THE POWER OF PEER FEEDBACK

Exploring how training teachers improve their assessment techniques

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Abstract

Teacher training involves the acquisition of not only disciplinary knowledge but also pedagogical and evaluative knowledge. In this context, providing feedback is crucial for trainee teachers to interpret the information that they receive from their teacher, and apply best practices in their future teaching. This study examines peer feedback among student teachers in primary education at a Chilean university. Eighteen students were given feedback after submitting an initial writing task and then were trained in three types of feedback: knowledge of results, knowledge of the correct response, and elaborated feedback. Finally, they provided feedback to their peers based on these categories. The results indicate that most of the feedback received and given by the students was of the KR type and that the training was effective, as the students provided feedback that helped their peers improve their grades. This underlines the importance of feedback training for future teachers and emphasises the need for several feedback strategies in teacher education.

Keywords: Academic writing, assessment, feedback, peer review, training teacher

1.   INTRODUCTION

The educational process comprises three inseparable components: teaching, learning and assessment. The latter serves to prove the extent to which the learning objectives have been achieved. Thus, the successful delivery of the course content and the acquisition of necessary competencies lead to instances of evaluation. In this framework, the learning assessment approach (Stobart, 2008) has gained significant importance in recent years, as assessment directly influences what we learn and how we learn, potentially limiting or promoting effective learning. Assessment is integral to the learning process, making feedback crucial for students to achieve their goals. Such guidance not only influences grades but also profoundly impacts students' emotions and motivations (Canabal & Margalef, 2017). Despite the extensive literature demonstrating the effectiveness of feedback (see, for example, González Lillo & Jarpa Azagra, 2023), not all forms of input are equally useful, as learners often need guidance to correct errors through clarification. Otherwise, feedback without proper justification can negatively influence learning outcomes.

In this research, a group of teacher students received training in three types of feedback: knowledge of results (KR), knowledge of the correct response (KCR), and elaborated feedback (EF) (Narciss, 2013; Shute, 2008). After completing a written literature review, they were given formative feedback from their teacher before receiving a grade. This feedback addressed not only the current task but also provided guidance for future tasks (feedforward) within the same genre. According to Hendry et al. (2016), feedback involves correcting errors, offering improvement advice, and providing guidance through interactive teaching, while feedforward provides timely, future-oriented guidance to enhance performance through peer assessment and engagement. Students had the opportunity to review their assignments and then receive their final grades. For their second review, the students participated in a peer review using a questionnaire aligned with the rubric criteria used for assessment.

The research questions addressed in this study are as follows:
1)   What type of feedback do students provide to their peers?
2)   Is feedback from students to their peers focused on improving future performance or simply on correcting the assessed task?
3)   How do students apply what they have observed from the teacher after the training they have been given?

Previous studies that have examined the impact of feedback training on student teachers are limited, highlighting the need for an analysis of feedback practices employed by teachers and how they train future educators in feedback techniques.

2.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Assessment serves as the means to determine whether a series of educational activities has produced the desired learning outcomes (William, 2011). In this sense,

the assessment comprises the activities initiated by the teachers, providing students with information to measure their level of competence in the subject or skills being taught and learned. Matre and Solheim (2015) indicate that the assessment of writing has traditionally been based on general holistic impressions, which entails an imprecise understanding of the expected standards. In addition, they add that different researchers emphasise the need for explicit and precise assessments by teachers to improve students' writing competence despite the multidimensional complexity of the texts that require qualitative judgements from the teacher. Within this educational context, feedback plays a fundamental role as information that narrows the gap between actual and desired performance, serving specific purposes within different domains, such as text structure and language usage. Consequently, feedback is widely recognised as one of the most influential tools in student learning processes (Carless & Boud, 2018; Carless & Winstone, 2023).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) point out that "feedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding" (p. 81). The model proposed by these authors suggests that the deployment of strategies by learners contributes to reducing the disparity between their current and desired performance. To do this, it is emphasised that effective feedback must be clear, meaningful and consistent with students' prior knowledge. Carless and Boud (2018) similarly state that feedback constitutes the process by which students understand the information they receive. Typically administered by teachers, this information assesses students' strengths, weaknesses, and avenues for improvement. However, in a study by Price et al. (2010), higher education students indicated through their perceptions that they were dissatisfied with the feedback from their teachers. The students criticised the feedback received, highlighting issues of vagueness, negative tone, and difficulty interpreting it without additional guidance, which led to confusion and uncertainty. They often perceived the feedback as impersonal, especially when it included tick-box sheets, which they interpreted as a lack of teacher interest. This evidence that even when such feedback corresponds to feedforward, it may not be timely enough or easy for students to understand. Therefore, it is imperative that students receive effective feedback, and students who are being trained as teachers also must know how to deliver effective feedback. In this sense, assessment and feedback between peers is essential as an information delivery practice—an aspect addressed in greater depth in § 2.3.

2.1 Types of feedback

In the realm of feedback in higher education, the effectiveness of positive personal feedback remains an important consideration. Black and William (1998) find that when feedback is focused on the student, students tend to avoid tasks and minimise their efforts due to fear of failure. Nevertheless, numerous studies within the literature highlight a crisis in feedback, observing that students frequently regard

feedback as among the least satisfactory dimensions of their university experience (e.g., Buckley, 2020; Nieminen & Carless, 2023). Students frequently report that feedback is insufficient, difficult to understand, and provided at inappropriate times (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Carless, 2019). At the same time, teachers express frustration with the lack of students' commitment to the feedback they receive (Carless & Winstone, 2020). This situation suggests that although teachers perceive feedback as a powerful mechanism for improvement, students often ignore this information.

