DOCTORAL (PhD) DISSERTATION

THE WASHBACK OF LANGUAGE EXAMS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE IN HUNGARY IN A COMPLEX DYNAMIC SYSTEM FRAMEWORK
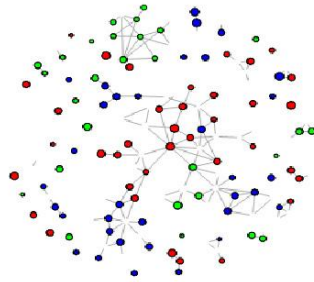
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Abstract

The present study investigated how the washback of different language exams and various other factors shape the classroom practice of language teachers at the secondary level of public education in Hungary. To find answers to our research question, mixed methods were applied: a semi structured interview, questionnaires including both the Likert type and open-ended items revealed how the various washback factors, the ID variables of teachers and the types of language exams influence the language teaching approach of teachers. The study also showed how the different types of language exams – school leaving and externally accredited ones – affect teachers. Furthermore, the questionnaire administered to both teachers and students made it possible to compare and contrast the views of teachers and students with respect to the same variable: classroom practice.

The results showed that there is a difference in the way the two major types of language exams exert their influence on both teachers and students. It has also been revealed that the ID variables of teachers have a stronger effect on teachers than the washback factors. By comparing the responses teachers and students gave to the same statements, evidence was found for how the introduction of the new school leaving exam in 2005 affected teaching practice.

The findings of the study bear significance to both practicing teachers, teacher educators and decision makers. The results of the study revealed the importance of providing teachers with appropriate knowledge regarding the exams they prepare their students for.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART I

COMPLEX SYSTEMS, INNOVATION AND CHANGE, WASHBACK

PART II

THE EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF LANGUAGE EXAMS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE

List of tables

XI

List of figures

List of abbreviations and acronyms

FL	Foreign language
ISLE	Intermediate level school leaving exam
ASLE	Advanced level school leaving exam
ELE	Elementary language exam
ILE	Intermediate language exam
ALE	Advanced language exam
EFL	English as a foreign language
GFL	German as a foreign language
MM	Mixed methods approach

List of appendices

PART I

COMPLEX SYSTEMS, INNOVATION AND CHANGE,

WASHBACK

Introduction

When I prepared my first class for the school leaving exam in History as a novice teacher, their performance at the exam was disappointing. They achieved an average that was lower than that of their grades at the end of the 4th year. However, they achieved excellent grades in Biology, a subject only a few of them were really interested in. I was shattered and wanted to know what I had done wrong. Having asked them what happened, they told me they had not done anything else during Biology lessons but preparing for the exam. All throughout their year four. Every single lesson.

My interest in how exams influence classroom practice stems from this, rather bitter, experience of mine. The phenomenon, however, is not unprecedented. Throughout history exams have been used to select students for placement in educational programs, to motivate the talented to learn, to improve the performance of schools and to oppose favouritism (Cheng, Watanabe & Curtis, 2004). Tests play a crucial role in educational policies and practices. As tests have proved to be powerful tools, policymakers use them to shape educational systems: to control curricula, to introduce new textbooks, or to promote new teaching methods. In their simple definition, 'backwash' or 'washback' refer to the influence of testing on teaching and learning (e.g., Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Hughes, 1989;). Washback is a rather complex phenomenon which has direct and indirect influence on teaching and learning. However, it is very difficult to precisely determine the real nature of this effect, because it is shaped by several factors, of which the knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of teachers seem to be the most important. Researchers including Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Green (2006), Li (1990)

Qi (2004, 2005), Turner (2006), Wang (2011) and Watanabe (1996) have all found that the way and quality of test washback as it appears in teaching and learning strongly depends on teachers. Besides teachers, the various models of washback (Bailey, 1996; Burrows, 2004; Saif, 1999; Tsagari, 2009; Vígh, 2007) speak about the involvement of other stakeholders/agents: decision makers in the field of education, researchers, test-developers, students and parents. The influence of exams on classroom practice is mediated by teachers, whose teaching practices are affected by their knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and motivation as well as the micro and macro contexts where they work. Teachers' knowledge is further influenced by their early experiences as a learner, their schooling, the further training courses they have taken and the experiences they gained when teaching. To sum it up, a complex set of interrelated variables appears to exist that all contribute to the appearance of washback in classroom teaching.

The Hungarian population perform rather poorly in the field of foreign language (FL) proficiency. The most recent European barometer statistics (*Europeans and their languages*, 2006; *Europeans and their languages,* 2012) revealed that according to self-reports, Hungary still has the lowest foreign language competence in the Union. However, adding up the minimum required number of lessons spent on language teaching, we find that students receive a minimum of 936 lessons to study their first foreign language, and 432 to learn a second one until the end of grade 12. The country has also witnessed several major attempts to improve the FL proficiency of students in the past 25 years, an era which has been perceived as a "golden age" in foreign language education (Medgyes, 2011) and a modernization "success story" (Vágó, 2000). As part of this modernization, in 2005, a completely new two-level school leaving language exam was introduced at the secondary level, with the explicit aim of driving language teachers towards using more communicative methods. At the moment Hungarian students can only get their college degrees if they possess

a language certificate and from 2020 having such a certificate will be a necessary requirement to enter higher education. The situation regarding the grave importance of language exams in Hungary will be elaborated in chapter 4.

So why is it that despite the high number of FL lessons and the grave importance of language exams, the FL proficiency of Hungarian students is still rather low? To what degree have the all-important language exams affected teaching practice? What are the variables that make teachers change their ways of teaching? The present dissertation was motivated by these questions.

It seems obvious that the phenomenon in question, the washback effect of exams on classroom practice, is complex, as it consists of a great number of components that are all related to one another. Therefore, the focus of our investigation should be treated from this perspective.

At the turn of the millennium researchers (de Bot, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2005; de Bot, Lowie &Verspoor, 2007; Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006; 2002; Herdina & Jessner, 2002; Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) examining second language acquisition (SLA) began to use nonlinear system dynamics as a theoretical framework in their studies. This new paradigm offers a holistic approach that can model the interactions among the many elements or factors that shape SLA. Since the washback effect of exams, especially regarding its emergence in classroom teaching practice, is a rather complex process, involving the operation of a great number of variables, nonlinear system dynamics offers an appropriate framework for gaining a better understanding of how the various factors such as teachers, teaching methods, test takers' individual differences, tests, etc. interact with one another and impact human behaviour. In my dissertation I intend to use the theory of dynamic nonlinear systems as a framework to explore the mechanism of how exams interact with the teaching practice of FL teachers in the Hungarian context.

Research questions and an overview of the dissertation

To discover this, I resorted to applying mixed methods (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). On the qualitative side, to get an emic perspective, I made a focus group interview with teachers who worked prior to the new school leaving language exam that was introduced and those who started teaching after that. From the quantitative tradition, I had questionnaires given to teachers and students. In addition, there were open-ended questions in the questionnaires whose content had the potential to reveal the lived experiences of the respondents. For an overview of the main research questions see Table 1 below.

The aim of the research is to reveal how the various factors affecting classroom practice (tests and exams, teachers, students, parents and contextual variables) interact with one another.

Table 1

Overview of research questions

	Research questions	Participants	Data sources	Methods of analysis
Phase 1	- How do the different types of language exams (school leaving and external) affect teachers and students in the Hungarian context?	teachers	focus group interview	content analysis using general inductive approach
Phase 2	**TEACHERS** - What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams (school leaving and external)? - What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback and the classroom practice of secondary school teachers? - What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback, teacher ID variables and classroom practice of secondary school teachers?	teachers, students (questionnaire sent to over 1000 schools and over 20 000 students)	online questionnaire	descriptive statistics, multiple linear regression analysis, ANOVA, One-Sample T test, Paired-Samples T test, content analysis
	STUDENTS - What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams (school leaving and external)?	students		

The dissertation is divided into two parts and six chapters. In Part 1, Chapters 1, 2 and 3 outline the theoretical background to the research studies. The first chapter discusses the characteristics of complex, nonlinear and dynamic systems and the ideas of innovation and change. The second chapter contains the critical review of the literature on washback and impact detailing various models of washback. The third chapter discusses teacher cognition and teacher motivation. Part 2 comprises three chapters. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 outline the empirical studies: a qualitative focus group interview with 5 secondary school teachers and two online questionnaires administered to teachers and students. Chapter 4 describes the methodology applied in the course of the investigation, Chapter 5 contains the results while Chapter 6 the discussion of the results. Finally, the conclusions of our investigation are drawn in Chapter 7.

Chapter 1 Complex dynamic systems

1.1   System theories

The idea that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts can be traced back as far as the great ancient philosopher Aristotle's Metaphysics (384 BC - 322 BC). The aim of the ancient thinkers was the same as that of today's researchers: to construe theories that can describe, model and explain the different phenomena we encounter. Both induction and deduction are about gathering data, categorizing them and trying to find a system that explains interrelated phenomena. These theories are heavily related to causality to offer explanations. As an example, Sir Isaac Newton (1624-1727) published his book Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica ("Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy") in 1687 where he insisted that the behaviour of the universe can be explained by his laws of motion and the theory of gravity. Scientists suggested that on such basis we can understand and reveal the operation of the universe making reality predictable. The claims that the various phenomena surrounding us are entirely predictable were first questioned in the twentieth century by Heisenberg's uncertainty principle (1927) suggesting that there are "limits to which anything at the quantum level could be known for certain" (cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 1). The more complex a phenomenon is, the more difficult, if not impossible, it is to give an explanation of how it works purely on the basis of cause and effect. In complex systems a certain degree of randomness is naturally inherent. The second development which undermined the idea that the world can be understood on the basis of cause and effect came with the emergence of the various systems theories. In what follows, I will give an overview of the various fields of systems theories.

One of the founders of general systems theory is Karl Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968) who traced this idea back to the great ancient philosopher, Aristotle. This became the starting

point for the various systems theories. Bertalanffy (1968) thought that besides representing reality, this theory may also function as an analytical framework:

> It is necessary to study not only parts and processes in isolation, but also to solve the decisive problems found in organization and order unifying them, resulting from dynamic interaction of parts, and making the behaviour of the parts different when studied in isolation or within the whole. (Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 31)

At first, systems theory inspired many thinkers especially in the fields of physics, mathematics and biology in the second part of the 20th century. One of the first fields to apply such thinking was cybernetics, a transdisciplinary approach that intends to explore regulatory systems, their structure, including their constraints and possibilities. While "old" cybernetics focuses on analysing dynamic systems, second-order, or "new" cybernetics investigates sytems that also include the observer. According to Geyer (1994) the basic principles of second order or "new" cybernetics are as follows:

a) systems are self-organising and self-steering;

b) systems contain self-referencing (a system has knowledge about itself and conducts self-observation which influences its operation);

c) systems are autocatalytic (are able to develop themselves) and cross-catalytic (able to impact other systems);

d) systems are autopoietic (the components in interaction generate the same network that produced them).

The novelty of this more dynamic approach is that it revealed the existence and importance of feedback (loops, self-referencing) which can lead to emergence in complex systems (Suhajda, 2012). Feedback mechanisms are considered as a threshold concept for understanding complex systems, as these are what make complex systems adaptive. We can

differentiate between two types of feedback loops according to what happens to a system as a result of the operation of the loop. These kinds of feedback are generally referred to as positive and negative, though these terms may be misleading due to their value-laden character. It is better to say that a change in the system may either be reinforced (self-reinforcing, runaway, snowballing) or dampened (self-sustaining, stabilising, and balancing) (Suhajda, 2012).

