

What Happens in the Process of Revision? – A Comparative Analysis of the First and Second Drafts of Students' Essays*

Yutaka Kuroiwa

**Key words : English, Writing, Revision, Process Approach, Discovery,
Feedback**

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to observe what happens in the process of revision. We often revise what we write. When we write an essay or a paper, we can rarely afford to dispense with revision. Indeed, revision is an integral part of writing. However, what we know about the revision process is rather limited. This study is an attempt to have a close look at the process of revision.

The study compares the first and second drafts of student essays in order to observe the changes made in the process of revision. The study employs the sentence as the unit of analysis and gauges the changes based on a sentence typology and a revision process model. The participants of the study were 14 Japanese junior college students who took my English writing course in 2000. They wrote two different essays, and each essay was revised in response to feedback. The primary objective of the study lies in observing the revision process, not in judging the quality of the writing. The relation between revision and quality, therefore, is beyond the scope of this study.

This study is also an attempt to introduce the process approach to an English writing classroom. The process approach is an attractive alternative for Japanese college students who want to learn English writing in a non-exam-oriented manner. The approach allows them to express themselves and revise their texts to arrive at what they mean. This study is intended to help the students discover the significance of revision through writing activities based on the process approach.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 The Process Approach

The process approach views discovering and expressing ideas as one of the most important objectives of ESL/EFL writing. In this view, content is more important than form. According to Silva (1990), in the process approach, “text is a product – a secondary, derivative concern, whose form is a function of its content and purpose” (p. 16). The process approach also stresses the importance of the process of writing, as opposed to the product of writing, such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing. Referring to this principle of the process approach, Berlin (1988) states that writing is “an art, a creative act in which the process – the discovery of the true self – is as important as the product” (p. 484).

The process approach is also a learner-centered approach since it sees the writer as the center of attention. Johns (1990) discusses three different roles of the writer defined in three different approaches to writing. She maintains that the process approach sees the writer as a creator who is the focus of practice and theory, while the interactive approach regards the writer as an interactant who creates text in dialogue with the reader. On the other hand, in the social constructionist view, “knowledge, language, and the nature of discourse are determined for the writer by the discourse community for

whom the writer is producing text” (p. 28). In this view, the writer is given less autonomy and control over the text.

2.2 The Process of Writing

While many researchers discuss advantages of the process approach, they do not fully explain what exactly constitutes the process of writing. The writing process is an extremely complicated cognitive process which is not easily accessible even for experienced researchers and educators. White and Arndt (1991) admit the difficulty inherent in the understanding of the writing process, saying that “we have to find out what actually goes on when people write. And this is notoriously difficult” (p. 3). Other researchers also voice the difficulty of identifying the writing process. Lannon (1989), for instance, calls the writing process “mysterious and unpredictable” (p. 70).

A common approach intended to illustrate how we write is to divide the writing process into a series of different steps. According to Murray (1990), when we write, five primary activities of collecting, focusing, ordering, drafting, and clarifying are taking place. Another important argument of his model is that these five activities are taking place in a recursive manner. White and Arndt (1991), on the other hand, argue that the writing process is basically composed of six different activities, namely generating ideas, focusing, structuring, drafting, evaluating, and rewriting. In this model of the writing process, the elements of the process are connected and interactive. A similar view is held by Rackham (1980) who divides the writing process into six steps from perception of the subject to rewriting, and to editing. After the discussion of individual steps, he suggests that we combine the steps in “an act of synthesis” (p. 8) since we cannot produce an excellent piece of writing simply by following each step. What is characteristic of these three models is that different components of the writing process do not

take place in a fixed linear order. They typically take place recursively, concurrently, and interactively. Another common characteristic of these models is that the act of revising is included in the process as an indispensable step although the terminology used to mean revision is different. This characteristic underscores the importance of focusing on revision as a key element of the writing process.

2.3 Revision

Most of the literature which discusses the process of writing recognizes the importance of revision. Zinsser (1994), for instance, goes as far as to say that “rewriting is the essence of writing well – where the game is won or lost” (p. 187), while Lannon (1989) asserts that “good writers win the battle by revising as often as needed” (p. 69). Reid (1988) also places emphasis on revision by juxtaposing the writing and revising processes.

However, the meaning of revision seems to differ slightly from researcher to researcher. Lannon (1989) defines revision in simple terms, saying that “it always means rethinking” (p. 70), and assumes that major revision takes place in terms of content, organization, and style. Reid (1988) has a similar perspective as he states that the revision process is filled with ‘re’ words such as reread, reflect, reconsider, and rewrite. He also points out the recursive nature of revision, saying that “revision takes place throughout the writing process” (p. 79). Schenck (1988) notes that revision, editing, and proofreading are different parts of the writing process in that revision means “rewriting to improve major points : development, organization, and clarity” (p. 50). Elbow (1998) posits a unique perspective which holds that the act of revision is partly attributable to the temperament of the writer. He assumes that we spend a lot of time revising partly because we are worried about how readers will react. Rackham (1980) provides another interesting insight, noting that “all of us rewrite until the shape of a subject

begins to find its wholeness” (p.6). This statement implies that revision is an act of discovery.