There is a wide literature that addresses what feedback is, and different classifications are created in both the L1 and additional languages. For example, for feedback in additional language, Sheen (2011) establishes the delivery of direct or indirect comments in a metalinguistic or nonmetalinguistic order for feedback in additional languages. Other classifications address concepts, such as corrective (e.g., Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Ellis et al., 2006; Lee, 2024) or formative (e.g., Harlen & James, 1997; Sadler, 1989; Wingate, 2010); however, their differences are not completely delimited or do not address the effects these may have on student performance.

A systematic review on formative feedback conducted by Shute (2008) indicates that the primary objective of this practice is to enhance students' knowledge and skills in a given area, distinguishing between directive feedback, which is more explicit and targets specific aspects for improvement, and facilitative feedback, which provides comments or suggestions to guide the student without specifying exact corrections. Goodman et al. (2004) argue that feedback specificity is a key factor in classifying it as either directive or facilitative. Their study findings indicate that increasing feedback specificity improves initial performance but limits exploration and does not guarantee sustainable or adaptable learning for new tasks. Thus, the results suggest that varying levels of specificity may support learning through diverse and complementary mechanisms.

Different authors (see, for example, Bangert-Drowns et al., 1991 or Pridemore & Klein, 1995) have laid the foundations for their definitions and have stated that providing details on how to improve rather than just indicating whether or not the performance is adequate is more effective. The cases in which teachers indicate whether or not students have been correct in their answers correspond to a verification that can frustrate students through an inability to understand how to solve their errors. Kulhavy and Stock (1989) call this the last type of feedback verification since it only offers a judgement on whether or not the student's response is correct. For its part, in relation to the feedback provided in a detailed or specific manner, correspondence can be established with what other authors call—as previously stated—facilitating feedback. In turn, facilitating feedback corresponds to a type of formative feedback. However, when this elaboration also provides the correct answer, it is also corrective feedback.

Shute (2008) concludes her study with guidelines for generating effective formative feedback, highlighting the importance of adapting the feedback to students' specific needs and the learning context. In this way, well-designed

feedback can significantly improve learning processes and outcomes, help students correct mistakes, understand complex concepts, and develop critical thinking skills.

Narciss (2013) describes the interactive tutorial feedback (ITF) model and its application to the design and assessment of feedback strategies in digital learning environments. The ITF model conceptualises formative feedback as a multidimensional activity that regulates the learning process to improve students' competencies. In addition, this model has been implemented in various studies to optimise tutorial feedback strategies. Subsequently, Narciss et al. (2014) adopt this model and investigate how to personalise feedback strategies based on students' individual characteristics. The results highlight the importance of adjusting feedback according to individual factors, such as motivation and prior knowledge, which can significantly improve the effectiveness of technology-assisted learning.

In this research, Shute (2008) and Narciss (2013) are approached in a simplified manner since, in the context of the application, which is intended to train teachers who are not necessarily language teachers, it has a precise didactic impact. Thus, this study follows the synthesis made by Máñez (2020) of the studies by Shute (2008) and Narciss (2013), which can be summarised in three types of feedback: knowledge of the results (KR), knowledge of the correct response (KCR) and elaborated feedback (EF). KR-type feedback allows learners to discern the correctness of their responses by indicating faults. However, by only informing the learner about the quality of the response, KR is considered to be less effective and lacks guidance on how to improve. In contrast, KCR differs from KR in that it focuses primarily on identifying correct answers for student faults, thus serving a corrective function. Finally, EF not only identifies errors but also explains the correct answer. Consequently, EF is often accompanied by KR or KCR to enhance the learning experience.

To clarify the three types of feedback the distinction between error and fault made by Cassany (2000) is used. The error is the product of a defect in linguistic competence, it is committed when the writer does not know a grammatical rule, a word, etc. Fault is the consequence of a defect in linguistic performance, it is committed when the writer is distracted or when he/she is used to writing in a certain way. When an error is made, an EF must be given as an explanation of the correct answer must be given so that the student can improve his or her competence. When the student makes a fault, KR or KCR can be given, as only correction is required.

Van der Kleij et al. (2015) conducts a study investigating the impact of various feedback methods within a computer-based learning environment on student learning outcomes. Their findings indicate that feedback based on praise can positively influence students, although its effectiveness is not guaranteed. KR and KCR proved to be effective for lower-level learning. In contrast, elaborated feedback (EF) emerged as the most effective type, especially for the development of intellectual skills, which is aligned with previous research (Van der Kleij et al., 2011). However, the authors noted that due to variability in EF, its effects may also vary. Regarding the timing of the feedback, the authors also conclude that immediate

feedback is more effective for lower-level learning outcomes, whereas delayed feedback is more beneficial for higher-level learning outcomes. These findings are relevant for students at different educational levels.

In a related study, Máñez (2020) investigated the impact of corrective feedback on the voluntary decision of students to access elaborate feedback and analysed how feedback influences student performance. Máñez (2020) found that the presence of KCR feedback together with EF posed a challenge: it was not clear whether students accessed the feedback solely to confirm correct answers or also to read the explanations. In addition, Máñez (2020) observes that providing corrective feedback (KR and KCR) deters students from consulting elaborate feedback comments since they already have correct answers. In contrast, students who do not know the correct answers tend to access more of the feedback provided. Importantly, Máñez (2020) reveals that almost half of the students who received KCR did not consult the detailed explanations of the feedback.

Although several studies have recognised the importance of feedback, not all students understand the information they receive. For this reason, practising and training teachers must learn to deliver feedback that is clear and appropriate to the needs of their students. In this regard, KR, KCR and EF are easy ways for teachers in training to deliver information to their future students.