Biologists Maturana and Varela (Leyland, 1988) distinguish self-referred and other-referred systems. Other-referred systems (e.g., artificial objects) have permanent structures; therefore, they can only react in a specific way. Self-referred systems, in contrast, have dynamic structures, so they are able to recreate themselves and their internal structures. Maturana calls this phenomenon autopoiesis. Niklas Luhmann (2006, 2009) integrated the concept of Maturana's autopoieses into his systems theory. He suggests that autopoietic systems, characterized by self-referencing, are able to determine themselves by differentiating themselves from their environment. Luhmann emphasised the importance of the connection between the systems and their environment. The theory of complex adaptive systems has integrated the theories described above. Such systems consist of a large number of components that, interacting with one another, adapt themselves and learn (Holland, 2006). These systems are dynamic and are able to adapt to and evolve with their changing environment. Holland (2006) mentions three features that these systems have: aggregate behaviour, anticipation and evolution. The aim of our investigation is to study a complex phenomenon, washback and reveal how the various factors (tests, exams, teachers, students, and contexts) influencing classroom practice interact with one another. To find answers to these questions, we need to study "not only parts and processes in isolation", as Bertalanffy (1968, p. 31) put it, but also the interactions existing between, because these connections make the behaviour of the parts different when studied within the whole.

1.2 The characteristics of complex, nonlinear systems

Chaos is an interdisciplinary theory, which focuses on the behaviour of dynamic systems and states that despite the randomness of seemingly chaotic systems there are underlying patterns. The science of chaos is about complex dynamic non-linear systems. This scientific approach focuses on the study of the interactions among the various components of a particular system that produce the synthesis of emergent wholes (Kellert, 1993). Systems form an integral part of our life. There are economic systems, social systems, educational systems, computer systems, etc. Talking about a human being we can think of our circulatory or cognitive systems. Systems consist of parts that are in interaction with one another. They may have subsystems and, at the same time, may also be part of a larger system. Owing to the fact that there are constant interactions among the various parts forming them, such systems are also called dynamic. Therefore, dynamic systems theory aims to study phenomena that do not seem to follow predictable patterns of development. Such systems are complex, dynamic and nonlinear (Waldrop, 1992).

They are *complex* as they consist of a great number of components or agents (Davies, 1988). The behaviour of these systems is more than the product of the behaviour of its individual components, as the individual components exist in an environment created by their interactions with the other components in the system. That is the reason why we can talk about emergent behaviour as the operation of the system emerges on the basis of how their components interact with one another (Waldrop, 1992). In dynamic systems all parts are connected to all other parts. These systems comprise parts, components, agents or subsystems and they are all related to one another; this means that changes in one of them may have an impact on the other ones. This, however, does not mean that all connections are equally strong. Some components may be loosely connected, while connections between other agents

may be stronger. Complex systems also consist of many different layers (individual, group, society, etc.) and time-scales (ontogenetic, historical) (van Geert & Steenbeek, 2008).

A qualitative aspect related to complex systems is their nonlinear feature. They are considered nonlinear as an effect within them may be disproportionate to the cause. In other words, the output of the system may not be directly proportional to the input. It may happen that a simple trigger, which occurs frequently, brings about a major change (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Nonlinearity is heavily connected to the interconnectedness of the system. The behaviour of such systems cannot be reduced to a specific set of components that interact in a simple and linear way. According to van Geert and Steenbeek (2008), the relationships between these interacting components may be supportive, competitive or conditional. Such relationships may be reciprocal but not always symmetrical. While the overall behaviour of a nonlinear dynamic system is generated by the complex interactions of its micro-scale components, through processes of circular causality this behaviour also influences both the interactions between these micro-scale components and the components' behaviour (Richardson, Dale & Marsh, 2014). The greater the number of components (agents, parts) that interact with one another, the more difficult it becomes to predict how the system will change. This feature and the fact that there is a degree of randomness inherent in such systems make their behaviour unpredictable. The most important reason for this unpredictability is that complex dynamic systems are highly sensitive to initial conditions. Using his famous metaphorical term, the butterfly effect, Edward Lorenz (1972) intended to show that a minimal difference in the initial conditions may produce massive changes later on. We need a great amount of information regarding these initial conditions. However, in most cases we are not aware of the complete list of initial conditions.

The famous law in physics, the second law of thermodynamics, states that it is unavoidable that systems reach equilibrium or move towards entropy. Since this famous law

was formulated, however, scientists have realized that it applies only to closed systems and not to open ones. Open dynamic systems are characterized by constant change, as they are in permanent interaction with their environment and reorganise themselves as a result of internal change. Using the term "self-organisation" we refer to behavioural patterns that emerge from the interactions existing among the components of a particular system. Most examples of this emergent behaviour are social examples, such as the coordinated activity of people walking on a crowded sidewalk (Sumpter, 2010). According to de Boot and Larsen-Freeman (2011, p 13), there are "two forces at work constantly: interaction with the environment and internal self-organisation." This permanent interaction and reorganisation also means that such systems are feedback sensitive (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Research in social psychology suggests that people are not always aware of the real reasons for their moves (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). Environmental and situational constraints can impact behaviour and intentions of socially situated individuals who may not be aware of the existence of this influence. If we want to understand the behaviour of an individual or a social system we need to consider both the environmental factors that make up the behaviour of that particular system, the interactions between the components and also between the components and their environment. The behaviour of social systems is therefore heavily dependent on their context. Systems that are characterized by this kind of context-dependent behaviour are called softly assembled systems (Thelen, 2005). An important feature of such systems is that the dynamics within them are rather interaction-dominant and not component-dominant. This means that the lower level components influence the higher level order of the system and, at the same time, are structured by it. As a result, it is very difficult to identify what roles the various components play in causing the changes (Richardson et al., 2014). From time to time, these systems tend to settle into a new form called "attractor state". By definition it is the state the system prefers to be in over other states at a particular point in time. It takes a great amount of

energy to move the system out of such an attractor state. These systems are also characterized by iteration, the repeated application of the same procedure again and again. Regarding the concept of development, it means that the actual level of development depends heavily on the previous level (van Gert, 1994).

Language is an open system, existing in a constant change and evolution. The same can be stated about its teaching and learning. Having recognized this, beginning from the second part of the 1990s, nonlinear system dynamics has been introduced into second language acquisition research (de Boot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Many researchers welcomed it as it offered a new perspective through which several ambiguous issues might be explained. Although it had been known that the factors affecting FL teaching and learning are interrelated, this new theoretical lens provided researchers with a primarily holistic framework that took into consideration the interconnected operation of the various conditions, elements, contexts related to language acquisition. In her seminal work Larsen-Freeman (1997) suggests that such important applied linguistics questions as the mechanism of acquisition, the definition of learning or the issue of individual differences should be examined from this new angle. Concluding her article she indicates that chaos and complexity theory offers an opportunity for researchers to get a more comprehensive picture about the phenomena they study, because this lens can warn us "against settling for simple solutions" (p 158), may highlight "the importance of details" and "reminds us to hold the whole and to find a unit of analysis that allows this" (p 159). de Boot and Larsen-Freeman state that the "social situation of language use and development and the psycholinguistic processing that takes place can only be artificially separated" (2011, p 18). They also talk about three features of cognition that needs to be accounted for in this respect: (1) cognition has an associated character as it is the result of the operation of various parts of the brain; (2) the cognitive

system is shared and not restricted to the individual; and (3) the context where cognition takes place is also part of cognition, hence its situated character (de Boot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011, p. 17).

Dynamic systems emerge on the basis of the interconnected nature of their components, subsystems or parts making componential explanations useless. Their behaviour cannot be explained by studying the components separately. Take, for example, the issue of how a teacher chooses what ways of assessment to apply. First of all, he is influenced by his former experiences as a language learner, by his training and by the experiences he gained as a practicing student teacher. To test reading comprehension, he decides to apply authentic texts only. His students, however, have read only graded texts before, are not used to reading "more difficult readings" and become demotivated by the low grades they get. As a result, he resorts to using the texts found in the students' course book. At the same time, a new type of compulsory examination is introduced where reading comprehension is measured through reading authentic texts. Furthermore, there is a strong expectation from both parents and school administration to help students pass this test. In order to understand how (and if) the classroom practice of the teacher in question changes we need to take into account the various factors involved in this situation: the former experiences of the teacher in question, his university training, the expectations of students, parents and school, the requirements of the new exam, etc. It is impossible to anticipate every single factor that contributes to the development of this situation, what is more, they would not even make a uniform contribution. Therefore, it is not advisable to study such phenomena in the framework of conventional science using, for example, an experimental design. Rather, van Geert and Steenbek (2005) proposes retrodiction that is, "explaining after by before". It implies that after a change has taken place, we think back and interpret what happened.

In conclusion, the following points are worth considering: on the basis of the above we have reasons to believe that the theory of complex/dynamic systems has the potential to be used as a theoretical framework to understand how the actual classroom practice of language teachers is affected by, among others, language exams. This theory encourages a blurring of boundaries and making it possible to see complementarity and inclusiveness, to see things in the light of both/and rather than either/or (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 157). One of the most important features of complex dynamic systems is change. Change that can emerge, but also change that can be initiated externally. Therefore, in the next chapter I discuss what innovation and change may mean in the field of education.

1.3   Innovation and change in the field of education

Change is a complex phenomenon. It takes place in particular contexts and is perceived in different ways by those affected by it. The great number of variables in a complex system interacts in a great number of ways which makes change a potentially unpredictable phenomenon. Change, nevertheless, appears to be a constant and consistent feature in education. Changes may take different forms such as chaotic and random, but they can also be controlled and orderly. We may think of 'constructive change' (Hyland & Wong, 2013, p. 2) if there are carefully designed objectives attached to it which are intended to initiate and manage change in several different areas. In his work, Kennedy (2013) differentiates between three models of change: mechanistic, ecological and individual. He states that mechanistic change applies a top-down approach where, with the help of rules and regulations, the intended change is introduced from the outside. Such changes are large-scale, external and typically take place on a national level involving central control and coercive measures. In contrast, the owner of the individual change is the teacher who acts locally and internally. This model includes small-scale changes that may remain inside the walls of the classroom

but may also have an impact beyond that. The third type of change, ecological, contains elements from both and is therefore referred to as a systemic 'mix'.

Generally speaking, innovation means something new which aims to be an improvement on what already exists. Markee (1993, p. 231) defines innovation in education as a 'qualitative change in pedagogical materials, approaches, and values that are perceived as new by individuals who comprise a formal (language) education system'. According to Rogers, innovation is 'an idea, practice or object perceived as new" (2003, p. 21.) meaning that those implementing the change should regard it as a novelty. Waters (2009) emphasizes that innovation includes the intention to cause a change that is beneficial, as there is some sort of dissatisfaction with the existing situation. Hyland and Wong (2013) refer to the process of innovation as something "which implies some deliberations and consciousness" (p. 2).

Education is a field which has always been in constant change. Knowledge is not static, consequently, the operation of the system facilitating the acquisition of knowledge cannot be static either. New ideas emerge, new challenges appear all the time and education, as a system, must accommodate these changes. The process of accommodation may take the form of an innovation: the introduction of a new system of assessment for example. Whether such an innovation produces a change, is another issue. The process of innovation is embedded in social and cultural contexts situated in time and space (Kennedy, 2013). The context is always different since schools are different, each having slightly distinct traditions and teachers are also different: they possess different levels of motivation, professional experiences, beliefs, etc. Murray (2013) emphasizes that innovation depends on the 'characteristics of local context' (p. 188), adding that an innovation is always adapted to and revised by contextual factors. She mentions three local contexts that are relevant in this respect: organizational structure, leadership and people's perception. In the field of language education teachers are key figures; therefore, their perception concerning any change or

innovation is of vital importance. Local situations always vary providing educational change with a 'systemic and holistic nature' where the different parts are 'interdependent and inseparable' (Hyland & Wong, 2013, p. 3).