2.4 Writing as an Act of Discovery

One of the principles of the process approach is that writing is an act of discovery. This view of writing is shared among many researchers who support the process approach. Murray (1990), for instance, argues that people write “to learn, to explore, to discover, to hear themselves saying what they do not expect to say” (p.3). Raimes (1983) assumes that we discover new ideas or new meanings in the process of writing when she holds that “composing means expressing ideas, conveying meaning” (p. 261). However, these statements do not identify what we actually discover when we are engaged in the act of writing. We may discover something that is neither a new idea nor a new meaning. For instance, when we come up with a good sentence that best expresses what we want to say, we may want to refer to this as a discovery. When we find a more logical organization that conveys our message in a more convincing manner, this process may also deserve to be called a discovery. On the other hand, depending on the definition of discovery or what we write, it is also possible to argue that we discover nothing when we compose. Casanave (1988), for instance, maintains that we make no discovery when we write on a topic we are quite familiar with, or when we write a resume or a letter to family.

2.5 Feedback

ESL learners often rely on teacher feedback when they revise what they write. One of the important issues concerning teacher feedback is how to respond to the form and content of students’ texts. A study conducted with 134 Japanese college students (Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986) tried four different types of feedback, which varied from complete correction with models to marginal correction indicating the number of errors per line, in

order to see if different kinds of feedback have different effects on accuracy, fluency, and complexity. The results of the study show that less time-consuming error correction may suffice to improve students' texts, and that improvement is independent of the type of feedback. Fathman and Whalley (1990) also tried four different kinds of feedback (no feedback, feedback on grammar, feedback on content, and feedback on grammar and content) on the first drafts of student writing and found that content improved in the revised drafts regardless of the type of treatment.

Some studies assess the effect of teacher feedback from the viewpoint of the student writers. Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) analyzed students' attitudes toward the teacher feedback and found that feedback from the teacher may not match what students expect of it. Another problem with teacher feedback is that there may be a bias in feedback, since teacher's comments tend to concentrate on a certain category. Another study (Ferris, 1995) found that among the five aspects of teacher feedback (organization, content/idea, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics), students heeded comments on grammar, and nearly the same amount of attention was paid to comments on content/idea. It was also found that nearly 50 percent of the students in the study had problems understanding teacher response, due to handwriting, grammar terms, abbreviations, symbols, and so on. However, a great majority of the students reported that teacher feedback helped them improve their drafts.

Another type of feedback commonly used in ESL classrooms is peer feedback. An important question about this type of response is whether it is helpful or not for student writers. Mangelsdorf (1992) conducted a study with 40 ESL students at the University of Arizona to see if peer reviews were helpful during the drafting process. It was found that peer reviews during the drafting process did help improve the writing although the study

confirmed that the teacher should design peer review carefully in order to make it work as an effective learning method. As for the students' preference for peer feedback, the study suggests that Asian students tend to appreciate teacher feedback more than peer feedback. However, a study conducted in Hong Kong and Taiwan (Jacobs, Curtis, Braine, and Huang, 1998) found the opposite tendency regarding the Asian students' preference. The study showed that 93 % of the students supported the use of peer feedback in addition to teacher feedback, which suggests that we use peer feedback in conjunction with teacher feedback.

3. Research Questions

In order to probe into the issues discussed above, this study addresses the following research questions.

1. What happens in the revision process? How are the first drafts revised by Japanese English learners?
2. How do teacher and peer feedback affect revision?
3. What do students discover in the revision process?

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

This study was conducted with 14 Japanese junior college students who took an ESL writing course in the academic year 2000. The class met once a week on Mondays for 85 minutes. The course was an elective core class open for first-year students whose major was not English. However, the 14 students who participated in the study were probably more motivated to compose in English than average first-year students since they opted for writing over reading or listening.

4.2 Data

4.2.1 Reaction Essays

In the first semester of the 2000 academic year, the participants of the study wrote two different reaction essays after respective pre-writing activities. The first essay was revised in response to teacher feedback, and the second essay was revised in response to peer feedback. The two types of feedback were also treated as data for the purpose of analyzing the relation between feedback and revision. The two sets of essays were written and revised according to the following procedure :

1. Pre-writing activity
2. Writing the first draft
3. Receiving feedback
4. Revising

4.2.2 Procedure

1. Pre-writing Activity

As a pre-writing activity, the students watched an American documentary for the first essay, and read an American column for the second. The introduction of these materials was intended to provide students with an incentive to write. Reid (1993) states that successful writing assignments have “prompts” which promote the student to write. When we are impressed or moved, we may feel like writing something. Therefore, the study started with materials that could stir students’ minds.

The second reason for the pre-writing activities was the assumption that these activities might create a collaborative atmosphere in class because all the students would write about the same subject. Such an atmosphere would be helpful when the students provide peer feedback to their partners.

Finally, such pre-writing activities were introduced so that the students could learn English writing in a context that had something to do with their own life or the real world. The whole language approach (Freeman & Freeman, 1989) assumes that language should be taught in the whole-to-

part manner instead of the part-to-whole manner. It might turn out to be a good experience if the students learned not only writing skills but also something important about life or people.

The documentary students watched in class describes an experiment a female teacher conducted at an elementary school in the US to make students aware of the issue of racial discrimination. This video has been used frequently at many schools both in the US and Japan, and from my previous experience of using the documentary in class, I was sure that the students would be interested in the video and find something to write about.