2.2 Feedback in writing

Numerous studies have highlighted the various effects of feedback on learners in both L1 and L2 contexts (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019). However, it is crucial to note that not all methods ensure learning or are equally effective (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). As Nelson and Schunn (2009) state, a distinction between learning and performance is necessary, with the former referring to knowledge acquisition observed in transfer tasks and the latter to knowledge gains observed in repeated tasks. The authors examine five characteristics of feedback: (1) summarisation, (2) specificity, (3) explanations, (4) scope, and (5) affective language. They explain that these characteristics may be considered psychologically distinct: summarisation, specificity, explanations, and scope are cognitive in nature, whereas affective language is, by definition, affective.

Addressing these elements is challenging because writing is a demanding task involving various cognitive and social aspects (such as language, content, and communicative intent). Managing all of these factors simultaneously during the writing process is necessary. In this sense, the assessment and feedback of writing become complex tasks. Matre and Solheim (2015) indicate that writing assessment often relies on holistic impressions. However, to effectively support students' improvement, teachers need clear criteria as well as the ability to make qualitative judgments on subjective aspects like creativity, adapting standards as needed. Thus, writing feedback is understood as the complex process of providing comments and

suggestions to writers to enhance their writing skills and achieve more effective communication.

2.3 Peer review as a feedback literacy practice among trainee teachers

To date, feedback has been recognised as essential in students' learning processes; however, its effectiveness relies on students' ability to interpret and use it effectively. Sutton (2012) describes "feedback literacy" as a situated and contested practice shaped by institutional cultures and power/knowledge relations within the academic sphere. In this context, Carless and Boud (2018) argue that by developing this literacy, students are better equipped to make use of the information provided by their teachers, self-assess their learning, and thus enhance it.

Moreover, Molloy et al. (2020) suggest that when students grasp feedback expectations, it reduces frustration and enhances the effectiveness of the feedback process. The concept of feedback literacy, initially introduced by Sutton (2012) and rooted in the broader academic literacies required for adaptation to higher education (Lea & Street, 1998), is expanded by Carless and Boud (2018). They redefine feedback literacy to include the understanding, competence, and motivation needed for students to maximise the benefits of feedback. In a more recent study, Carless and Winstone (2020) emphasise that for feedback processes to be effective, there must be shared responsibilities between students and teachers. This mutual responsibility necessitates feedback literacy from both parties, encompassing the knowledge and skills required to fulfil complementary roles in maximising feedback's impact.

Feedback literacy, as described by Carless and Winstone (2020), encompasses four interconnected characteristics: appreciating the value of feedback, making judgements, managing emotional factors, and responding to feedback. Thus, teacher feedback literacy significantly influences students' ability to use feedback effectively by equipping them with the necessary tools and guidance to interpret, evaluate, and apply feedback in meaningful ways. When teachers understand how to deliver constructive, clear, and targeted feedback, they help students develop the skills to engage with feedback, manage their emotional responses, and integrate feedback into their learning processes, ultimately fostering greater autonomy and improvement. Nash and Winstone (2017) state that teachers are responsible for providing students with the tools to improve feedback, whereas students are responsible for actively using this feedback.

In a comprehensive theoretical review, Nieminen and Carless (2022) critically analyse the research on feedback literacy in higher education. As a research object, his study aims to understand how the concept has been defined and how the literacy of student/teacher feedback has been constructed. Guided by the academic literacy framework (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006), which was first used by Sutton (2012) to introduce the term "feedback literacy", the authors delved into the literature. Among their findings, Nieminen and Carless (2022) note that most of the 49 papers

reviewed addressed feedback literacy as a trainable skill, often adopting a deficit model. This implies the need for students and teachers with insufficient feedback literacy to undergo interventions for improvement. Furthermore, the authors argued that such views are often used by individual-centred fields of research, such as cognitive science. Some studies have suggested that feedback literacy could be understood as the acculturation of students and teachers in academic cultures. In particular, a minority of studies have questioned individualistic perspectives on feedback literacy. Consequently, the authors concluded that the feedback literate individual needs to be reformulated as a critical and political actor, emphasising the importance of approaching feedback literacy from a nuanced and socially conscious perspective.

In the specific case of teachers in training, it is imperative that they understand the feedback they receive from their teachers or, in other words, be literate in feedback; they must also learn how to give feedback to their students. In this sense, the need arises to have opportunities to practice how to deliver constructive feedback, which can be solved through peer review or peer feedback (Baker, 2016; Ula, 2022). These are formed as instances of student participation, moving away from the teacher's mandatory discourse or assessment modes. These opportunities offer a learning experience for both the reviewed and the reviewer. On the one hand, whoever is corrected receives feedback on their written product, and on the other hand, whoever corrects not only applies their knowledge of writing but also learns to deliver constructive comments to another.

The peer review has been established as an important practice in the teaching of writing, especially in the context of learning English as a foreign language (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Zhang & Hyland, 2023). The peer review has been the subject of various studies that highlight its multiple benefits. Min (2006) notes that this practice has gained popularity due to its proven cognitive, affective, and linguistic benefits, although few studies have explored how peer feedback is reflected in subsequent student reviews, suggesting the low incorporation of such comments.

Ekşi (2012) compares the effectiveness of peer review with teacher feedback and finds that both methods improve the quality of students' writing. However, the peer review allows both superficial and profound changes, easing the burden on the teacher without compromising work quality. For her part, Baker (2016) explores how peer review not only improves writing quality but also increases students' participation in the review process, indicating that this practice is a valuable tool for developing writing skills.

Yalch et al. (2019) investigate the benefits of peer review for psychology students and highlight that constructive criticism from peers is associated with higher scores in individual writing, which emphasises its usefulness in teaching this discipline. Wei et al. (2022) compare self-reflection and peer feedback and find that students with low self-efficacy face greater difficulties in generating ideas and providing effective feedback. However, students with high self-efficacy seek more advice from

instructors and base their feedback on a combination of self-reflection and analysis of their colleagues' work.