Stoller (2009) identifies six characteristics that contribute to the success of any innovation. According to her, an innovation should: (1) be compatible with the existing practice (of teachers); (2) neither be too complex nor too simple; (3) be clear enough on what it means; (4) have room for variation in its implementation; (5) not be entirely new; and (6) make the visibility of the organization better. Kelly (1980) also mentions three aspects that can make innovation effective: whether (1) the innovation is feasible; whether (2) it is accepted by the teachers; and whether (3) it is relevant to students' needs.

Freeman (2013) and Fullan (2007) state that change has both objective and subjective meanings. According to Fullan the objective meaning of change refers to the perspective of its originators as made manifest in the form of regulations, documents or teaching materials, whereas the subjective meaning of change is about how those affected by the change interpret and perceive it. He also adds that typically, there are differences between the two interpretations; therefore it is important to reconcile them. Freeman (2013) describes three interrelated organizational concepts through which we can interpret educational change: the locus (the focal area of change), the process (how change develops) and the unit (what is changed). Regarding each concept he makes a difference between their objective (manifest) and subjective (latent) elements. In the case of the locus of change the first set of elements 'the manifest frame' (the objective frame) describes the behaviour of teachers and students. This is something that can be observed. The frame containing the subjective elements, the 'latent frame', refers to the thinking of those involved. He argues that 'changes in behaviour must also entail changes in thinking' (p. 126) and we need to examine change from this perspective, too. In a similar vein, regarding the process of change, the objective elements

refer to implementing the new practice while the subjective elements are about the professional learning or development of teachers. Finally, with respect to the unit of change the objective frame is about the observable actions and interactions, about what teachers and students actually do in the classroom. The subjective frame, on the other hand, describes how the 'participants take on new roles and become different people in the context of classroom' (p. 129).

These ideas take us back to Kennedy's model of individual change (2013), which is related to the classroom with teachers and students as agents. Innovation, taking place in this context, is therefore strongly related to the behaviour of the participants, including their attitudes and beliefs. Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) has been adapted to apply to education and ELT. This model explains that there are three sets of interacting beliefs that contribute to the appearance of our intentions and actions. Beliefs about the outcomes, about what others' think and about our expertise and resources. The first set of beliefs shape our attitudes towards the behaviour, the second produce our subjective norms (positive or negative), while the third is about whether we think we have the expertise to carry out the actions in question and if there are any external barriers or resources. Our intentions, based on these three sets of beliefs, will then form our behaviour, the outcome of which we evaluate and feed back into the model. This model calls our attention to the complexity of the factors underlying any change and/or innovation. Besides what we, personally, think about the outcome of the change, the model also takes into consideration the opinion of others, including our colleagues, students, parents, etc. and the external factors such as obligatory examinations or available resources. On the basis of this model it is possible to explain, for example, why some teachers act against their professional beliefs (e.g., their preferred way of teaching is not appreciated by the students and or parents).

A change was called for in the field of language teaching in Hungary at the beginning of the third millennium. In 2005, a new school leaving language exam was introduced into public education with the explicit aim of shifting the teaching practice of language teachers towards a more communicative method (Einhorn, 2009, 2015; Horváth and Lukács, 2005). On the basis of the works of Markee (1993), Rogers (2003), Waters (2009) and Hyland and Wong (2013) this step may be regarded as innovation, because it was a qualitative change, it was perceived as new, it originated in the dissatisfaction with the existing situation and it was intended to cause (a beneficial) change.

My dissertation intends to identify those factors, both contextual and individual, that shape the appearance of washback (the results of this innovation) and explore the interaction between them. The questionnaire survey sent to over 1000 schools in Hungary makes it possible to reveal the perceptions of teachers and students according to their backgrounds (types of school, age, gender, experiences, etc.). The interviews I conducted with teachers and students shed lights on how the stakeholders themselves experienced these changes. Freeman's framework (2013) is especially suitable to arrange the information I gathered regarding the appearance of washback in the Hungarian language classroom, especially as mixed methods are applied in the research. The questionnaires (those of teachers' and students') are designed in a way that they are able to display both the manifest and the latent frames. The manifest frame contains their (self-reported) behaviour with respect to implementing the new practice required from them (observable actions) but, at the same time, also provide information on the latent frame, what they think, in what ways they develop and how different they become as a result. The statistical analysis of the questionnaire makes it possible to reveal the relationship/interaction between the two frames. Furthermore, the qualitative research tools (interviews) applied have the potential to provide us with an emic perspective.

Our investigation focuses on a complex phenomenon, washback and tries to expose how the various factors (tests, exams, teachers, students, innovations and contexts) influencing classroom practice interact with one another. To find answers to these questions, we need to treat language teaching as a complex dynamic system so we can study its various parts and processes as well as the interactions existing between within a single framework. On the basis of the above discussion we assume that the theory of complex/dynamic systems and the various models of innovation and change have the potential to be used as a theoretical framework to understand how the actual classroom practice of language teachers is affected by, among others, language exams.

Chapter 2 Washback and impact: a theoretical background

2.1.   Models and theories describing the process of washback

Thinking about washback goes back to the early 1990s when Alderson and Wall's (1993) seminal paper *"Does washback exist"* was published where the authors critically examined the concept. They suggested fifteen feasible hypotheses that would either verify or refute the existence of washback. Their intention was to prepare the field for empirical research. The hypotheses they posited suggested that besides the test itself there might be other factors – e.g. the attitude of teachers, the methods they use, the resources available, etc. – that affect how washback operates.

1)   A test will influence teaching

2)   A test will influence learning

3)   A test will influence what teachers teach

4)   A test will influence how teachers teach

5)   A test will influence what learners learn

6)   A test will influence how learners learn

7)   A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching

8)   A test will influence the rate and sequence of learning

9)   A test will influence the degree and depth of teaching

10)   A test will influence the degree and depth of learning

11)   A test will influence attitudes to content, method, etc. of teaching/learning

12)   Tests that have important consequences will have washback

13)   Tests that do not have important consequences will have no washback

14)   Tests will have washback on all learners and teachers

15)   Tests will have washback effects for some teachers and some learners, but not

for others.

(pp. 120-121)

Elaborating on these hypotheses Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) added that washback depends on how important the test is, how different it is from current practice, what teachers and textbook writers consider the appropriate method for test preparation and how much teachers and textbook writer are willing and able to innovate (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996, p. 296).

It was Hughes (1993) who came up with the first basic model of washback showing the fundamental mechanism of how washback works. He differentiated between washback on three constituents: *participants*, *processes* and *products* (Table 2). Detailing his model, Hughes explained that tests might first shape the perceptions of the participants which influence what they do and their subsequent activities affect the learning outcomes.

Table 2

The Trichotomy Backwash Model of Hughes (1993)

(a)   *Participants:* students, classroom teachers, administrators, materials developers and publishers, whose perceptions and attitudes toward their work may be affected by a test,
(b)   *Processes:* any actions taken by the participants which may contribute to the process of learning,
(c)   *Products:* what is learned (facts, skills, etc.) and the quality of the learning.

Combining the works of Alderson and Wall (1993) and Hughes (1994) Bailey (1996) developed a new model of washback (Figure 1) where she further specified the participants

and the products including the researchers and their results. The model intends to reveal how the various factors relate to one another, e.g., the results of research studies may affect materials, which then influence the teaching and learning activities. Bailey also made a distinction between two washback effects: *washback to the learner* and *washback to the programme*. The first is the result of giving test-derived information to the learners. It is about the effects of testing on different aspects of students' learning. In the second case the test results supply information to all the other participants in the education system. It concerns different aspects of teaching and involves various stake-holders (e.g., administrators, course designers, teachers, textbook writers) who are all affected by the test, which in turn has an effect on the books, courses and programmes students use. She also categorized five of Alderson and Wall's hypotheses (2, 5, 6, 8 and 10) as *"washback to the learners"* and six of them (1, 3, 4, 7, 9 and 11) as *"washback to the programme"*.
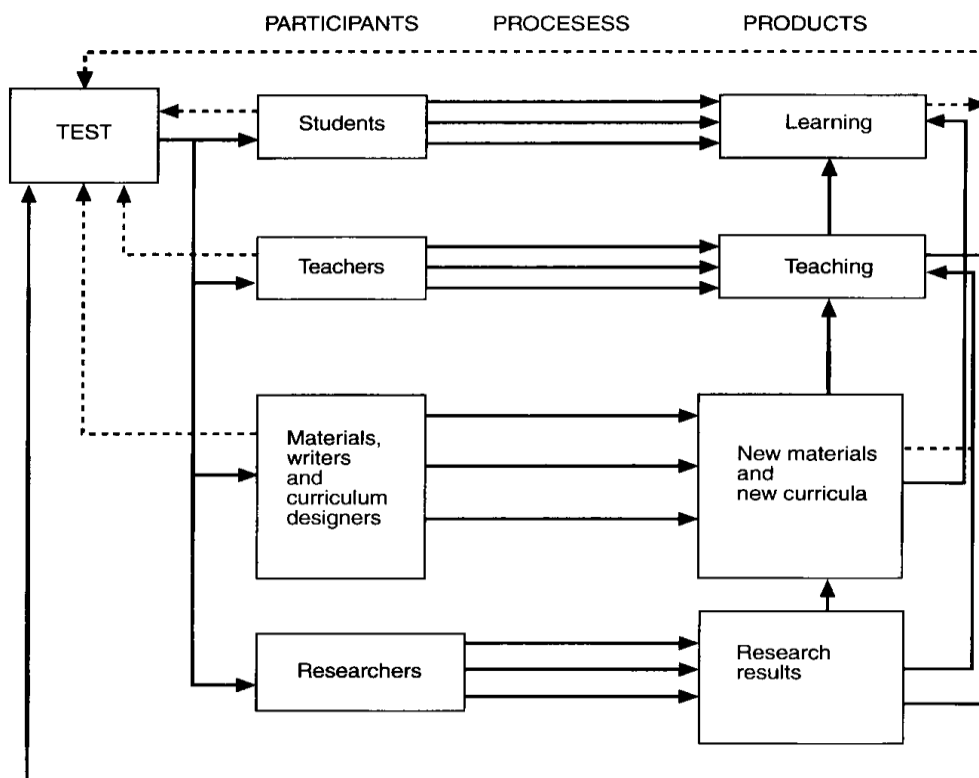
Figure 1. Bailey's basic model of washback (Bailey, 1996, p. 264)

Though this model is more detailed, it also has its deficiencies. Bailey did not specify the processes the participants might be engaged in, as was pointed out by Tsagari (2007, p. 12) and their interaction with the products (Wall, 2005). Saif (1999, 2006) also criticized the model for disregarding the needs and objectives in test development.