As a pre-writing activity for the second essay, the students read a Bob Greene column, "Baseball and the Facts of Life." The column is about a nine-year-old boy who really loved baseball, but realized that he was not good enough to play for his team in the course of the baseball season. I expected students to have no trouble finding something to say about the column since most of them seemed to have had similar experiences of trying hard for something and being discouraged.

2. Writing the First Draft

After the pre-writing activities in class, the students wrote reaction essays at home and handed in the first draft at the next meeting. Each essay was handwritten on B5 size lined paper, and no more than 500 words in length. I gave students enough time to write since time is one of the important factors which affect the writing process (Campbell, 1998).

In a study on EFL writing conducted with Japanese college students, Taniguchi (1991) states that most Japanese college students have little or no knowledge about the writing process. Therefore, before the study was started, I explained a few models of the writing process and also stressed that revision is an important step in the writing process.

The theory of contrastive rhetoric holds that L1 rhetoric has an influence

on the text written in L2 at a discourse level (Grabe & Kaplan, 1989). In order to call attention to the difference in discourse between Japanese and English (e.g., Hinds, 1987), I advise students to heed the overall organization of the text and arrange paragraphs so that each paragraph discusses one major topic.

3. Feedback

This study employed both teacher and peer feedback because research results are mixed and inconclusive as to the issue of feedback (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). Although self-monitoring is an interesting alternative to teacher and peer feedback (Cresswell, 2000), it requires autonomy on the part of the writer. As the participants of this study were novice English writers, the study did not employ self-monitoring.

Teacher feedback in this study focused on organization and content, and no correction was made of grammatical mistakes. Robb, Ross, and Shor-treed (1986) surveyed Japanese college students and found that error correction does not necessarily result in more accuracy, and this result agrees with my own experience as an English teacher. In addition, students are interested in teacher's comments on content and idea as well as those on grammar (Ferris, 1995). For these reasons, feedback in the study focused on organization and content.

The students made pairs and exchanged first drafts with their partners for peer feedback. I prepared a handout in order to model the process of peer review. In the handout, I encouraged students to focus on the following points because I also focused on these points in my feedback :

A. Organization

- overall organization • organization of each paragraph
- cohesion and unity

B. Content

- good ideas and opinions • good expressions and poor expressions
- discussion of topics – Was each topic fully discussed?
- ideas, viewpoints, or discussion missing from the writing

I also allowed the students to make comments on form (grammar, spelling, etc.) if they found something to write about.

The teacher feedback was written in Japanese so that the message could be clearly communicated to the students. One of the problems with teacher feedback is that the students often do not understand part of the message for one reason or another (Ferris, 1995). The peer feedback was also written in Japanese so that the message could be clearly understood among students.

4. Revising

The students revised their first drafts in a week based on the feedback they received from the teacher or the peer student. Elbow (1998) asserts that “revising requires wisdom, judgment, and maturity” (p.121). He also states that we can acquire these qualities through practice and recommends revision with feedback as a way to do so. Feedback in this study was also intended to help the students practice revising.

All the students who took part in the study wrote and revised their essays by hand. In addition, the purpose of the study was to compare the first and second drafts since the major part of revision is most likely to take place while revising the first draft rather than subsequent ones. Therefore, I had my students revise the draft only once.

4.3. Method of Analysis

4.3.1 Sentence Typology

This study designed a sentence typology in order to compare the first and second drafts of each essay, using the sentence as the unit of analysis. When we compare the first and second drafts in terms of sentences, we can see that

all sentences in the two drafts can be classified into the following four types :

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Same sentence | 2. Revised sentence |
| 3. New sentence | 4. Deleted sentence |

New and revised sentences appear only in the second draft while deleted sentences can be found only in the first draft. The same sentences appear both in the first and second drafts. In this study, revised sentences can be further classified into the following three types.

- (1) A sentence in the first draft is revised into one sentence in the second draft.
- (2) A sentence in the first draft is changed into two or more sentences in the second draft.
- (3) Two sentences in the first draft are revised and combined into one sentence in the second draft.

Another kind of change we can observe at the sentence level is concerned with the order of sentences. A comparison of first and second drafts shows that there are some sentences transferred into a different paragraph or to a different position in the same paragraph. Such sentences are referred to here as transferred sentences. Therefore, revised and same sentences can be further classified into two types, transferred and non-transferred sentences.