Finally, Yin (2024) highlights the importance of cognitive, affective and behavioural participation in peer feedback to significantly improve the writing performance of graduate students, highlighting the relevance of the usefulness of the comments received. Together, these studies demonstrate that peer review is an effective strategy for improving academic and professional writing, with benefits that extend across disciplines and educational levels.

2.4 Task repetition for the acquisition of a discursive genre

The repetition of tasks to learn how to write refers to the pedagogical practice that implies the reiteration of a specific writing task to improve and consolidate students' linguistic and discursive skills. This approach promotes familiarisation with the structure of the discursive genre, allowing students to reflect on their previous performance, identify areas for improvement, and develop effective strategies to address challenges encountered in writing.

This approach has been widely used when teaching additional languages. Byrnes and Manchón (2014) offer an exhaustive analysis of how task-based learning can enrich the teaching of writing in L2. Highlighting the interaction between different factors of the tasks and students' characteristics, they point out that task repetition can optimise the learning of writing in diverse educational contexts. Manchón (2014) delves into the essential characteristics of task repetition in the written mode, differentiating between its "external" and "internal" variants and exploring its influence on written communication. External task repetition is driven by external factors, such as instructor feedback or the repetition of a completed task for presentation to a new audience. In contrast, internal task repetition is an inherent aspect of the writing process, emerging from the complexity of the task itself. External task repetition thus facilitates structured learning and a targeted focus on specific feedback, while internal task repetition fosters the transformation of knowledge and the independent resolution of problems.

Ample research exists on the impact of this approach on the teaching of additional languages (e.g., Bygate, 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Hidalgo & Lázaro-Ibarrola, 2020). Khezrlou (2020) provides additional evidence on the impact of task repetition on the development of written skills in L2. Their study reveals that corrective written feedback combined with task repetition can improve the accuracy and complexity of writing in learners. These findings highlight the importance of feedback in the task repetition process to improve writing performance. Similarly, Cui and Luo (2022) delve into the impact of task repetition on attention to the linguistic form by writers of Chinese as a second language (CSL). The authors highlight the importance of corrective written feedback and suggest that task repetition combined with certain types of feedback can improve both the accuracy and complexity of writing by CSL learners.

Studies on L1 are scarce. For this reason, this approach is used in this study, as it contributes significantly to the acquisition of discursive genres by providing students with the opportunity to systematically familiarise themselves with and practise genre-specific discursive conventions. In the case of this research, the genre outlines. The repetition of the task of writing a review is expected to allow students to acquire enough knowledge about the genre to be able to correct a peer. In this way, we explore whether repeated exposure to the review genre allows students to internalise its characteristics and develop adequate feedback for the needs of their peers, and whether the feedback provided by the teacher on their previous work offers them the opportunity to reflect on their errors and areas for improvement.

3.   METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research context and data

In this study, we adopted a qualitative approach with the main objective of characterising in depth the peer review practices carried out by a cohort of students in their third year of pedagogy in primary education at a Chilean university. A total of eighteen students participated in this study in the framework of the subject "Comprehension and production of texts." Each of them was entrusted with the task of writing two written literature review of compulsory reading materials related to the subject. Each of these reviews had a draft submission that was formatively corrected and a final submission that was summatively corrected.

The process began with the university lecturer modelling the production of a review, following Martin and Rose's Pedagogy of Gender (2012). To do this, a 45-minute session was dedicated to analysing review examples and highlighting the particular features of this discursive genre. Next, the production of a review was requested through a draft version. This was subjected to a formative assessment by the teacher through feedback comments that incorporated one, two or all three types of feedback (KR, KCR and/or EF). Subsequently, the final version was rated on a scale from 1.0 to 7.0 and subjected to qualitative feedback that also included the three types of comments (KR, KCR and/or EF).

The students were then trained in feedback techniques in a class made by the teacher responsible for the subject. In this training, they were taught the three types of comments they could receive, what they consist of and what they are for. The 90-minute training also included practical exercises on how to provide feedback on typing errors in sample texts. After this training, the students were asked to write a second review, which also included formative and summative versions. In this case, another student gave feedback on the training draft in a 90-minute session, in which the three types of written comments reviewed during the training session were used: KR, KCR and EF. In addition, to ensure that the feedback criteria coincided with those applied by the teacher in the assessment of review 1, a digital form was used that consisted of six items that revolved around the internal structure of the text and

the formal requirements specified in the homework instructions. The criteria assessed are listed below:

1) Does the text introduce the subject of the review in the first paragraph? (For this, you can use the various types of introduction—quote, question, brief statement, etc.) What suggestions can you give your partner?
2) Does the text offer at least one summary paragraph of the selected article or book chapter? What suggestions can you give your partner?
3) Does the text offer at least one paragraph in which the relevant aspects of the proposal are highlighted, whether positive or negative? What suggestions can you give your partner?
4) Does the text close the review in the last paragraph by offering a final assessment? What suggestions can you give your partner?
5) Regarding the formal aspects, do the verb tenses typical of academic writing predominate in the text (present with timeless value and nonpersonal forms of the verb)? What suggestions can you give your partner?
6) Is the text free of internal contradictions? In other words, is it coherent? Do the paragraphs present the appropriate internal structure and are your ideas linked by connectors? What suggestions can you give your partner?

As noted in the preceding questions, certain criteria are associated with specific elements of the discursive genre under review. Criteria 1, 2, 3, and 4 pertain to the structural components of the text, whereas criteria 5 and 6 are connected to non-generic elements related to formal features characteristic of academic discourse. Using the task repetition approach, students are expected to acquire the development of writing skills by completing both generic and nongeneric aspects.