Saif (1999) extended these models to include the needs and objectives of test development into the process of washback. This model (Figure 2) illustrates that the needs of the stakeholders should be paid attention to and shows how the use of a test influences the activities of those participating in the teaching-learning process (choice of textbooks, teaching methods, learning strategies, etc.). It also draws our attention to the fact that test developers should also consider the background knowledge and motivation of students.
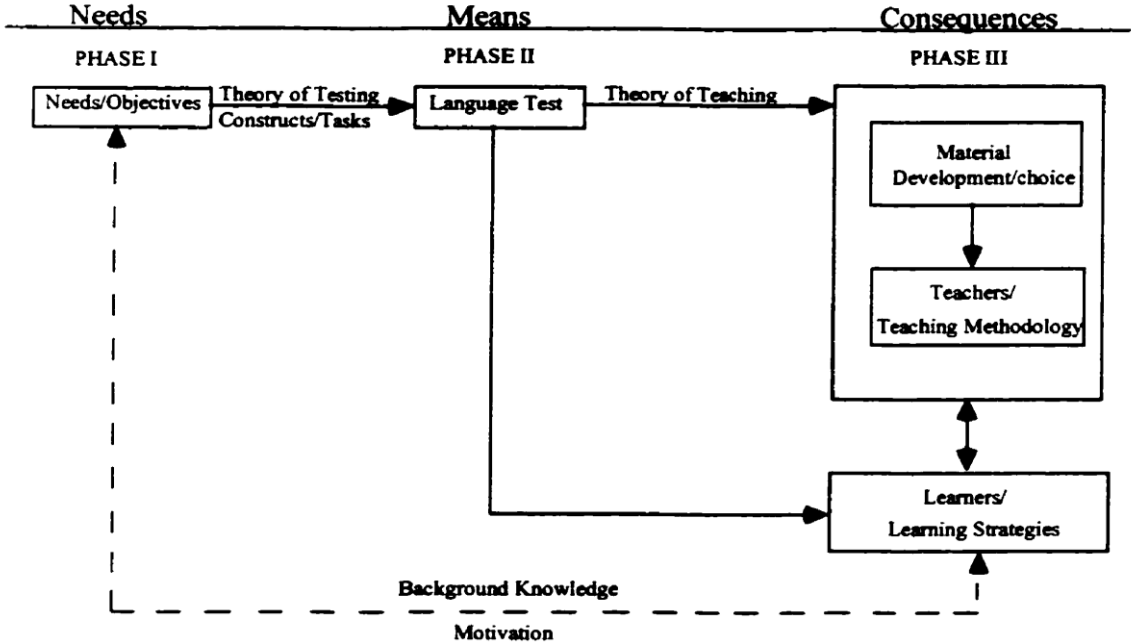
Figure 2. The conceptual model of washback (Saif, 1999, p. 69)

On the basis of this model we can talk about positive washback if the way learners prepare for the exam or the test corresponds to the way they will use the language in a real situation. Whereas, if the construct of the test or exam is not in harmony with the teaching-

learning process, teachers will teach to the test, concentrating only on the task types and strategies necessary to pass the test (Prodromu, 1995). The reason for this is that in a context where exams have high priority, language teachers tend to focus on practicing test tasks and on teaching test taking strategies to their students (Krumm, 2006 cited in Vígh, 2007, p.147; Prodromu, 1995). Saif's model makes us wonder whether those tests have positive washback that are developed on the basis of real needs in line with communicative language teaching. Correspondingly, the question arises whether the application of communicative tests produce a shift towards more communicative teaching in the Hungarian context.

Burrows (2004) interpreted the process of washback using three models: the traditional stimulus-response model, the "black box" model from the 1990s and the curriculum innovation model that she proposed (Figures 3 A, B, and C). The traditional model, which predates Alderson and Wall's (1993) famous paper, suggests that the introduction of a new test or exam necessarily leads to a washback effect which can be either positive or negative. The effect depends primarily on the qualities of the test and not on the teachers. Criticising this model, Alderson and Wall (1993) and Messick (1996) proposed that the positive or negative washback is independent from the quality of the test because its direction is determined by the beliefs, attitudes and knowledge individual teachers have with regards to the test. Burrows therefore suggests that teachers and their beliefs, attitudes and knowledge play a mediating role between the test and the results achieved by students. This means that the washback effect of a test is a complex process which is difficult to explore because of the individual response patterns of teachers.

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┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                                          │
│  New test  ──────────────────▶  Teachers  ──────────────▶  Simple response │
│                                                                          │
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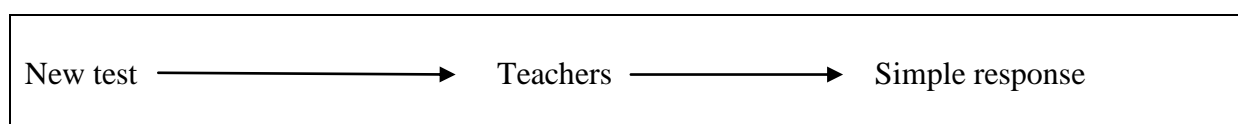
Figure 3a. Traditional stimulus-response model

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┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                      Beliefs, assumptions, knowledge                     │
│                                   │                                      │
│                                   ▼                                      │
│  New test  ──────────────────▶  Teachers  ──────────────▶  Individual responses │
│                                                                          │
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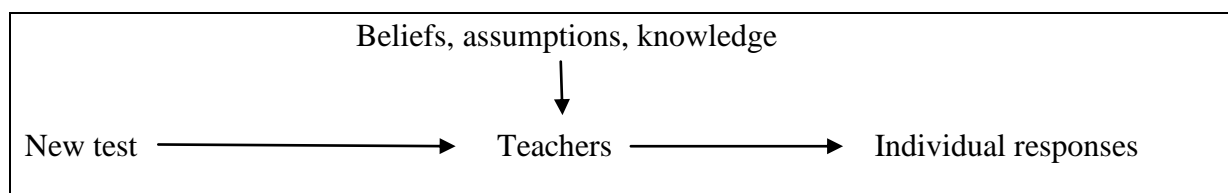
Figure 3b. The "black box" model

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┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                      Beliefs, assumptions, knowledge                     │
│                                   │                                      │
│                                   ▼                                      │
│  New test  ──────────────────▶  Teachers  ──────────────▶  Model of responses │
│                                                                          │
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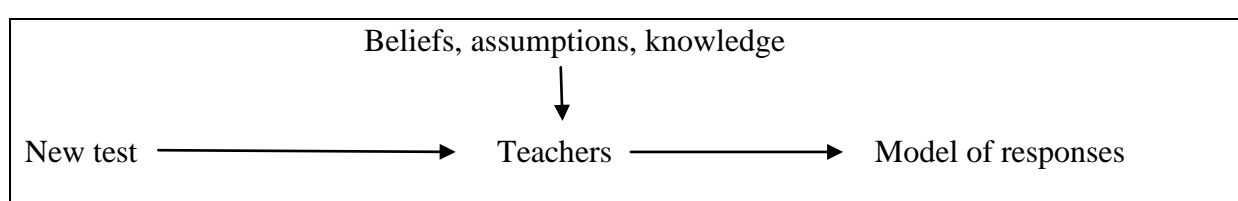
Figure 3C. Burrows' innovation model (2004, p. 126)

Research revealed that the thinking and practice of teachers are determined by the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge they develop as a result of their former personal and professional experiences (Alderson & Wall, 1993). The innovation model of Burrows (2004) is based on Markee's work (1993) which describes how change may be initiated in an educational system. The model identifies the following factors: who (participants) adopts (process) what (innovation), where (context), when (time), why (reason) and how (various ways of innovation). Consequently, Burrows suggests that washback is a form of educational change.

Another conceptual model, which takes into account the complex interaction among stakeholders, test stakes, washback variability, intensity, direction and test construct is Green's model of washback (2007). Referring to the works of Hughes (1993), Brown (2000), Davies (1985) and Smith (1991), Green points out (Figure 4 below) that stakeholders' awareness and acceptance of the test demands and the resources available to meet the demands may all affect the appearance of washback.
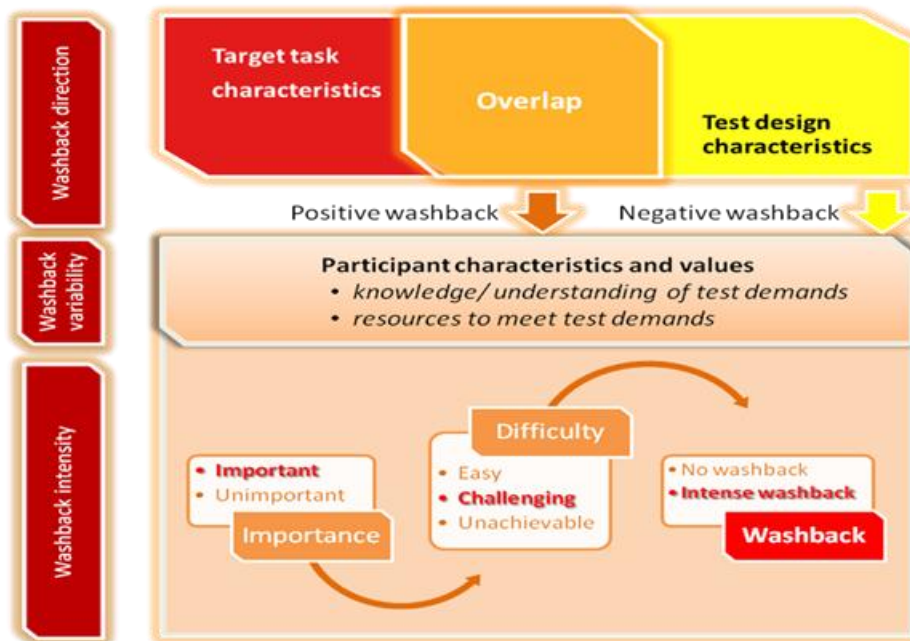
Figure 4. Green's (2007, p. 24) model of washback

As a result of her empirical study, Tsagari (2009) suggested a new model (Figure 5 below) to describe the complexity of washback. Her model illustrates washback as a mechanism whose components (test-developers and exams, course books and their writers, teachers, students and parents, the school's atmosphere and its environment) are in constant interaction with one another. Compared with the previous models she emphasizes two factors: the effect of the preparation materials and that of the local environment.
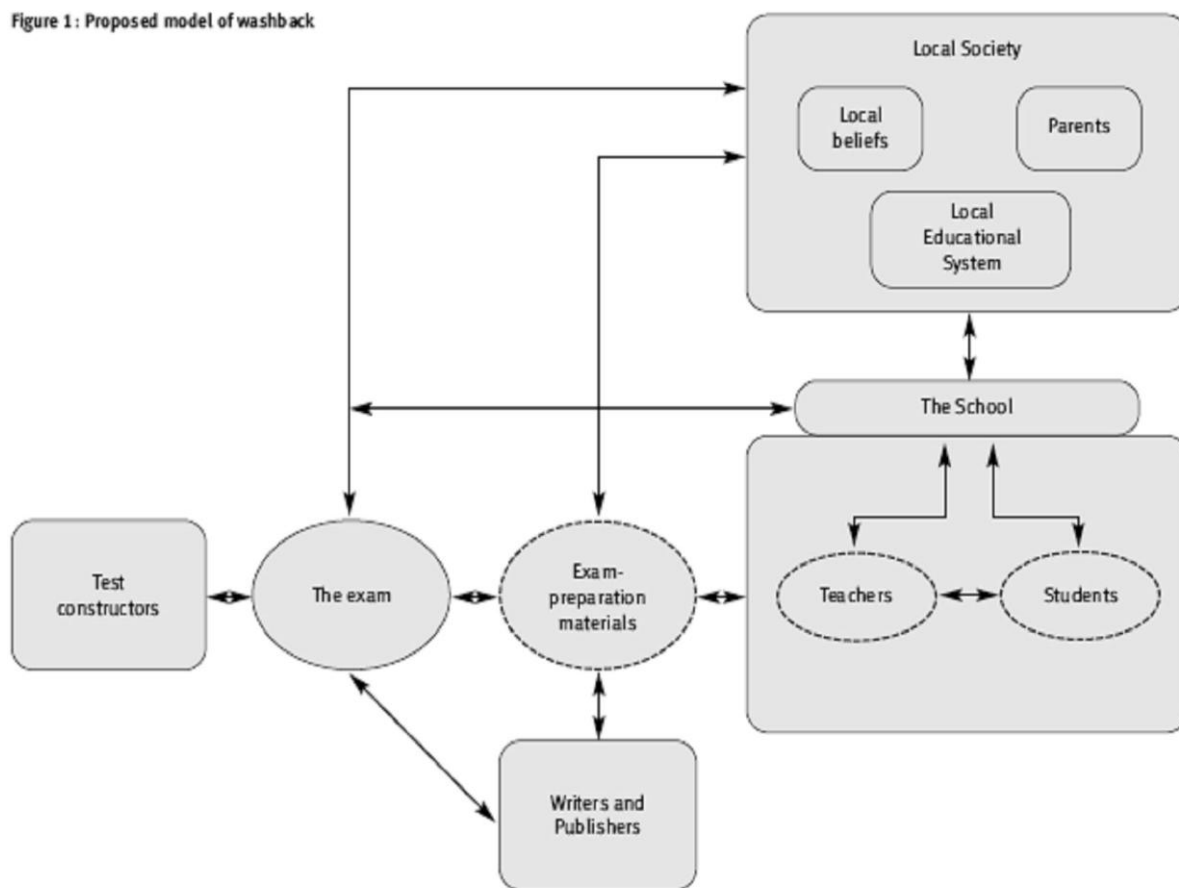
Figure 5. Model of washback proposed by Tsagari (2009)