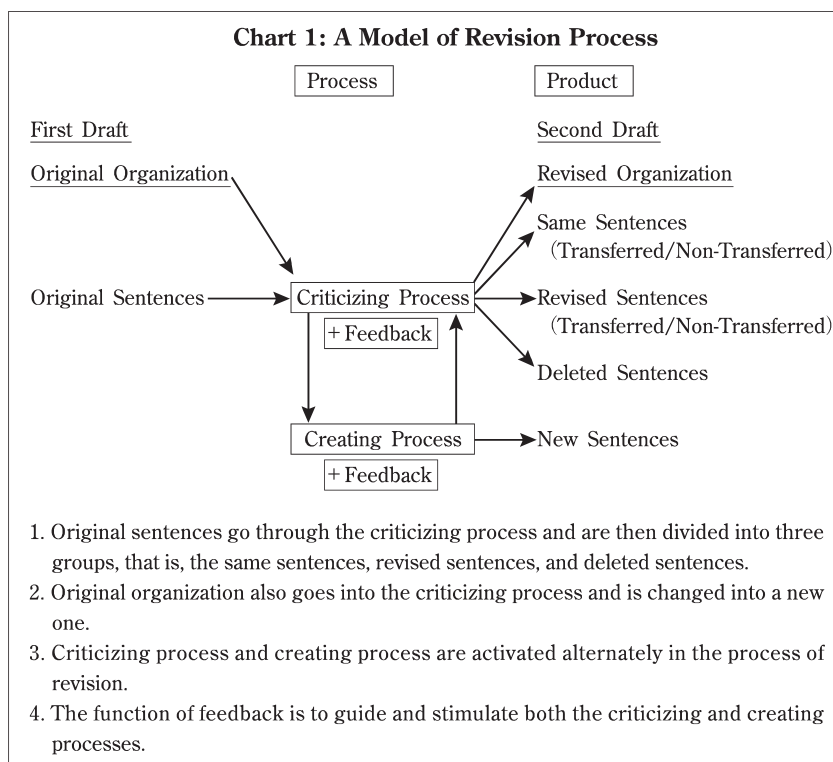
In this study, the number of sentences in each paragraph was counted for the first and second drafts. Then, the sentences in each paragraph of the second draft were classified either as the same, revised, or new sentences. The same and revised sentences were further examined to see if they were transferred or non-transferred sentences. Finally, the second draft was compared with the first one to see if there were any deleted sentences.

It is possible to compare the two drafts in terms of words. However, this study primarily focuses on the difference at sentence level and refers to the

difference in terms of words and phrases when necessary.

4.3.2 Revision Process Model

Another important tool to be used here is a model which conceptualizes the revision process. Elbow (1998) maintains that the writing process is essentially composed of the creating and criticizing processes. Writing is often quite difficult because we need to use these two conflicting abilities in writing. In order to conceptualize the revision process, this study applies Elbow's assumption about the writing process to the process of revision, together with the typology of same, revised, transferred, deleted, and new sentences, discussed above. Chart 1 shows a model which illustrates what



happens in the revision process. It is difficult to identify where new sentences come from. However, it seems that they come from the feedback or the context in which the creating process takes place.

5. Analysis and Discussion

5.1 A Case of Student A

5.1.1 Summary of Revision

This section discusses the case of Student A since she revised the first draft most extensively of all the students and demonstrated various revision strategies. Table 1 shows how Student A revised the first draft of her first essay. (For full text, see Appendix A.)

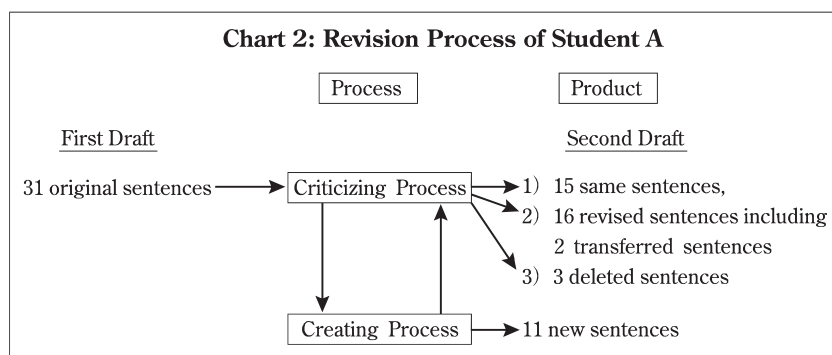
In the table, S, R, N, and D stand for same, revised, new, and deleted sentences respectively. The table shows that there are 15 same, 16 revised, and 11 new sentences in the second draft. The table also shows that 2 sentences have been revised and transferred at the same time as is indicated by R/T, and 3 sentences in the first draft have been deleted. The total of S, R, and D sentences adds up to the number of original sentences in the first

Table 1 : Types of Sentences in the Second Draft/A Case of Student A

Paragraph No.	Number of Sentences		Types of Sentences in The Second Draft
	First Draft	Second Draft	
1	3	3	S, S, R
2	5	5	S, S, S, S, S
3	7	9	S, S, S, S, R'/T, N, R, R, S
4	4	8	R', R', R, R', R', R, N, R/T
5	3	7	S, R, N, R, S, R, N
6	5	10	R, S, N, N, N, N, N, R, N, N
7	4		
Total	31	42	(D=3)

draft if all the R sentences are revised on a one-to-one basis. However, in this case, two sentences in the first draft were each divided into two and three as is indicated by R' in the table. Therefore, S, R, and D sentences total 34 instead of 31. On the other hand, S, R, and N sentences total 42, which is the number of sentences in the second draft.

If we use the revision process model to explain the revision in terms of sentence, the change can be summarized as in Chart 2.



In the case of Student A, 31 original sentences went into the criticizing process. As a result, 48 percent (15/31) of the sentences were retained unchanged while 42 percent (13/31) were revised into 16 sentences. In the criticizing process, 3 original sentences (10 percent) were deleted from the second draft, and 2 revised sentences were transferred. In the creating process, the student added 11 new sentences to produce the second draft. Of course, these five activities do not take place in the same linear order as mentioned here. Like the process of writing, these five activities probably took place interactively and alternately. For instance, revision of a sentence may have led to the production of a new sentence or vice versa.