Figure 1 represents the feedback process of the reviews in their drafts and final versions, as well as the intermediate training process between one task and another.

Figure 1. Feedback process for tasks 1 and 2

Based on the comments they received from their classmates, the students were instructed to apply the suggested improvements. Subsequently, the teacher also rated the texts on a scale from 1.0 to 7.0. Throughout this process, data were collected that included the teacher's instructions, the drafts, the final versions of both the first and second versions, and the responses to the questionnaires completed by the students who assessed the work of their classmates. It is important to highlight that the questionnaire exclusively included assessment criteria designed to be answered qualitatively, rather than through a dichotomous yes/no format.

Table 1 describes the grades obtained after the summative assessment of each student in both tasks 1 and 2 on a scale ranging from 1.0 to 7.0:

Table 1. Grades obtained by students in tasks 1 and 2

Student	Grade obtained in task 1	Grade obtained in task 2
E1	6.4	6.7
E2	6.4	6.3
E3	3.5	3.8
E4	4.8	6.7
E5	4.0	5.2
E6	6.7	5.7
E7	6.4	6.7
E8	6.7	6.7
E9	6.4	7.0
E10	6.3	7.0
E11	5.7	6.7
E12	3.8	6.3
E13	6.4	7.0
E14	5.2	7.0
E15	6.7	6.4
E16	5.5	7.0
E17	4.2	6.0
E18	3.3	6.0

3.2 Data analysis method

The data analysis was carried out through the following process. First, the comments made by the teacher were collected in accordance with the six assessment criteria that were subsequently collected in the questionnaire filled out by the students. Next, the responses of each student to each of the questions on the form were collected. In total, 349 feedback comments were obtained and classified as KR, KCR or EF. To encode the comments, segmentation was carried out when there was more than one type of feedback. For the following comment made by E11, the segmentation was carried out as follows: "In lines 9 and 11 (of paragraph 2), the idea is repeated, so my suggestion is that it could be synthesised or modified to better explain the idea that you want to arrive at" [1]. In light blue, a first assessment of the

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[1] *The original feedback in Spanish was translated to English.*

text that corresponds to a verification stands out since it only indicates that there is a redundancy but does not provide the correct way to express the ideas. However, below, an explanation is provided as to why the wording should be changed (to provide clarity), which corresponds to elaborate feedback. Thus, two types of feedback are observed: KR and EF and are counted as two comments.

The software used to process the data was Atlas.ti, a qualitative analysis tool that processes texts, videos, or audio files. Through its use, comments were coded by assigning one number to the document and another to the specific feedback comment. For example, 1:16 indicates document 1, feedback comment 16. It is important to note that the document number does not correspond to the number assigned to the student. The use of this software enabled the creation of networks between the codes and allowed for the quantification of which type of feedback was most frequently used by both the teacher and the students.

Subsequently, the comments given by the teacher were contrasted with those given by the students for each criterion. For example, the following was tracked: the comments the E2 student made in response to the feedback provided by the teacher, incorporated into the draft version of task 2, the comments that the student received in the peer review and the comments made regarding that same criterion in the role of reviewer. For E2, when the criterion linked to the introduction received feedback, it was indicated that "there must be an introductory paragraph in which the topic to be addressed in the review is contextualised"; that is, elaborate feedback was given (EF). In this regard, in the first version of her task 2, the student effectively considered the previous feedback comment, positively assessed her introduction, noting that "It can be seen that the introduction contains the subject of the review, since it mentions the text to work on. I consider the first paragraph complete." In this sense, verification feedback (KC) is received that validates the answer. On the other hand, when E2 gives feedback to her peer, she makes a detailed observation of the elements that her partner should improve on, alluding to the use of textual citations with corrective feedback (KCR), since she offered concrete suggestions on how to improve the text. For example, E2 points out to her partner in this criterion, among other things, that 'there are missing quotation marks for the specification of the name of the work' ('Theoretical framework for correction') (code 17: 5).

To validate the results, the data were independently subjected to the same analytical process by a second researcher, following the Peer Code Review procedure (Arafat et al., 2022) and using tool-assisted code review. Although most of the two analyses agreed (KAPPA 0.75), some fragments of transcripts elicited different interpretations. In such cases, a third evaluator was asked to determine the type of feedback used.

4.   RESULTS

Regarding the type of feedback provided by the teacher and the students, as a whole, the KR type predominated. In both the discursive and disciplinary aspects, the

teacher and the students referred mainly to verifying whether or not the production of the text was adequate. This type of feedback occurred in 53.6% of the comments made. Next, the type of feedback that ranked second in frequency was EF. Explanations or suggestions were elaborated on in 32.4% of the comments or observations present in the texts. Finally, KCR was the least frequent type of feedback since only 14% of the comments or records of the teacher and students corresponded to this type of category. Figure 2 presents this distribution.