Drawing on the previous theoretical models and the various factors describing the features of washback Vígh (2007) developed a synthesizing model (Figure 6). This synthesizing model integrates the essence of the previous models: the most important conditions such as high prestige and usefulness (Gates, 1995; Watanabe, 2004); the needs and objectives (Saif, 1999, 2006); the direct effects of the test on the participants and its indirect effect on the processes (Bailey, 1996; Hughes, 1993) the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge of teachers that shape the appearance of washback (Burrows, 2004). This model also illustrates how teachers and learners, test results and the existing curriculum may have an influence on test development. The greatness of this model lies in describing washback as a complex system where the various elements are in constant interaction with one another. The

deficiency of this model lies in not talking about the existence of beliefs, assumption and knowledge in the case of the learners, and not mentioning the role of the contextual factors.
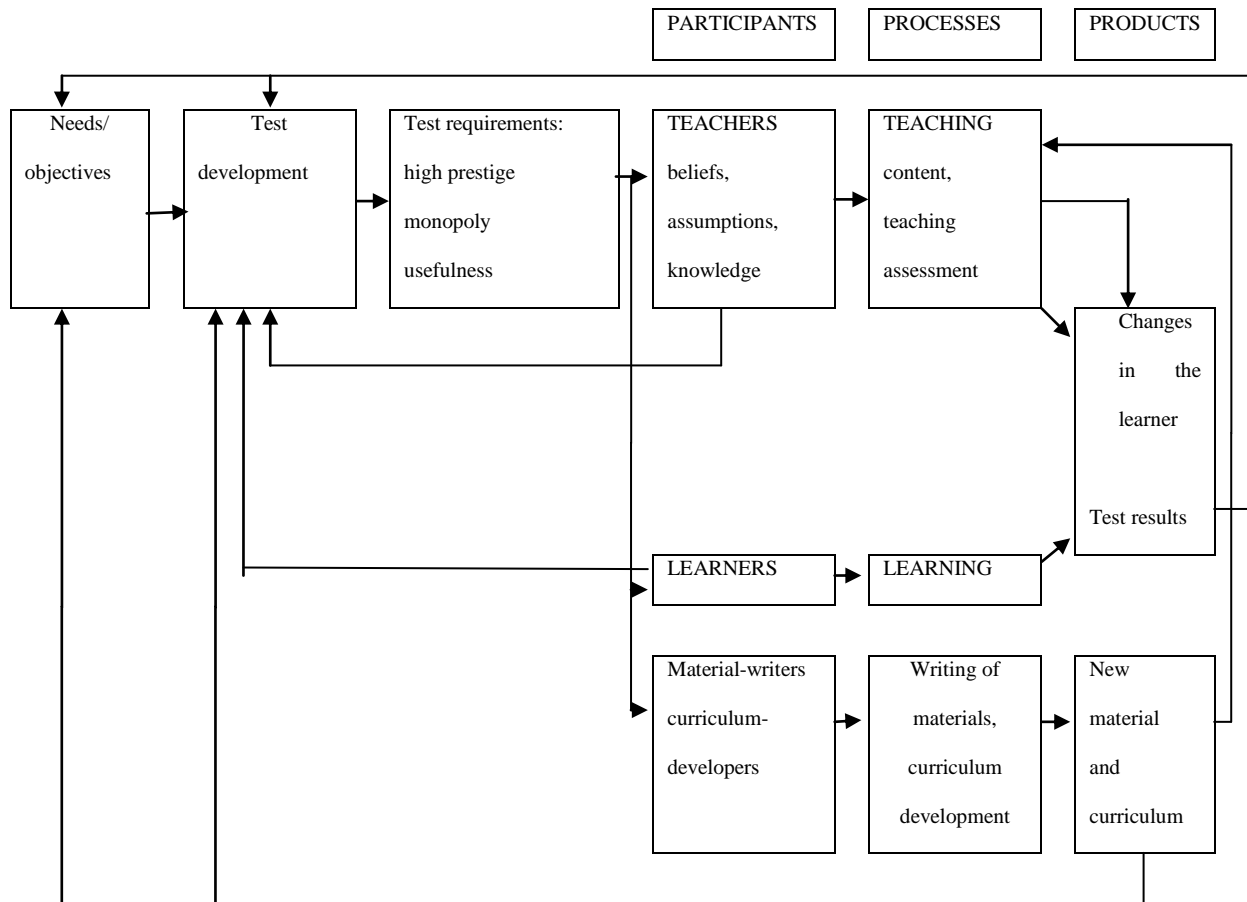
Figure 6. Vígh's synthesizing model of washback (2007, p. 151)

The theoretical models described above explain and interpret how washback works. They all illustrate washback as a change in the teaching-learning process and the education system (Cheng, 1998, 2005). In summary the following can be stated:

- exams/test exert an influence on the stakeholders (teachers, learners, parents), on the teaching-learning process (teaching methods, assessment culture) and its products (results of learning);

- it is the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge of the participants (teachers, learners, and material writers) that are influenced by exams/tests;

- the existing beliefs, assumptions and knowledge of the participants determine the teaching and learning process, its content and quality;

- the content/quality of teaching/learning produce changes in the learners and account for the test results;

- the results achieved at the test/exam, and the changes evolved in learners (in their attitudes, assumptions and knowledge) provide feedback on the basis of which the needs and objectives of test development might change;

- tests/exams have a pivotal role in determining the activities taking place in the classroom;

- there is a highly complex relationship existing among the various factors appearing in the models.

To describe the interactions between the various components we suggest the following model (Figure 7) aimed at revealing how washback works within the complex, dynamic system of teaching and learning.

WASHBACK
FACTORS:

TEACHER ID VARIABLES:
- early experience
- teacher education
- context
- further training
  courses
- teaching experience
- resources/materials
- motivation

TEACHERS'

beliefs/attitudes
anxiety
knowledge (of the test)
ways of teaching (autonomy)
ways of assessment

*self-reported
classroom
practice*
TEACHER   **TEACHING**
- traditional
- communicative
- exam-focused

(*school
leaving*)
EXAMS
(*accredited
exams)*

- students' expectations
- parents' expectations
- school's expectations

STUDENTS'
- what they think about the
  test
- what they know about the
  test
- expectation of assessment
- student related expectations
- anxiety
- attitude towards learning

STUDENT

*experienced
classroom teaching*
LEARNING
- traditional
- communicative
- exam-focused

STUDENT ID VARIABLES

Figure 7. A model of how test washback influences classroom practice

2.2. A critical overview of empirical studies on impact

2.2.1 Historical background

Tests and exams have long been used to exert an influence and initiate change. As early as in

Imperial China, (civil servant) examinations were used to select the highest officials of the

court (Hu, 1984). The primary aim of such exams was to select the most appropriate people

but, we have every reason to assume that its washback effect was to constitute and control the

education programme for the mandarins, ensuring they learn what the emperor required them

to study (Spolsky,1995). In each occasion, the washback effect of the exam was of great

importance. Linn (2000) summarizes what role tests and assessments played in the second

half of the 20th century such as tracking and selecting, accounting for programmes and schools or testing competency. Tests still play a crucial role in educational policies and practices.

Three major purposes for assessment are suggested by researchers: (1) to improve teaching and learning; (2) to make schools and teachers accountable; and (3) to make students accountable for learning by giving them grades and certificates (Heaton, 1975; Torrance & Pryor, 1998; Warren & Nisbet, 1999). The aim of the first type of assessment, also known as formative assessment or assessment for learning, is to improve students' own learning and the quality of teaching (Black & William, 1998; Crooks, 1988). In the framework of the second form of assessment, accountability, assessment results are applied to demonstrate that schools are doing the job they are supposed to be doing, as expected and financed by the society (Smith, Heinecke and Noble, 1999). The third type of assessment refers to the fact that students should be held accountable for their learning. This type of assessment is done in the form of giving students grades, comparing their performance against a set of criteria and placing them into groups on the basis of their performance. Tests may be regarded as practical tools with the help of which the various forms of assessment may be carried out. Regarding the tests used in language assessment, four distinct types needs to be mentioned: (1) placement test, where the aim is to help sort students into teaching groups of approximately the same level; (2) diagnostic test, which provides information on how well students have learnt specific course element; (3) achievement test, which aims to measure what has been learnt over a longer period of time; and (4) proficiency test, where the purpose is to provide a picture of the candidate's ability to apply what he knows. (Alderson, Clapham & Wall, 1995; Davies, Brown, Elder, Hill, Lumley & McNamara, 1999). This dissertation focuses on the washback effect of the last types of tests, proficiency tests.

As tests have proved to be powerful tools, policymakers use them to shape their educational systems (to control curricula, to introduce new textbooks, to promote new teaching methods). Madaus (1985) calls testing "the darling of the policy-makers", because they think that through tests they can introduce and induce changes in the educational system without altering other elements in the system such as teacher education. Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman (1996) state that tests can provide policy-makers with an effective tool to control educational systems and influence the behaviour of those affected by their results. As early as 1987 Petrie (1987) already considered testing and assessment as the engine for implementing educational policy.

2.2.2. The concept of washback

Educators consider it natural in their everyday teaching practice that a quiz or a test does have an influence on students and possibly on the teaching process. "...what is assessed becomes what is valued, which becomes what is taught" (McEwen, 1995, p. 42). This topic has a considerable amount of literature in the field of educational assessment. The phenomenon in question is known by different terms including *"measurement-driven instruction"* (Popham, 1987), *"curricular alignment"* (Madaus, 1988; Smith, 1991), *"systemic validity"* (Frederiksen & Collins, 1989), *"backwash"* (Hughes, 1989), *"consequential validity"* (Messick, 1989, 1996), *"test impact"* (Baker, 1991), *"washback"* (Alderson & Wall, 1993) and *"impact"* (Wall, 1997). In her summary, Bailey (1999) concludes that there are no uniform definitions as different researchers interpret the same concept in various ways. The terms *backwash* and *washback* frequently appear as synonyms and refer to the influence of testing on: (1) teaching and learning (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Hughes, 1989); (2) participants (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Messick, 1996); (3) curriculum and teaching materials (Cheng, 2005); (4) attitude of students towards learning (Cheng 2005). Hamp-Lyons