Another important point is that the writer looks not only at each sentence

but also at the organization of each paragraph and the overall organization in the revision process. An analysis of the second draft of Student A confirms that revision took place not only at the sentence level but also at organizational level. Moreover, it seems that these two different levels of revision took place interactively and alternately. For instance, revision of a sentence may have been guided by the writer's perception of what was the appropriate organization of the text.

5.1.2 Organizational Revision

In the case of Student A, we can observe the revision in overall organization. The number of paragraphs is changed from 7 to 6 as we can see in Table 1. Student A combined the fourth and fifth paragraphs into one probably because both of them describe the second part of Ms. Eliot's experimental lesson. It may be that the writer made this change partly because I told her in feedback to reconsider the appropriate length of each paragraph.

In order to change the overall organization, the writer needs to critically review the structure and content of each paragraph as well as the relation among paragraphs. In other words, changing the overall organization involves a highly critical mental process. Although some students in the study tended to avoid revising the overall structure, Student A tried structural revision without specific advice from the teacher. This fact suggests that the criticizing process of the student was active at a structural as well as sentence level.

5.1.3 Revision at the Sentence Level

As I already mentioned, revision of sentences takes the form of revised, transferred, deleted, and new sentences. If we closely look at each type observed in the case of Student A, we can see that each type has its own characteristics.

1. Revised Sentences

The case of Student A shows that original sentences were revised mainly for content, discourse, expression, and grammar.

A. Content

A typical strategy used to add new content was to add a because clause at the end of the sentence. For instance, Student A revised a sentence as follows.

First Draft : “It is difficult for Japanese to understand discrimination matter, I think.”

Second Draft : “It is difficult for Japanese to understand discrimination matter because we have just one race, I think.”

Student A here added a because clause to supplement her argument with new information.

B. Discourse

In order to form a better logical chain between sentences, students sometimes resort to cohesive devices. To achieve this, they often add or drop a conjunction at the beginning of a sentence to indicate the logical link between the two sentences. Another way to create a more integrated discourse is to put a topic sentence at the beginning of the paragraph. Student A revised the first sentence of a paragraph as follows to make a topic sentence.

First Draft : “Two days later, Ms. Eliot said brown eyes’ members were better than blue eyes’ members next.”

Second Draft : “Two days later, Ms. Eliot executed next experiment. She said to class that the brown eyes’ members were superior to the blue eyes’ ones in turn.”

By adding a topic sentence, Student A made it easier for readers to follow the discourse.

C. Expression

It is common to try to find a better expression in the course of revision, and this was also the case with Student A. If we look at the example sentences cited in the previous section once again, we can see that she also tried to revise the sentence in terms of expression as the underlined words indicate.

First Draft : “Two days later, Ms. Eliot said brown eyes’ members was better than blue eyes’ members next.”

Second Draft : “She said to class that the brown eyes’ members were superior to the blue eyes’ ones in turn.”

It seems that Student A came up with better words or expressions in the course of revision as we often do.

D. Grammar

It is also common for students to correct grammatical mistakes in revision. Student A corrected the following grammatical mistake although the mistake was not pointed out in the feedback.

First Draft : “He was a brave man fighted for liberty of Black people.”

Second Draft : “He was a brave man who fought for liberty of Black people.”

This example also illustrates that grammatical mistakes are not necessarily corrected in revision as the past tense of the verb “fight” is spelled as “fighted” in both drafts.

It is also important to note here that revised sentences widely vary in terms of the degree of change. At one end of the spectrum, the difference between revised and new sentences sometimes becomes quite subtle. In a few cases, the same message was phrased so differently that it was hard to tell if the two sentences were related. For example, Student A wrote in the first draft “Differences don’t equal bad things, no, should be accepted” while

in the second draft she wrote “All differences are gifts by God to us.” Although it may be possible to assume that the two sentences are not related, I classified the second sentence as a revised one since both of them are found in her conclusion and carry almost the same message.

2. Transferred Sentences

Original sentences are sometimes revised and transferred for a better discourse. Student A also employed this revision strategy when she combined the fourth and fifth paragraphs of her essay. In the first draft, she wrote “The third day from starting the experiment, Ms. Eliot released them from the restraint of difference of eye’s colors” at the top of fifth paragraph, while in the second draft, she wrote “the experiment ended at the third day from starting” at the end of fourth paragraph. When we find that a sentence does not fit into the context, we often try to transfer the sentence to a different position. This strategy seems more likely to be used in L2 than in L1 because of the limited fluency.

3. Deleted Sentences

Student A deleted the last sentence of the fourth paragraph which refers to the relation between discrimination and academic performance. Since this topic is different from the main idea of the paragraph, I advised her in feedback to form another paragraph which deals with the topic. As a result, she simply dropped this sentence.

It seems that deleted sentences can contribute not only to discourse but also to content. A deleted sentence may be created into a new one through the power of imagination. In the first draft of Student A’s essay, there is a deleted sentence which reads “Ms. Eliot has appealed for the important truth through her life, I think” while there is a new sentence in the second draft which reads “A White woman’s movement have a big influence on American society.” I classified the two sentences as a deleted and a new

sentence because they are located in different contexts. However, it may be possible to argue that the deleted sentence served as an embryo of the new one, and the two sentences are related in a sense.