Figure 2. Types of feedback provided by teachers and students out of the total corpus
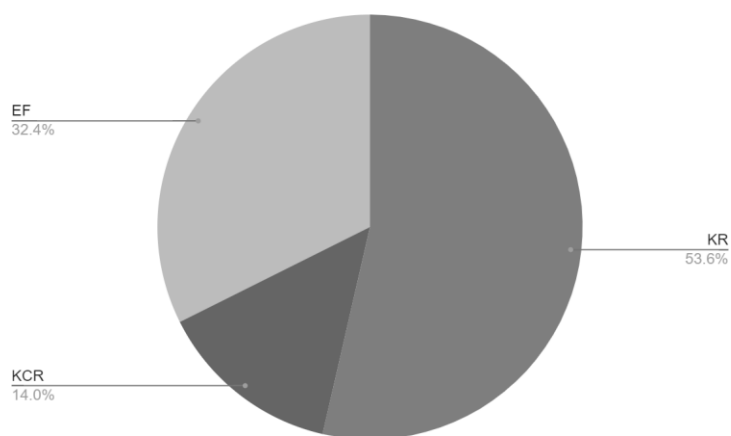
4.1 Feedback comments provided by the teacher

A more detailed analysis of the teacher's feedback reveals a higher proportion of KR comments. While KR accounted for 53.6% of the total feedback comments when considering both teacher and student contributions, this percentage increased to 60.8% when examining only the teacher's feedback. This was followed by the EF and KCR feedback types, with values of 20% and 19.2%, respectively, as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Types of feedback provided by the teacher
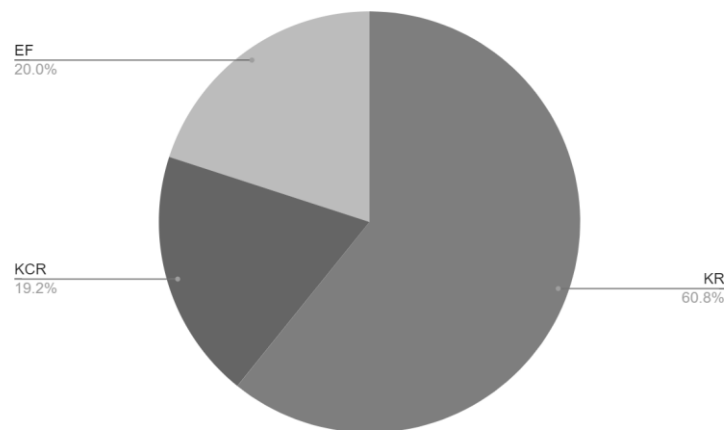
Each of these feedback types can be analysed individually, as in the following cases.

4.1.1   Knowledge of the results (KR)

> (1) Excellent contextualisation!' (code 2: 1)

In this case, the student's performance is only checked. Why it is an adequate contextualisation or whether it could be improved even more is not explained. In other words, this comment allows the student to discern the correctness of his text and whether or not it is adequate but does not establish an orientation for improvement.

4.1.2   Knowledge of the correct answer (KCR)

> (2) 'The quotation is not italicised.' (code 3: 9)

In (2), in addition to implicit verification occurring since the form of citation is indicated as not being correct, the correct answer is delivered, which is the elimination of the italics of the quoted fragment. No explanations are provided as to why this format change should be made.

4.1.3   Elaborated feedback (EF)

> (3)'This text does not follow planning or organisation of ideas. You must develop a mental scheme of how you will structure the paragraphs and then develop them.' (code 3:15).

This comment reflects elaborate feedback since it states that the text has shortcomings and offers a way to solve the deficiency observed: carrying out a scheme that allows for planning and organising the information developed is suggested.

The texts assessed through written feedback were graded on a scale from 1.0 to 7.0. After receiving the teacher's feedback, the 18 students achieved an average score of 5.46, indicating a generally satisfactory level of performance.

4.2 Feedback comments provided by students

Similarly, an analysis of the feedback provided by the students confirms the predominance of the KR type. When considering only student-generated comments, KR accounted for 62.1% of the observations. This was followed by EF feedback, which represented 30.7% of the comments, and KCR, which was the least frequent type, occurring in only 7.2% of cases. This distribution is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Types of feedback provided by students
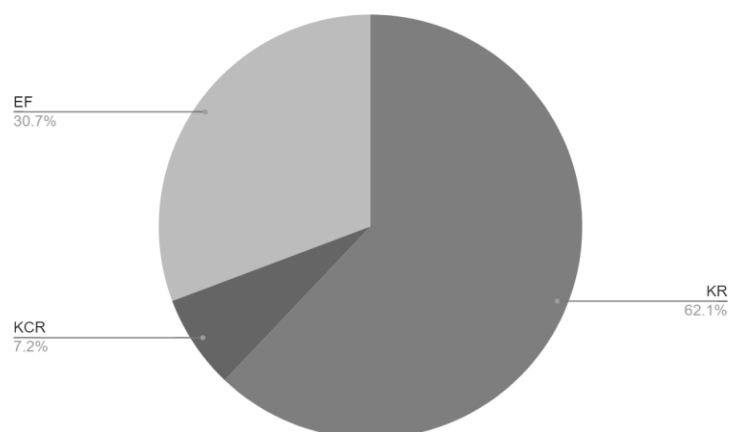
Each of these types of feedback is illustrated in the following cases.

4.2.1   Knowledge of the results (KR)

> (4) 'The syntheses of the texts are fine.' (code 13: 3)

As in the feedback provided by the teacher, in this observation in the peer review, the reviewer student only verifies the suitability or not of the reviewed student to the selected criterion. There is no explanation for why the syntheses are found to be well-developed.

4.2.2   Knowledge of the correct answer (KCR)

(5) "2. Understanding this sentence—'is that only the errors of a text should be corrected and when using its methodology of + and - at the time of finding successes and shortcomings, since it does not give more reflection on the subject'—is a little difficult. You could use a simpler way of explaining it, such as 'Cassany suggests that the only way to correct writing errors is by pointing out what is right and what is wrong without going into depth or providing details about what happened in the process. Reading that caused the student to error". (code 18:19)

In this observation, the assessing student delivers the reformulation to be carried out by her peer. The reviewer student does not explain why or how the text should be rewritten; however, the correct answer is explicitly given.

4.2.3   Elaborated feedback (EF)

(6) 'I recommend talking more from your words in front of the text before mentioning a very structured summary.' (code 8:13)

Although in this case, the reviewer does not explain why the reviewed person should change the words, a comment is provided that suggests what to modify but is not a direct instruction or corrective feedback.