(1997) and Wall (1997) introduce a new term, impact, which, according to them, describe the effect an exam might have on the education system and the society as a whole. Bachamn and Palmer (1996), Hamp-Lyons (2000), McNamara (1996, 2000) and Shohamy (2001) all believe that the phenomenon in question has two distinct aspects: exams and their results affect their micro environment (the teaching-learning process and those participating in it), and the macro environment (the society and the educational system). Shohamy (1999) also talks about two aspects: education impact and social impact. If we compare the two terms, impact and washback we can find that *washback* is frequently considered as a dimension of *impact* (Wall, 1997). In conclusion when we talk about *washback,* what we have in mind is the influence of the introduction of a new or existing exam on teaching and learning while *impact* is about exploring the comprehensive influence of assessment that goes beyond the actual practice of teaching and learning. There is, however a third term, *consequences,* used in the field of educational assessment, which refers to the way the results of the test are (mis)used (Cheng, Sun, & Ma, 2015).
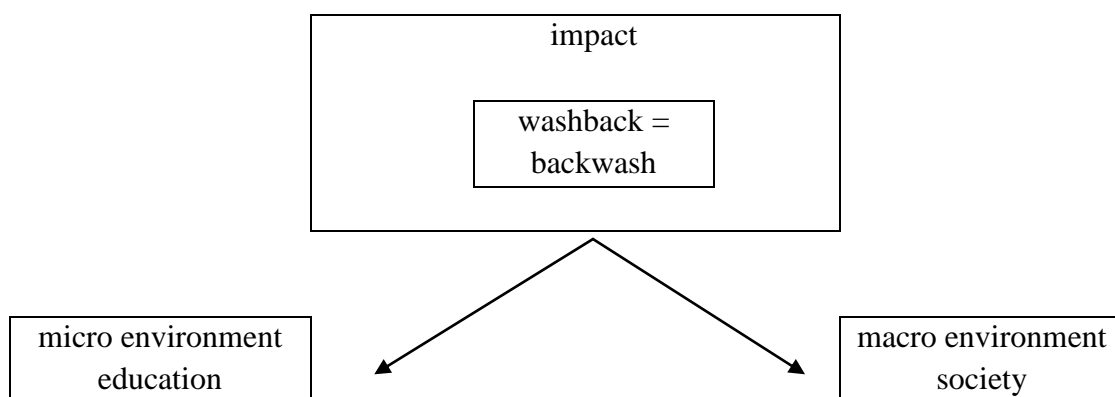
Figure 8. Interpretation of the concept of washback

2.2.3. The development of washback as a distinct field of language testing

Focus on and awareness of the significance of testing consequences has existed for a long time; however, it has received greater attention in the past few decades. Alderson (1986) recognizes washback as a distinct and emerging field of language testing. Pearson (1988) believes that tests and exams affect the attitudes, behaviours and motivation of teachers, learners and parents. Since exams are usually held at the end of a given course this influence works backward. In his study Buck (1988) finds that teachers and students tend to adjust their activities to the demands of the test and that "this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful" (p. 17). Among the four key definitions of her study Shohamy (1993) states that washback effect is the impact of tests on teaching and learning (p. 4). Washback can affect various things such as teaching and learning (e.g. Buck, 1988, Alderson & Wall, 1993) as well as teachers and learners (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Biggs (1995) spoke about *backwash* meaning that testing does not only influence the curriculum but also the teaching methods and the way students approach learning. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), the concept of *impact* refers to the way the application of the test and the interpretation of its results influence both the micro level (teaching and learning) and the macro level (society, education system). Messick (1996), using the words of Alderson and Wall (1993), defined washback as the "extent to which a test influences language teachers and learners to do things they would not necessarily otherwise do" that promote or inhibit language learning (p.4). He also noted that such consequences could be the function of factors related to the test and also to the context where the test is administered. *Washback* is regarded as a consequence of high-stakes exams (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1997; Hamp-Lyons, 1997). There is a concrete relationship between the stake of a test and the strength of its washback: the higher the stake the stronger the washback is (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman, 1996). Washback is also regarded as a link between testing, teaching and learning (e.g. Hamp-Lyons,

1997). Its direction can be positive, negative or neutral (e.g. Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Buck, 1988; Shohamy et al., 1996), and it can be intended and unintended (e.g. Andrews, 2004). Messick (1996) claims that in order to achieve positive washback the activities involved in learning should not differ too much from the activities applied when preparing for the test. According to Bailey (1996), a test can have a positive washback, if it helps teachers/learners achieve their educational goals, and negative if it impedes the achievement of those. Studies that explored assessment reforms in the field of language teaching found that such (centrally administered) reforms may cause changes in some areas leaving other areas unaffected (Cheng 1997, 1999, 2002, 2003). In this respect, assessment reforms and the washback effect/impact they have can be interpreted in the framework of innovation and change. According to Cheng, Andrews and Yu (2011) these reforms may affect some learners and not others, while Qi (2007) found that they may also produce a number of unintended consequences, such as narrowing the focus of language teaching to test preparation.

In summary, the following may be stated regarding the washback effect of tests and exams: it has become a distinct field of language testing; it is mainly related to high-stakes exams; it can be positive, negative or neutral; it can be interpreted as a link between testing, teaching and learning; tests have an influence on the attitude, behaviour and the activities of teachers and students; tests affect the content of teaching, the way teachers teach and the approach students use for learning; tests exert an influence on micro and macro levels; the influence of tests is shaped by contextual factors.

2.2.4. Washback and validity

According to Messick (1989, 1996), washback has a special relation to test validity. In his article (1996) he interpreted washback in the wider context of construct validity and considered washback an aspect of evidence that contributes to valid test interpretation.

Messick considers the social consequences of testing as part of a broader concept of test validity, as the consequential aspect of validity "...includes evidence and rationale for evaluating the intended and unintended consequences of score interpretation and use" (1996. p. 251).

Others, including Ferman (2004) and Alderson and Wall (1993) doubt the existence of such a direct connection between validity and washback. They think that besides the test itself the washback effect of a certain test may depend on various other factors including the foreign language proficiency, the qualification and the motivation of the teacher, the length of the course, the number of participants in a group, etc. Regarding this argument, Messick (1996) also believes that we should differentiate between washback effects and other effects. Recognising that teaching is a complex activity, influenced by various factors, Messick insists that washback may be regarded as part of test validity if the evidence of washback can be linked directly to the test.

The most recent evolution in validation theory was articulated by Kane (2013). His framework establishes a network of inferences and assumptions connecting test performance, score interpretations and decisions made on the basis of these interpretations. Kane differentiates between four inferences: scoring, that is translating observation into scores; generalisation, that is using scores as a reflection of test performance; extrapolation, using scores as a reflection of real-world performance; and implications, using scores to make decisions. He argues that it is the final phase implications, which is concerned with the consequences or impact of the assessment on the learner, other stakeholders and society at large.

2.2.5. Fields and dimensions of washback

Research has found that both concepts, impact and washback, relate to the influence of tests regarding the following fields: teaching materials, curriculum and teaching methods (Cheng, 1997; 1999), the attitude of students towards learning (Biggs, 1995); the teaching and learning process (Hughes, 1989); and the participants in the teaching-learning process (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Messick, 1996). Summarizing the various concepts, Vígh (2007) states that washback is a complex process which has two main types: in a restricted sense it refers to the test's influence on the so-called micro environment (Bachman & Palmer, 1996. p. 30.) including particularly the teachers and students (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Messick, 1996), whereas in a wider sense it means the test's effects on its macro environment (Bachman & Palmer, 1996. p. 31.) including the society as a whole and the education system operated by the state (Shohamy, 1999; Wall, 1997).

Having identified the three fields where washback is effective: participants, processes and products, Hughes (1993) insists that five conditions are necessary to achieve washback: (1) teachers should want students to succeed, (2) students must consider the results of the test important, (3) teachers and students should know the test well, (3) there are available resources to prepare for the test, and (5) participants should have the competence demanded by the test.

DIMENSIONS	EXAM/TEST	CONDITIONS
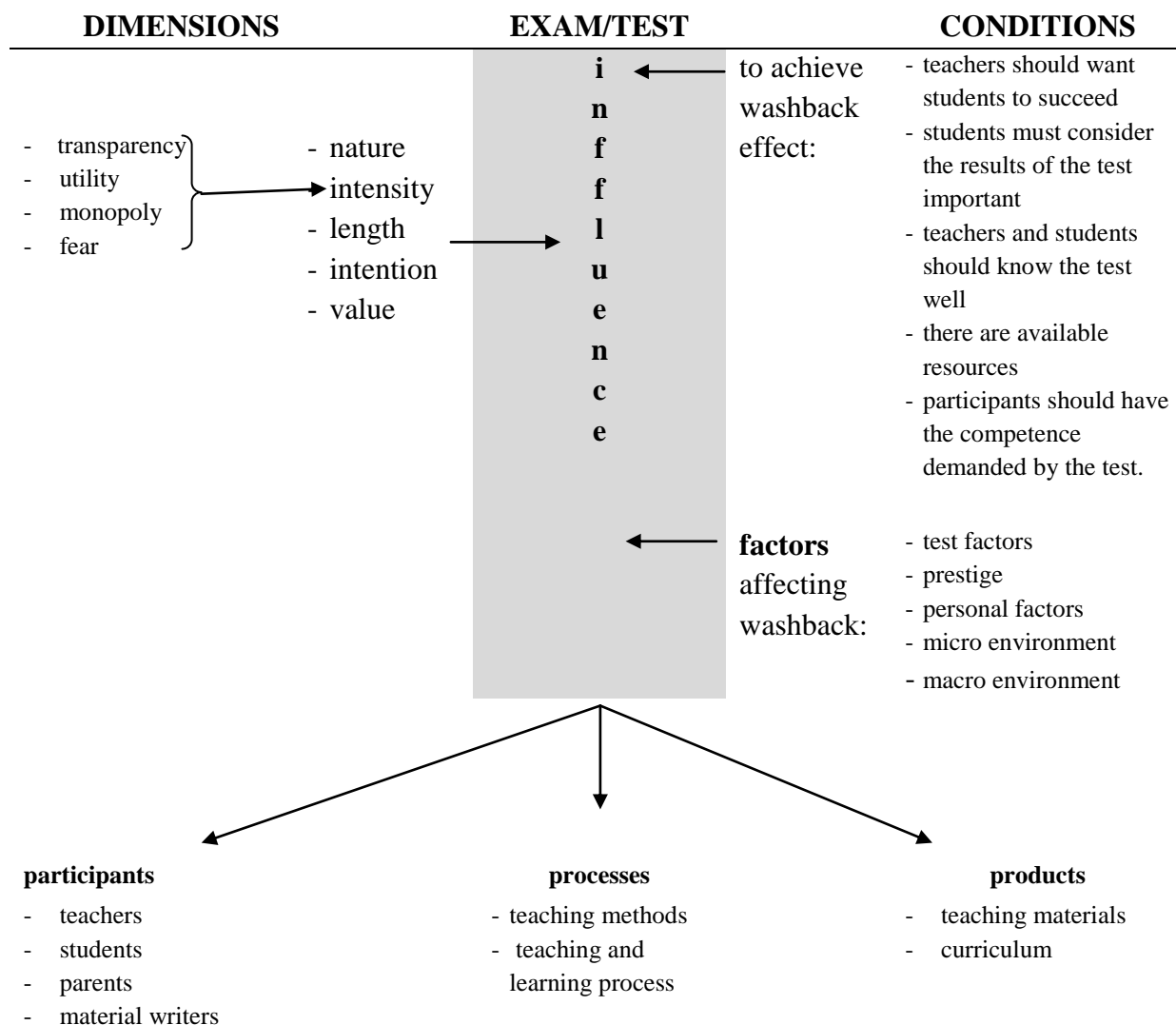
Figure 9. The interconnectedness of the fields and dimensions of washback

Watanabe (2004a; 2004b) identifies five dimensions of washback: nature (general or specific), intensity (strong or weak), length (long or short), intention (intended or unintended) and value (positive or negative). He also mentions that five groups of factors affect washback: (1) test factors (e.g. the method of assessment, skills assessed); (2) prestige; (3) personal factors (e.g. teacher's attitude); (4) factors of the micro environment (e.g. quality of school); (5) and factors of the macro environment (social context). Gates (1995) found that the intensity of washback effect is influenced by the following factors: transparency (the relation between construct and real needs), utility (chances are increased), monopoly (the number of competitors) and fear (how important it is for the test taker).