4. New Sentences

One of the interesting tendencies we can observe regarding new sentences is that students often add new sentences at the end of the paragraph. This tendency is understandable since by so doing they can add new content without disturbing the organization and discourse that already exist in the text. Student A also followed this pattern in the last paragraph of the second draft as we can see in Table 1. She added 7 new sentences at the end of the paragraph, probably because I advised her to elaborate more in her conclusion.

On the other hand, when a new sentence is added in the middle of a paragraph, it is sometimes necessary to revise the preceding or following sentence in order to adjust the context to the new sentence. In other words, the acts of adding a new sentence and revising an original sentence are sometimes closely related. For instance, Student A revised an original sentence in conjunction with the creation of a new sentence.

First Draft : “And friendly classmates by then suddenly become nasty.”

Second Draft : “What do you think the class situation become then?” (new sentence) Regrettably, the friendly classmates suddenly become nasty.” (revised sentence)

Student A here changed the word “And” to “Regrettably” to adjust the original sentence to the slightly changed context.

5.2 Individual Variation in Revision Pattern

Revising strategies are different from student to student. Table 2 shows the number of same, revised, and new sentences in the second drafts of the first essays of 14 students, which were rewritten in response to teacher

Table 2 : Types of Sentences in the First Essay with Teacher Feedback

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	Total
S	15	12	13	12	9	3	3	9	10	15	7	10	17	27	162
%	48	55	72	67	56	20	27	53	38	79	44	63	89	96	60
R	16	10	5	5	4	11	9	7	13	3	8	6	2	1	100
N	11	4	13	11	7	4	12	7	15	5	14	4	7	9	123
%	26	15	42	39	35	22	50	30	39	22	48	20	27	24	32
D	3	1	0	1	3	1	0	1	3	1	2	0	0	0	16
T	2	1	0	3	1	2	1	2	0	4	0	0	0	4	20
Second	42	26	31	28	20	18	24	23	38	23	29	20	26	37	385
First	31	22	18	18	16	15	11	17	26	19	16	16	19	28	272

S : Same, R : Revised, N : New, D : Deleted, T : Transferred

feedback. The letters in the first row stand for 14 students who wrote the first essays. The rows of Second and First in the table respectively show the total number of sentences in the second and first drafts.

The table shows that the percentage of same sentences varies from student to student. The rate of retention varies from 20 percent (3/15) of Student F to 96 percent (27/28) of Student N with an average of 60 percent (162/272). This variation suggests that some writers tend to retain as many sentences as possible while others rather lavishly discard original sentences in revision. Another possible explanation for the variation is that the criticizing process of some students is more active than that of other students. It is also possible to say that some writers rely more on the criticizing process than on the creating process in revision, although Student N depended almost solely on the creating process in revision as only one sentence was revised while 9 new sentences were added.

The number of sentences increased for all the students with the total number of sentences jumping from 272 to 385. This increase suggests that revision generally has a positive effect on the quantity of writing. However,

we can also note that the rate of new sentences widely varies among the students. The rate, which is obtained by dividing the number of new sentences by the number of sentences in the second draft, ranges between 15 and 50 percent. This variation in terms of new sentences also suggests that the pattern of revision differs widely among the students.

As a whole, the strategies of deleting and transferring sentences were much less likely to be used than those of revising original sentences and adding new sentences. Out of the 272 original sentences, only 16 sentences were deleted while 100 sentences were revised.

5.3 Differences in Revision Pattern between the First and Second Essays

Revision pattern may also depend on the type of feedback. Table 3 shows the types of sentences in the second essays of 14 students, which were revised in response to peer feedback.

The table confirms that there is a wide variation in the revision pattern among the students. When we compare Table 2 and Table 3, we can see that there are differences as well as similarities in terms of revision pattern. The rate of retention for the second essay with peer feedback (62 %) is slightly

Table 3 : Types of Sentences in the Second Essay with Peer Feedback

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	Total
S	17	13	17	14	5	2	4	8	25	17	16	15	21	13	187
%	81	76	68	67	42	19	25	53	64	71	67	75	100	52	62
R	4	4	8	8	7	1	12	7	15	6	8	5	0	9	94
N	2	2	8	4	4	19	1	6	3	2	4	5	2	3	65
%	9	11	24	15	25	86	6	29	7	8	14	20	7	12	19
D	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	19
T	0	1	0	0	2	1	1	1	0	2	2	1	3	1	15
Second	23	19	33	26	16	22	17	21	43	25	28	25	23	25	346
First	21	17	25	21	12	20	16	15	39	24	24	20	21	25	300

S : Same, R : Revised, N : New, D : Deleted, T : Transferred

higher than that for the first essay with teacher feedback (60%). The number of revised sentences is close to that of the first essay (100 and 94). However, the number of new sentences in the second essay is much lower than that of the first essay (123 and 65). If we consider the exceptional case of Student F who almost entirely rewrote the text, the difference between the first and second essay is much bigger than it appears. It seems that the difference in terms of new sentences is at least partly attributable to the kind of feedback the students receive.