The texts assessed in this task were also graded on a scale of 1.0 to 7.0. After the didactic intervention, the 18 students achieved an average score of 6.34. This result suggests an improvement in students' performance after incorporating peer feedback in their revisions.

Although, as mentioned thus far, KR and KCR can be presented in isolation, EF is rarely able to do so autonomously. Generally, elaborate feedback is accompanied by the other two types. For example, in (7), feedback provided by the teacher indicates that three types of feedback are present:

(7) "Here again, there are changes in ideas. You take a tour of what each moment of the reading implies. You have two options: take a shorter tour that organises the three moments in a paragraph or write a paragraph for each moment. Then, there is a break, so again, there should be another paragraph." (code 4: 3)

When a change in ideas is indicated, this implicitly states that the paragraph is poorly prepared and should be corrected. Subsequently, the alternatives available to improve this deficiency are described. In this sense, the elaboration of the feedback has more to do with the suggestion than with the explanation. Finally, it is explicitly indicated that the paragraphs must be separated, indicating that the correct answer to how to solve this error is given.

However, this condition is not exclusive to the teacher since students also provide this type of mixed feedback, as shown in (8):

(8) 1. "Be able to correct..." The teacher should not be able to know but must be able to correct it accurately.

2. "... since it opens the way to observation and the role that he contemplates in class..." Does what the teacher can correct truly give way to observation?

3. "For the same reason, it is important to encourage self-management when giving key points for correction." In whom should self-management be encouraged—in the student or teacher?

4. In the following line, "The student must be able to write, although he must develop two drafts to reach the final result." The connector "although" is not well used, and other shortcomings in the writing make sense of what is expressed; an alternative is as follows: "It is necessary to lead the student to create a writing process in phases: first, the planning; second, writing the draft; third, review, rewrite and edit." (code 18:20)

In this feedback, the reviewer makes all three types of observations. For example, when a connector is incorrectly used, *it* correctly indicates whether the wording of the text is adequate. Similarly, in that same fragment, a reformulation of how the text can be improved is given. Finally, there is elaboration since the reason there is incorrect wording is explained: the deficient wording takes away the meaning of the ideas that are to be expressed.

Regarding the feedback comments that students give to their classmates, some of them provide information that only refers to the task they are reviewing. On the other hand, other comments report improvements in the future, that is, observations that exceed the limits of the revised review. The following are examples of feedback of these types, (9) and (10):

(9) "The text presented is coherent and presents a good use of connectors. The internal structure of each paragraph should be reviewed since the first paragraph might address slightly more than it should and could be connected to the beginning of the second paragraph" (code 14:12).

(10) "As a suggestion, the repetition of the connectors that is presented in the same paragraph should be changed." (code 11:14)

As seen in (9), the suggestions of this KR and EF are related to correcting the revised task and do not indicate how to improve performance in future tasks. On the other hand, in (10), although the suggestion is brief, it exceeds the correctness of this task: if the suggestion indicates that connectors should not be repeated in a paragraph, this can be applied to all future texts that the partner writes.

Given the results obtained, it is important to note how students replicate what they have learned from the teacher beyond the training received. In this sense, most of the comments made by students to their classmates, as indicated, correspond to KR, which indicates that the comments partially imitate the review carried out by the teacher and that many of these comments exclusively address formal aspects of the text. Specifically, although the teacher's feedback in sections 1 and 5 are mostly elaborated on and the other sections have predominantly KR-type comments, for the students, sections 1, 2 and 6 of the questionnaire received the highest percentage of EF, whereas items 3, 4 and 5 predominantly received KR type comments.

Below, we present the case of student E18, who significantly improved her grade between tasks 1 and 2. This case is particularly noteworthy as this student received a grade of 3.3 in Task 1. The teacher provided the following feedback on their work

with regard to the introduction criterion: "This paragraph needs structure. You must state the texts to be addressed and provide the names of the authors, the texts and the years of production; however, do not indicate why you have chosen them and not others, as justifying the selection was not required." As seen, EF was provided.

Subsequently, in the second task, it is observed that the student has assimilated the teacher's suggestion since the feedback she receives from her peer reviewer refers to formal and nonstructural aspects of the introduction. Her peer reviewer indicates that "I think the introduction is quite clear; however, two things should be corrected: 1) "in most classrooms" because I believe that in one way or another, in all classrooms, constant corrections are being made (possibly due to the teacher himself or to his own students). 2) I think you were confused with the title of the text, as it is "Repair the writing" and not "Daniel Cassany." This feedback shows how E18 assimilated the teacher's instructions and that the significant improvement in the grade is the result of not only the feedback received by their classmate but also the feedback received by the teacher in task 1. In turn, E18 shows assimilation of the information provided by the teacher and replication of this type of comment in their feedback because when they have to give feedback to their peers, they indicate, "I suggest ordering the ideas of the introduction to improve the writing and coherence of the paragraph and complement the ideas." As is shown, a similarity exists between the comment received by E18 in the feedback of her task 1 and the feedback that she later delivers to her peer in task 2. This condition is reiterated in E12.

5.   DISCUSSION

5.1 Effectiveness of feedback types and learner autonomy

The results indicate that KR is the predominant type of feedback in both teacher and student corrections. Van der Kleij et al. (2011, 2015) find that all three types of feedback are effective, particularly for developing intellectual skills. However, in this study, participants who received corrective feedback and, in turn, those who provided corrective feedback demonstrated progress in their performance, as evidenced by grade improvements in most cases.

