> The degree to which your shows insight into your theme. Your essay explores your subject in all its complexity and reveals and examines the nature of that complexity in your essay. Such insights should not be implied but revealed and developed through good examples from the texts.</td>
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<td><strong>Development:</strong> Your essay uses specific, concrete examples from the text to illustrate the ideas your essay develops. The examples are clearly cited (e.g., &quot;In Jasmine, Bharati Mukherjee says that America has changed...&quot;)</td>
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<td><strong>Process:</strong> Refers to evidence of revision, planning (e.g., brainstorming or clusters, outlines or notes) and careful work (e.g., does it look like it was written or created at the last minute?). Also relates to your ability to work in writing response groups throughout the different stages of the writing process.</td>
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<td><strong>Benchmark:</strong> Quality of this work in relation to what I expect you to be able to do in this class at this time on such an assignment.</td>
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**GRADE**

**COMMENTS**
Appendix C:
30-minute Essay Grading System

Essay topic_________________________________

Content: 1 2 3 4
- Your writing contains a lot of interesting ideas.
- Your writing shows excellent thinking and effort.

Organization: 1 2 3 4
- You have a clear purpose for writing.
- You use transitions appropriately.
- You put your paragraphs in a logical order.
- You put the ideas in each paragraph in a logical order.

Vocabulary: 1 2 3 4
- You use a good variety of words.
- You use academic words in your writing.

Grammar: 1 2 3 4
- Your grammar has almost no errors.
- You use difficult and complex grammar.
Appendix D:
Student Survey for the Log + Conference Group

1. Is it easy to understand feedback using the content revision log?
   a. Very easy
   b. Somewhat easy
   c. A little hard
   d. Very hard
   e. Give some opinions to develop the log

2. Are the areas on the content revision log good enough to give feedback on content to you?
   a. Yes
   b. No (If so, what areas can we include?)

3. Are the abbreviations easy and effective for you? (e.g. WC for word choice)
   a. Yes
   b. No (If so, please give the abbreviation that is not effective and give an idea for the substitute)

4. Do you think you have been improved the areas that you used to have needed revisions by using the content revision log? (Did you reduce the number of needed revisions by using the log?)
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. When you had conferences (interviews) using the content revision log after you received written feedback, was it helpful?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   If, you answered YES, how did it help?

   If you answered NO, how did it not help?

6. Give your general opinions and suggestions either about the log or conferences and for the improvement.
Appendix E:  
Student Survey for the Log Group

1. Is it easy to understand feedback using the content revision log?  
   a. Very easy 
   b. Somewhat easy 
   c. A little hard 
   d. Very hard 
   e. Give some opinions to develop the log

2. Are the areas on the content revision log good enough to give feedback on content to you?  
   a. Yes 
   b. No (If so, what areas can we include?)

3. Are the abbreviations easy and effective for you? (e.g. WC for word choice)  
   a. Yes 
   b. No (If so, please give the abbreviation that is not effective and give an idea for the substitute)

4. Do you think you have been improved the areas that you used to have needed revisions by using the content revision log? (Did you reduce the number of needed revisions by using the log?)  
   a. Yes 
   b. No

5. If you had conferences (interviews) using the log after you received written feedback, would it be helpful?  
   a. Yes 
   b. No

6. Give your general opinions and suggestions about the log for the improvement.
Appendix F: 
Teacher Survey for the Log + Conference Group

1. Is it easy to give feedback using the content revision log? 
   a. Very easy 
   b. Somewhat easy 
   c. A little hard 
   d. Very hard 
   e. Give some opinions to develop the log for convenient

2. Are the areas on the content revision log good enough to give feedback on content to Level 3 students? 
   a. Yes 
   b. No (If so, what areas can we include?)

3. Are the abbreviations easy and effective for students? (e.g. TRW for transitions) 
   a. Yes 
   b. No (If so, please give the abbreviation that is not effective and give an idea for the substitute)

4. Can you see your students have been improved the areas that they used to have needed revisions by using the content revision log? (Did they reduce the number needed revisions by using the log?) 
   a. Yes 
   b. No

5. When you had face-to-face conferences with students, did you feel it was helpful? 
   a. Yes 
   b. No 
   If you answered YES, how did it help? 

   If you answered NO, how did it not help? 

6. Give your general opinions about the log and suggestions for the improvement.
Appendix G:
Teacher Survey for the Log Group

1. Is it easy to give feedback using the content revision log?
   a. Very easy
   b. Somewhat easy
   c. A little hard
   d. Very hard
   e. Give some opinions to develop the log for convenient

2. Are the areas on the content revision log good enough to give feedback on content to Level 3 students?
   a. Yes
   b. No (If so, what areas can we include?)

3. Are the abbreviations easy and effective for students? (e.g. TRW for transitions)
   a. Yes
   b. No (If so, please give the abbreviation that is not effective and give an idea for the substitute)

4. Can you see your students have been improved the areas that they used to have needed revisions by using the content revision log? (Did they reduce the number of needed revisions by using the log?)
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. If students have had face-to-face conferences with a teacher after they receive written feedback using the log, would it be helpful?
   a. Yes
   b. No

6. Give your general opinions about the log and suggestions for the improvement.
### Appendix H:
Results of Pre- and Post- Test

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| Average | 2.77  | 3.24  | Average | 2.63  | 3.22  | Average | 3.18  | 3.30  |
Appendix I:
Total Number of Needed Content Revisions over the Semester (Log Group)

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Average 16.18 6.18 9.07 4.74 11.18 3.48
Appendix J:  
Total Number of Needed Content Revisions over the Semester (Log + Conference Group)

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Appendix L:
One of the Graded Essays Following the Content Revision Log

Church schools & Public schools

Did you ever see the difference between church schools and public schools? Well, there is a lot of difference between these two kinds of schools and it is very important to see which one of those is the most appropriate for you. In both schools teach you a lot of important things but some of the most important things that influence in your learning are: the teachers, classmates and the atmosphere, I mean the environment where you are. These are some particular things inside the schools that make you feel comfortable and make that you have a reason to continue assisting to school and influence your learning.

First of all, teachers are one of the most important reasons for students in school. Sometimes teachers can be good persons. In the other hand, sometimes not. Similar to church school teachers, public school teachers teach with good techniques that make the students learn a lot of important knowledge. They both church school teachers and public school teachers are trying to help you when you get bad grades. They also are going to give you their knowledge. Church school teachers are different from public school teachers on the way they teach students. While church school teachers are teaching you with patience, public school teachers don’t have enough patience to teach you. And sometimes one of these reasons made that you don’t want to go to school because you have to hold the behavior of your teachers.

Another reason between church schools and public schools are the students. They are also younger and don’t think very well in their facts before they act.