Summarizing the connections and overlaps between the various fields and dimensions, students and teachers appear to have a central place in the emergence of washback. First of all, to achieve washback effect an exam should have high prestige and great importance, attributes that may originate from the social context, e.g., the intention of the educational authority to change existing practices. Both teachers and students should accept the importance and usefulness of these exams, which may happen if they realize that there is a relationship between the construct of the exam and real needs. In the framework of communicative language teaching and testing it means that if an exam is built upon the principles of communicative language testing teachers and students assume that it is able to provide them with a valid feedback on how they can use the language in real life. Teachers and students should also be aware of the content of the exam, what methods of assessment are applied and what skills are tested. Teachers may decide to arrange their teaching around the development of the skills to be tested and use the assessment criteria applied by the exam, so that their students get a deeper insight into and knowledge about the content of the exam. Possessing this knowledge may shape students' attitude towards learning and teachers' attitude towards teaching. However, the choices teachers make (every day) regarding teaching methods are also determined by their personal beliefs and attitudes towards teaching, by the expectations of students, by the curriculum, by parents and school as well as by the resources available. These then have the potential to initiate changes in the ways teachers teach and students learn. To sum up, we can find several points where the various elements in this system are connected to and shaped by one another making it a complex dynamic system.

2.2.6. Empirical studies exploring washback

Direction, intention and extent.

The direction of washback can be positive, negative or neutral (e.g. Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Bailey, 1996; Buck, 1988; Davies et al., 1999; Messick, 1996; Shohamy et al., 1996). It is reasonable to assume that those who wish to use a test to initiate a change want to see mainly positive developments. Davies (1985) claims that good tests have the potential to change the syllabus. This thinking is related to the concept of "measurement-driven instruction" in general education (Popham, 1987) meaning that a situation is created where teachers and students develop a positive attitude towards the examination and are willing to work towards its objectives. However, to what degree this can be achieved remains a debated issue. Studies carried out in the United States and Canada demonstrate that testing programmes may have a negative effect, as they narrow the modes of instruction and limit teachers' freedom to teach content (Smith, 1991; Widen, o'Shea & Pye, 1997). Pearson (1998) believes that tests can be used in a beneficial way, saying that good tests can be used as teaching and learning activities.

Washback can be intended and unintended, too (e.g. Andrews, 2004; Qi, 2005). Cheng's empirical study (1997), which she carried out in Hong Kong for example, reveal that unintended and coincidental effects may also occur if a public examination is used as a vehicle to change the curriculum. The stakes of a test is directly related to the strength of washback: higher stakes produce a more notable washback (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Shohamy et al., 1996).

The issue of stakes takes us to discussing the extent of washback, the fields it may affect. First of all, it can be a potential instrument in the hands of those wishing to initiate change in education (e.g. Pearson, 1988; Shohamy, 1992). It can influence teaching and learning as well as teachers and learners. (Buck, 1988; Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1999;

Prodromou, 1995). Consequently, washback appears to be a link connecting exams, teaching and learning (e.g. Hamp-Lyons, 1997; Shohamy et al., 1996).

Washback on teaching and teachers.

A part of the empirical research regarding washback on teaching methods showed that exams do have an effect on how teachers teach. Shohamy (1993) found such effect in the case of high-stakes exam. The studies of Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Watanabe (1996) and Burrows (2004) showed that tests affect teachers in different ways. Read and Hayes (2003), Sturman (2003) and Saif (2006) found evidence of test washback on how teachers teach: using practice tasks in class, explaining test taking strategies, adapting class activities to the content and goals of the test and rehearsing specific item types. Cheng and Curtis (2004) recall that as early as in 1956 Vernon already claimed that teachers tended to ignore subjects and activities that did not relate directly to preparing for exams. A few years later, Davies (1968) added that tests had become instruments in the hands of teachers whose teaching was directed to examination papers and this narrowed the educational experience.

According to the studies of Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Wall (1999) and Wall and Horak (2006), teachers stated that the expectations of students had an impact on the way they chose to teach. Another segment of empirical research, however, including Alderson and Wall (1993), Cheng (1997, 1998), Qi (2004) and Glover (2006) found no washback effect on teaching methods. These studies have also pointed out that the lack of washback may be attributed to other factors including resources, teachers' beliefs and the quality of teacher education, among others. On the basis of empirical evidence, it can be concluded that washback on what teaching methods teachers apply is ambiguous and mixed. In a series of studies Cheng (1998, 1999) explored the way the introduction of a high-stake examination affects teaching and learning. She investigated classroom interactions, the attitude of teachers,

the content of teaching and the perceptions of students. She found that certain aspects of the teaching-learning process (some perceptions and instructional activities) did change as a result of the new examination. However, her studies also showed that there were no significant changes in the way teachers taught. Referring to Alderson and Wall's study (1993), Cheng and Curtis (2004) mention that sometimes teachers and learners teach and learn towards the test even if they do not like or understand its rationale.

The empirical studies of Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) and Watanabe (1996) dealt with washback on teaching and explored the role of teacher factors in washback. Both studies found that teachers are just as much responsible for causing washback as the existence of the test itself. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons concluded that besides the exam itself, the administrators, the material writers and the teachers are all responsible for the emergence of washback. Watanabe considered the individual differences of teachers that have in important role (e.g. educational background, beliefs and attitudes) in this respect.

Wall's empirical study (2005) intended to explore washback within the context of teaching. As a result of her investigation, Wall managed to reveal that both the factors in the test and the features of the context (teachers and learners) had an impact on the intended outcome. The study of Stoneman (2006) looked into the impact of the tests' status on the test preparation behaviour of students. She found that in the context of high-stakes examinations students prefer test-specific coaching activities. She also revealed that the former test-taking and learning experiences have an important effect on what test preparation activities they prefer.

Through classroom observations, Green (2006) intended to find out whether different teaching methods were used in an IELTS preparation class and a general EAP class in academic writing. Similar to the result of Alderson and Hamp-Lyons' (1996) study, he also found that teacher variables may account for practices that cannot be traced back to test

design features. He concluded that several of the differences he observed may be attributed to teacher or institutional variables including teachers' beliefs, levels of professional training rather than to the influence of the test. In China, a new language exam (the National Matriculation English test) was introduced with the deliberate purpose of pushing teaching towards a more communicative form. At the same time, this high-stakes exam is also used for university entry. Exploring the effects of this new exam, Qi (2004, 2005) found that because it had a selective function, teachers and students tended to focus on trying to raise their scores and the methods of teaching did not really change. Qi thought that the reason for this was that the two functions of the test – promoting change and selecting students – contradicted one another. These results confirmed the conclusions of Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman (1996) who stated that washback is strongly connected to context, that is, the stake and use of the test. Cheng's (2002) study pointed out, that due to the lack of professional development opportunities, a test may not have an influence on how teachers teach. This can be achieved through enhanced teacher training. The study of Wang (2011) also revealed that the teaching practice of teachers can only be changed if their knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and thinking are also altered. Turner' study (2006), conducted with secondary school English as a second language (ESL) teachers in Quebec, Canada, investigated how teachers perceive an innovation introduced into the curriculum. She found that teachers reacted to the change according to their own beliefs and professional stance.

Li (1990) investigated the reaction of teachers to the introduction of a new exam and found that the original uncomfortable feelings of teachers towards the test were gradually replaced by feeling of acceptance. The studies of Alderson and Wall (1993), Cheng (1998), Herman and Golan (1993), Johnstone, Guice, Baker, Malone and Michelson (1995), Shohamy (1993), Shohamy et al. (1996) and Smith (1991) all mention that teachers experienced strong feelings (anxiety, pressure, insecurity, guilt, anger, embarrassment, shame) as a result of

testing. The following patterns of behaviour were reported by teachers: feeling of being forced to teach in a certain way; anxiety generated by the pressure they felt to teach everything needed for the exam; shame and embarrassment because the results of the exam are made public. Kiss-Gulyás (2001) explored the feelings of teachers towards the future introduction of the new school leaving exam in Hungary and found that teachers were afraid that fewer students would be able to pass the exam and were worried about the performance of the lower-ability students. Hargreaves (1997) found that teachers used the prospect of future examination to motivate students. They did this more often when they experienced discipline problems.

Washback on curriculum and the content of teaching

Many empirical studies (e.g., Alderson & Wall, 1993, Cheng, 1998) found that exams strongly influenced what language skills teachers focused on when preparing their students for an exam. One of the first seminal empirical studies carried out in the field was that of Wall and Alderson (1993) in Sri Lanka. Using classroom observations, they found that teachers focused on practising the skills (reading and writing) tested in the exam. Using classroom observations Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) also found that TOEFL did have an influence on the content of lessons. After observing 118 lessons Nikolov (1999) found evidence for washback because the most frequent task types used in the lessons were typical language examination techniques used in the school-leaving exams. Tsagari (2007) remarks that research in this field has produced conflicting results: some studies have found washback on the curriculum while others have not or found that this effect varied.

Washback on materials

Research show that exams have a strong effect on the teaching materials teachers use. This phenomenon, also known as "textbook washback" (Lam, 1993), is mostly related to high-stake exams. Having inspected the content of teaching materials used to prepare students for university entrance exams Watanabe (1996) concluded that "washback did exist on materials" (p. 326), because those contained tasks constructed by the teachers on the basis of past exam papers. Investigating materials preparing language learners for the TOEFL, IELTS and CPE exams Hamp-Lyons (1996, 1998), Hawkey (2004) and Wang (1997) all found that the tests had an influence on the content of the preparation textbooks. The research of Andrews (1994), Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Cheng (1997), Shohamy (1993), Read and Hayes (2003) and Wall and Alderson (1993) all indicate that teachers tend to rely on exam textbooks and exam preparation materials. This implies potential problems: if teachers rely on such materials then it is the material writers who exert a strong influence on what teachers actually do or teach; such textbooks may narrow the content of instruction to the field (skills, knowledge) required by the exam; the role of a proficiency test is different from the role of a diagnostic test as the purpose of the latter is skills development, while that of the former is assessing the proficiency level achieved. It was found that testing materials and methods had become a part of "normal" teaching. Writing about washback effect of exams on materials Tsagari (2007) mentions that teachers' reliance on exam materials is thought to be negative as it narrows the focus of teaching and learning. As a result of her investigation in Hungary, Nikolov (1999) found that even locally produced supplementary materials focused on grammar and exam preparation. These studies show that tests impact teaching materials to varying degrees.

Washback on assessment

In their Sri Lankan study Alderson and Wall (1993) noted that that the newly introduced exam affected the way teachers designed their classroom tests. They placed higher emphasis on exam skills (e.g., reading and writing). Perrone (2011) explored washback and assessment in the context of FCE and found that the classroom assessment practices of teachers had a very strong influence on the individual students' learning and processing of the new target language forms. Gosa (2004) states that the exam had a strong effect on students' personal environments adding that students' expectations of assessment was the most important factor shaping their learning.

Washback on learning and learners

Research into washback on learning tends to focus on international exams such as IELTS, TOEIC or FCE. Hawkey's (2006) IELTS context investigation showed how much the expectations of students are able to constrain the activities of teachers. On the basis of her results in another IELTS study conducted in the UK Green (2007) concluded that learning outcomes were more heavily influenced by the individual learners' goals and the way they understood the demands of the test than by the particular course they chose. In her questionnaire study conducted in Hong Kong Cheng (1998) found that the respondents had mixed feelings about the exam, which, on the one hand, motivated them to study more, while, on the other hand, they felt the results did not reflect their knowledge. Investigating the washback effects of the EFL oral test Ferman (2004) found that students with average abilities felt stronger anxiety and the possibility of failure affected them more. In his study carried out in Romania, Gosa (2004) stated that the exam had a stronger effect on students' personal environment than on their school environment. She concluded that the students' expectations, attitudes, beliefs, learning styles and anxiety may all affect the washback of a test. This

finding, again, points to the direction of viewing the operation of washback as a complex, dynamic system where the various components are in constant interaction with one another. In the case of Gosa's study the different student variables (expectations, attitudes, beliefs, learning styles and anxiety) are all likely to interact with one another and also with the test and this is how washback is shaped. On the basis of interviews conducted with university students, Watanabe (2001) deduced that the washback of university exams depended on their importance and level of difficulty. The author pointed out that it is not only the test which causes washback but also its face validity, that is, what students think about the difficulty of the test. The studies of Li (1990) and Read and Hayes (2003) both reveal positive feelings regarding the exam and motivation to study. Shohamy et al. (1996) found that the direction of the feelings towards the exam depended on their stakes. Both teachers and learners displayed negative feelings towards low-stakes and (consequently) not such important tests. Cheng's study (1998) showed that students may have mixed feelings regarding the exam. The students she asked reported that the exam motivated them to work but also believed that it did not adequately reflect their knowledge. The studies of Hahn, Stassen and Deschke (1989), Ferman (2004) and Shohamy (1993) all show that there are individual differences among students in the way they perceive and react to exams. Paris, Lawton, Turner and Roth (1991) found that tests have a different effect on high achievers and low achievers but the members of both group experience anxiety that can be connected to the test.