This suggests that corrective (also called directive) feedback may be especially beneficial for less autonomous learners, those who may be more dependent on external guidance to identify errors and take steps to improve. These learners often benefit from explicit instructions that clearly describe what needs to be changed or corrected, as they may still be developing the ability to self-assess and self-regulate their learning processes. In contrast, learners who are more autonomous, characterised by their ability to independently analyse their work and make revisions without relying heavily on external input, may find directive feedback less critical. For these students, less prescriptive feedback such as elaborated feedback may foster greater intellectual independence and autonomous problem-solving. This

distinction does not reflect differences in cognitive abilities, but rather the stage of development of the learners and the degree of self-regulation they have achieved.

5.2 Impact of emotional and contextual factors on peer feedback

The above shows that feedback training has had positive effects. The teacher's correction of errors through EF and faults through KR or KCR had a long-term impact since the comments that students offered to their classmates also distinguished between errors and faults (Cassany, 2000). This would explain why, in many cases, the feedback did not require extensive comments since further elaboration is not a guarantee of better feedback. However, in the case of comments submitted as EF, as these are generally accompanied by KR or KCR, whether the peers accessed the comments solely to confirm that their texts were well written or to read the explanations is not clear, as in the study by Máñez (2020). In addition, the results show that regarding the delivery time of the feedback, the results of this research coincide with those of Van der Kleij et al. (2015) since this is a determining factor: in both tasks, the students received comments immediately two days after submitting their drafts and corrected their texts in only a few days to meet the final delivery date.

Although numerous studies support the effectiveness of peer corrections in writing courses, such as Coit (2004), who mentions that peer feedback is beneficial for expanding students' academic-style writing practices, in this study, it is not certain that those who gave KR or KCR did so because they determined that their peers were committing a fault and not an error or because they did not know how to provide an explanation to address this difficulty. In this sense, whether the elaboration is weaker because the students have less expertise in the metalanguage or do not know the correct answer can be questioned.

Similarly, another interpretation of this result is linked to emotional factors: since the feedback was not anonymous, elements such as personal relationships, the fear of hurting a peer's feelings, or the desire to avoid conflict may have influenced the quality and depth of the comments provided. For instance, students may have opted for less critical or more generic comments to prevent tension with their peers. Furthermore, the fact that peer review was not graded proved decisive in shaping the type of feedback delivered. The absence of a grade may have diminished the perceived importance of the process, leading some students to invest less effort or to focus on simpler aspects, such as formal features, rather than providing more elaborate feedback (EF), which typically requires a higher level of analysis and engagement. This underscores the notion that environmental conditions and emotional factors play a significant role in the dynamics of peer feedback.

The perceptions of students regarding the activity must be determined for comparison with the results obtained in other studies that show that feedback between peers positively helps learning in both first and second languages (see Lin & Chien, 2009; Thirakunkovit & Chamcharatsri, 2019; Vuogan & Li, 2023). However,

it can be concluded that the task repetition approach has had a positive impact. In cases such as the one analysed in the results section of E18, the teacher's feedback had an improvement effect: in version 1 of task 2, the student already presented a much more complete text and not only received the information that the teacher gave her but also incorporated it to improve her written production. Thus, repeating the task of producing a review promotes progress in student performance. In this regard, the results of this research coincide with the results in Khezrlou (2020) on the teaching of additional languages: task repetition in conjunction with adequate feedback can improve the precision and complexity of students' writing.

It is important to highlight that three students received lower marks on their second assignment. One possible explanation for this outcome is that the feedback they received during the peer review process may not have adequately addressed their specific needs. As previously noted, it is crucial to assess the extent to which students demonstrate autonomy in providing different types of feedback, as well as the extent to which the reviewer possesses the necessary expertise to deliver feedback that aligns with the recipient's requirements. In all three instances where grades declined, the students predominantly received KR from their peers.

5.3 Limitations and recommendations for future research

This research has certain limitations that need to be considered for a more complete understanding of the phenomenon studied. First, the lack of a perceptions questionnaire limits the ability to assess whether students perceived the feedback provided by their peers as useful and to what extent seeing their peers' texts as examples contributed to the writing of their reviews. Similarly, the absence of interviews prevented us from delving into the reasons behind students' choice of a particular type of feedback. In this sense, another limitation of this study is related to the anonymity of the peer review, since, as previously indicated, it could have had an emotional impact on the review. Finally, the fact that the peer review and, thus, the feedback comments delivered did not makeup part of students' grades could have an impact on the type of comment since sometimes it is easier and faster to verify (KC) than to deliver the correct answer (KCR) or an explanation (EF). These limitations highlight the need to complement future research with qualitative methods that allow us to explore the perceptions and motivations of students concerning peer feedback.

6.   CONCLUSIONS

Feedback training for future teachers has emerged as a critical component of pedagogical preparation, enabling them not only to interpret and apply the feedback they receive but also to develop the skills needed to provide effective feedback to their future students. The classification of feedback used in this study, despite being over a decade old, has proven to have a significant didactic impact on teacher

education. Specifically, it offers a clear and structured framework for distinguishing different feedback types, reducing ambiguity and confusion caused by the multiple overlapping terms prevalent in other fields, such as additional language teaching (e.g., corrective feedback, formative feedback, managerial feedback). This clarity facilitates a deeper understanding of feedback mechanisms, making it easier for trainee teachers to apply these concepts effectively in their practice.

As highlighted earlier, the training provided during this study supported participants in their development as primary school teachers, even though their specialisation did not necessarily include language teaching. The structured classification (KR, KCR, and EF) enabled participants to understand and assimilate the different dimensions of feedback, fostering the ability to replicate effective feedback strategies tailored to the needs of their peers. This underscores the didactic value of using a robust feedback taxonomy in teacher training, as it equips future teachers with practical tools to evaluate and respond to student performance comprehensively.

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