In general, student feedback for the second essay was more specific than teacher feedback for the first one. When teacher feedback included comments on content, they were usually phrased like "You are writing about such and such in this paragraph. Discuss more on this topic." On the other hand, when students gave suggestions about content, they were usually phrased like "Why don't you write about such and such in this paragraph?" One of the reasons for this difference is that I wanted to avoid the appropriation of the students' texts (Sommers, 1982). If the teacher corrects all the mistakes and provides new ideas, the student may not be able to claim the right to the revised draft.

Another difference between teacher and peer feedback was that the former focused on content and organization while the latter included comments on grammar and spelling. Partly because of this difference, teacher feedback rarely specified a sentence which should be considered for revision while peer feedback tended to pinpoint sentences for revision. In other words, teacher feedback was paragraph-specific while peer feedback was sentence-specific. Therefore, revision based on peer feedback included a lot of minor changes, and original sentences were often slightly revised by changing a word or phrase.

Another interesting tendency was that the students did not necessarily

accept suggestions given in peer feedback. They simply ignored some and revised through self-monitoring while they tended to closely follow the advice of teacher feedback. This result agrees with Connor & Asenavage's study (1994) which surveyed college freshmen and found that only 5 percent of changes made in revision were due to peer comments.

It seems safe to say that the characteristics of teacher feedback resulted in more productive revision than the case of peer feedback. In other words, the differences between teacher and peer feedback affected the pattern of revision among students.

6. Conclusion

In this study, I have offered a sentence typology and a revision process model to see what happens in the process of revision. Based on the typology and the model, the study showed how the first drafts of students' essays were changed into second ones in the revision process. Through the analysis of a particular case of Student A, the study showed that in the criticizing process of revision, the student retained, revised, transferred, or deleted original sentences and changed the organization of text. On the other hand, in the creating process, Student A produced new sentences to add new content to the original text.

The study also compared the first and second drafts written by 14 students and found that the revision pattern varies among students. Some students make extensive use of the criticizing process in revision, revising, transferring, and deleting original sentences, while others mainly depend on the creating process, mostly adding new sentences.

Analysis of the two different essays written by 14 students suggests that the revision pattern may depend on the way feedback is provided. The first essay rewritten in response to teacher feedback resulted in more production

in the process of revision. This result suggests that less specific feedback concerning content or organization is likely to result in more productive revision.

The study also provides some insights into the process of writing. Although the writing process encompasses the revision process in theory, the two processes are analogous to each other in certain ways. First, both writing and revision depend on the creating and criticizing processes. The difference is that the writing process has to start with the creating process while the revision process can start either with the criticizing or creating process. Therefore, it is possible to see the writing process as an accumulation of the revision process. The moment we write the first sentence of the first draft, the revision process may be activated.

Another similarity is that both writing and revision can be seen as an act of discovery. Through revision, the students produced many new sentences which carried new ideas and new content. Some students also succeeded in finding a better expression that could clearly convey the message while others came up with a new way to organize paragraphs. Many of the students also "discovered" grammatical mistakes on their own in the course of revision. In sum, the act of revision is a series of discoveries about content, organization, discourse, expression, grammar, and so forth. Indeed, we may encounter a lot of discoveries in the process of revision since revision is also a journey to the unknown world.

* This paper is based on an MA thesis submitted to Teachers College, Columbia University in 2001.

References

- Berlin, J.A. (1988). Rhetoric and ideology in the writing class. *College English*, 50, 477-494.
- Casanave, C.P. (1988). The process approach to writing instruction : An examination of issues. *CATESOL Journal*, 1, 29-39.
- Champbell, C. (1998). *Teaching second-language writing : Interacting with text*. New York:Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Cohen, A.D., & Cavalcanti, M.C. (1990). Feedback on compositions: Teacher and student verbal reports. In B.Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing : Research insights for the classroom* (pp.155-177). New York : Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, U., & Asenavage, K. (1994). Peer response groups in ESL writing classes: How much impact on revision. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3, 257-276.
- Cresswell, A. (2000). Self-monitoring in student writing: Developing learner responsibility. *ELT Journal*, 54, 235-244.
- Elbow, P. (1998). *Writing with power* (2nd ed.). New York : Oxford University Press.
- Fathman, A.K., & Whalley, E. (1990). Teacher response to student writing: Focus on form versus content. In B.Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp.178-190). New York : Cambridge University Press.
- Ferris, D.R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 33-53.
- Ferris, D., & Hedgcock, J.S. (1998). *Teaching ESL composition : Purpose, process, and practice*. Mahwah, NJ : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Freeman, Y.S., & Freeman, D. E. (1989). Whole language approaches to writing with secondary students of English as a second language. In D. M. Johnson & D. H. Roen (Eds.), *Richness in writing* (pp.177-192). London: Longman.
- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R.B. (1989). Writing in a second language : Contrastive rhetoric. In D.M. Johnson & D.H. Roen (Eds.), *Richness in writing* (pp.

- 263-283). London : Longman.
- Hinds, J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility : A new typology. In U. Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 141-152). Reading, MA : Addison-Wesley.
- Jacobs, G.M., Curtis, A., Braine, G., & Huang, S. (1998). Feedback on student writing : Taking the middle path. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 307-317.
- Johns, A.M. (1990). L1 composition theories: Implication for developing theories of L2 composition. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp.24-36). New York : Cambridge University Press.
- Lannon, J.M. (1989). *The writing process* (3rd ed.). Boston : Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Mangelsdorf, K. (1992). Peer review in the ESL composition classroom : What do the students think? *ELT Journal*, 46, 274-284.
- Murray, D.M. (1990). *Write to learn* (3rd ed.). London: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Rackham, J. (1980). *From sight to insight: Steps in writing process*. New York : Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Raimes, A. (1983). Anguish as a second language? Remedies for composition teachers. In A. Freedman, I. Pringle, & J. Yalden (Eds.), *Learning to write* (pp. 258-272). London: Longman.
- Reid, J.M. (1988). *The process of composition* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ : Prentice Hall.
- Reid, J.M. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. Englewood, NJ : Prentice Hall Regents.
- Robb, T., Ross, S., & Shortreed, I. (1986). Salience of feedback on error and its effect on EFL writing quality. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 83-93.
- Schenck, M.J. (1988). *Read, write, revise*. New York : St. Martin's Press.
- Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and direction in ESL. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing : Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 11-23). New York : Cambridge University Press.

- Sommers, N. (1982). Responding to student writing. *College composition and communication*, 33, 148-156.
- Taniguchi, J.M. (1991). The writing process and writing classroom. *Annual Report of Studies of Bunkyo University Women's College*, 35, 31-42.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing*. New York : Longman.
- Zinsser, W. (1994). *On writing well* (5th ed.). New York : Harper Perennial.

Appendix A: Full Text of Student A's First and Second Drafts of the First Essay

First Draft

In 1968, a minister was killed. His name is Martin Luther King. He was a brave man fought for liberty of Black people.

Right after his death, a White woman moved next. She tried to make children see that their discrimination to Black is foolish behavior. Her name is Ms. Eliot. She was a teacher at a elementary school. She was terribly shocked at the minister's death.

At the first, Ms. Eliot separated children into two groups according to their eyes' colors. That is to say, blue eyes group and brown eyes group. Then she set blue eyes' members were better than brown eyes' members. She thoroughly slandered brown eyes' members, and praised blue eyes' members. And friendly classmates by then suddenly became nasty. A matter came that a blue eyes' boy disparaged a brown eyes' boy, and the brown one got angry and hurt the blue one during recess. The children of two sides hated each other as if they had been given a brain wash.

Two days later, Ms. Eliot said brown eyes' members was better than blue eyes' members next. And their positions turned face about. The blue eyes' members was given "colors of inferior mark", and they suddenly became weak. To my surprise, having the collars side was bad about ability of learning.

The third day from starting the experiment, Ms. Eliot released them from the restraint of difference of eye's colors. The children said that receiving discrimination was disconsolate in unison. They learned foolishness of discrimination against differences of skin colors.

Is this experiment effective to only children? No, it is effective to adults, too.

Ms. Eliot has given lectures to adults about discrimination. Of course, they experience discrimination directly. And they understand suffering of receiving discrimination.

It is difficult for Japanese to understand discrimination matter, I think. However, when we see a person who has different something, do we differentiate between we and he or she? Differences don't equal bad things, no, should be accepted. Ms. Eliot has appealed for the important truth through her life, I think.

Second Draft

In 1968, a minister was killed. His name is Martin Luther King. He was a brave man who fought for liberty of Black people.

Right after his death, a White woman moved next. She tried to make children see that their discrimination to Black is foolish behavior. Her name is Ms. Eliot. She was a teacher at a elementary school. She was terribly shocked at the minister's death.

At the first, Ms. Eliot separated children into two groups according to their eyes' colors. That is to say, blue eyes group and brown eyes group. Then she set blue eyes' members were better than brown eyes' members. She thoroughly slandered brown eyes' members, and praised blue eyes' members. The brown eyes' members were given collars of symbol of inferior human beings. What do you think the class situation became then? Regrettably, the friendly classmates suddenly become nasty. The blue eyes' members disparaged the brown ones, and the brown eyes' members came to dismay more and more. The children of two sides hated each other as if they had been given a brain wash.

Two days later, Ms. Eliot executed next experiment. She said to class that the brown eyes' members were superior to the blue eyes' ones in turn. Their positions turned face about. And the blue eyes' members were given "collars of inferior mark". Children who have the collars became weak, and knew pang of receiving discrimination. They learned foolishness of discrimination personally. And they knew different of colors (for example, eye's color, skin color, anything else) could not decide worth of human beings. The experiment ended at the third day from starting.

Is this experiment effective to only children? No, because Ms. Eliot's experi-

ment make the epitome of discrimination in the U.S., it is effective to adults, too. When adults are lying on the situation of receiving discrimination or discriminating, even if it is transient experiment, they are angry hysterically or think people at another side foolish. They experience discrimination directly. And they understand suffering of receiving discrimination. Ms. Eliot has given lectures at places of various like this. A White woman's movement have a big influence on American society.

It is difficult for Japanese to understand discrimination matter because we have just one race, I think. However, when we see a person who had different something, do we differentiate between we and he or she? We want company always because being alone is lone. And we want to think that "I am superior to others". Such a egoistic idea produce discrimination. Are we truly superior to others? No, we human beings were made by God evenly. All differences are gifts by God to us. I want to remove the idea of discriminating against others from my mind. If discrimination of the individuals is removed, discrimination is removed from all over the world, I think.