All in all, we can say that students' individual factors – expectations, goals, motivation, anxiety, attitudes, beliefs, learning styles, what they know and think about the exam, and the stake of the exam - play a role in the appearance and quality of impact. These studies all show that exams and tests have a potentially multi-directional impact and that their possible positive or negative effects depend heavily on contextual factors. This means that if we wish to understand how washback works we need to consider both the educational context

where the test or exam is used and the characteristics of the participants (teachers and students) and how these interact over time. A high stakes exam or test has the potential to influence the behaviour of teachers and learners: they are required to change the way they teach and study. In addition, a test may initiate several other changes whose influence and consequences may be independent from the original intentions of those who introduced the given test or exam owing to the complex relationship of the various factors that function within a particular educational context.

Chapter 3 Teacher cognition and motivation

3.1   Factors affecting the classroom practice of teachers

People understand the world through a highly complex cognitive process. First, we need to perceive what surrounds us through our senses and process the incoming information. Then, we categorise, label and compare this information to our existing knowledge and, on the basis of that, develop beliefs and make assumptions. We interpret the phenomena surrounding us on the basis of the knowledge and experiences we have accumulated in our life, a process which makes reality different for each of us (Neiser, 1967). Similar to the above cognitive operation, teachers also make sense of their world and within it, their professional activities, through their beliefs and accumulated experiences and knowledge.

‘... in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined’ (Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer, 2001, p. 446). Research on teacher cognition, carried out in the past 40 years, has revealed that there is a complex set of factors that interact in the field of teaching and learning (Borg, 2006). Teachers have sophisticated structures of knowledge and beliefs and their work is influenced by their former experiences, some of which are not even related to teaching and learning (Calderhead, 1996, p.21). Teachers are part of a complex system, the education system of a given country, so systems theory (Holland, 2006) has high relevance to this study. If we decide to analyse teacher experiences through the lens of complex dynamic systems theory, our investigation may reveal how the various factors, detailed below, interact with one another.

3.1.1. From linear to holistic

According to the dominant conceptual model in the 1960s, teaching was seen as the result of the behaviours produced by teachers and students. The model of Dunkin and Biddle (1974),

describing classroom teaching, consists of properties of teachers and learners. Using a linear process-product approach, the authors posit a relationship between four variables: presage variables (teachers' personal characteristics and teacher-training experiences); context variables (characteristics of learners, school, classroom); process variables (teachers and learners behaviour and their interactions); and product variables (the outcome of learning). The major deficiency of this model is that it does not consider the way teachers' cognitive processes may influence their teaching. This, rather mechanistic, view started to change with the emergence of three factors: (1) emphasizing the way thinking influences behaviour (developments in cognitive psychology); (2) recognizing the central role of teachers in the education processes; and (3) understanding that teachers' behaviours cannot be quantified (Borg, 2006, p.6). The developments in cognitive psychology pointed out that there is a relationship between what teachers think, know and believe in and what they actually do. Applied to teachers, this concept entails that teachers' mental lives (what they know, think and believe) impact the way they work in the classroom. These developments gave way to viewing and studying the work of teachers in a more holistic way. Research into teacher thinking revealed the complexity of teaching and that teachers' instructional choices developed on the basis of their experiences.

3.1.2. Teacher beliefs

By the end of the 1970s it became clear that both the thinking and the behaviour of teachers are affected by their, mainly unconscious, beliefs. In their review Clark and Yinger (1977) mention that teachers tend to use their own instructional routines in order to guarantee the smooth operation of their classroom and that these routines are difficult to change as, for them, it might endanger the success of teaching.

Nisbett and Ross (1980) suggested that people formed inferences about themselves and their surroundings on the basis of experiences they encounter early in their life. These inferences then affect the interpretation of any incoming piece of information; consequently, such early experiences heavily influence our final judgments, which become our beliefs that are then very difficult to change. As the authors put it, 'perception is influenced by the perceiver's schema, constructs, existing beliefs and understanding' (p. 206). Using the work of Nisbett and Ross (1980) Munby (1982) also pointed out that established beliefs are very difficult to change even against tangible and concrete evidence. As early as in 1971 Green (1971) had already written about the idea of teachers' belief systems. He suggested that beliefs are not held in isolation from one another but are inter-related in complex ways. Some beliefs may be primary, whereas others derivative (emerge on the basis of a certain primary belief). For example, the primary belief of a teacher that student autonomy is important may produce a derivative belief referring to the frequent use (or importance) of self-assessment. Green also made a distinction between central and peripheral beliefs suggesting that as the former are stronger, they are relatively difficult to alter.

Summarizing research on teachers' beliefs, Pajares (1992) first deconstructed the notion into the various aspects it refers to (e.g., teacher efficacy, motivation, anxiety) then, drawing on the work of Nisbett and Ross (1980) and Abelson (1979), compiled a list of assumptions regarding teachers' educational beliefs. The most important assumptions are as follows: (1) beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate even against contradiction caused by reason, time, schooling or experience; (2) the belief system helps people define and understand the world around themselves; (3) knowledge and beliefs are intertwined and form a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted; (4) beliefs strongly influence perception; and (5) beliefs heavily affect behaviour (Pajares, 1992, pp. 324-6).

In a review article, Thompson (1992) concluded that 'belief systems are dynamic, permeable mental structures, susceptible to change in the light of experience" (p. 104). Richardson (1996) reviewed the role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. According to the constructivist theories of learning students studying to become teachers already possess certain beliefs that affect what and how they learn. These beliefs she placed into three categories: personal experience, experience of schooling and experience with formal knowledge.

3.1.3. 'Apprenticeship of observation'

The role of teachers in the education process came to the foreground in the 1980s with the study of Elbaz (1981) who presented the notion of teachers' practical knowledge. In her later work Elbaz (1983) stated that such knowledge "encompasses first-hand experience of students' learning styles, interests, needs, strengths and difficulties, and a repertoire of instructional techniques and classroom management skills" (p.5). The practical knowledge of teachers is also influenced by different background factors including the way they were taught, teaching experience, their knowledge on keeping discipline in class, their training, their personality features and the context of the school (Borg, 2003; Grossman, 1990; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999). Borg (1998, 1999) found that the instructional decision-making of teachers was affected by their knowledge of context as well as their educational and teaching experience. Meijer, Verloop and Beijard (1999) also suggest that teachers' prior experiences as learners, what Lortie (1975) calls their 'apprenticeship of observation', belong to those background variables that have the potential to affect their practical knowledge. Golombek (1998), Holt Reynolds (1992), Johnson (1994), Numrich (1996), Woods (1996) all mention concrete examples of how early experiences as learners shape their cognitions as teachers and their instructional practices. The study of Moran (1996) shed light on the way that experiences

gained when teaching and reflected upon by teachers may lead to changes in classroom instruction.

3.1.4. Teacher knowledge

There are various terms used in the literature describing the knowledge of teachers including teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1987), teachers' practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1983) and teachers' personal practical knowledge (Verloop et al., 2001). These forms of knowledge do not only have their origin in the teachers' experiences, but also in their initial teacher education and continued professional training. It is, therefore, not the opposite of theoretical knowledge, as the theories teachers acquire through their education and training can be integrated into the personal practical knowledge of teachers (Verloop, Driel & Meijer, 2001). Teachers' personal practical knowledge forms the basis of their actions for practice, it guides their instructional decisions, it lies in their past experiences, present thinking and future plans, it is the result of their experiences as teachers and their reflections on these experiences (Beijaard & Verloop, 1996; Clandinin, 1992; Connelly, Clandinin, & He, 1997; Fenstermacher, 1994; Grossman & Shulman, 1994; Verloop et al., 2001). As Clandinin (1992) put it:

> It is knowledge that reflects the individual's prior knowledge and acknowledge the contextual nature of that teacher's knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge carved out of, and shaped by, situations; knowledge that is constructed and reconstructed as we live out our stories and retell and relive them through processes of reflection. (1992, p. 125)

Regarding teachers' personal practical knowledge, Golombek (1998) suggested that it works like a filter or an interpretative framework that teachers apply to make sense of what is going on in their classroom and that this knowledge is informed by the constant experiences

teachers gain when teaching. According to Meijer et al. (1999), teachers' practical knowledge is personal, contextual, based on experiences, related to content and underlies teachers' actions.

Clandinin and Conelly (1987) pointed out that the personal practical knowledge of teachers should also be investigated to understand what teachers do. They define such knowledge as 'knowledge which is experiential, embodies, and reconstructed out of narratives of a teacher's life' (p. 490).

Schulman (1987) suggested a different aspect to view what teachers know and defined it as pedagogical content knowledge. He emphasized that there is an interaction between the way teachers teach and their knowledge of the subject matter as they mutually influence one another. Schulman and his colleagues investigated how novice teachers transform their subject-matter knowledge into knowledge which they can teach to students. As a result of their investigation, Schulman (1987) suggested a classification of teachers' content knowledge into the following categories; subject-matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of the educational context, and knowledge of educational ends. Among the seven categories, pedagogical content knowledge seems to be the most important as this refers to the ability of teachers to transform what they know about their subject into a form which can be digested by the learners. To be able to achieve this, teachers need to be aware of their students' interests and abilities. In this sense it is different from the general pedagogical knowledge of teachers. Carter (1990) investigated research into what teachers know and how they acquire this knowledge. She suggested that throughout the years teachers develop a complex body of knowledge on the basis of the experiences they gain in the classroom (regarding the various situations, typical interactions and behaviours,

55

etc.). They then utilize this knowledge to make their instructional decisions, analyse and interpret what goes on in the classroom, and anticipate what might happen during a lesson.

3.1.5. Teacher education

The review of Kagan (1992) on the influence of teacher education on teacher cognition implied that the connection is not significant. In her review article, Richardson (1996) also discussed the relationship between teacher education and the possible changes in beliefs and suggested that the intervention education may have seemed to be rather weak. However, the picture revealed by further research carried out in the field (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Freeman, 1993; MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Sendan & Roberts, 1998; Peacock, 2001) is not that clear. These studies show that individuals give diverging responses to the same training. It has also been revealed that behavioural changes do not necessarily lead to cognitive changes and changes in cognition do not ultimately lead to changes in behaviour. To date, the issue of how teacher education is able to influence teachers' prior cognitions is still open for debate.

3.1.6. Classroom practice

On the basis of reviewing research in the field Shavelson and Stern (1981) pointed out that there is a two-way interaction between thinking and classroom practice; teacher cognition shapes classroom events, and what takes place in a classroom affects cognition subsequently. They also mention the various factors that influence teachers' decisions and judgement, such as what teachers know about their students and their behaviour in class, as well as the context and the educational environment of the school where they teach. Thus, the cognition of teachers and their actual classroom practice form a 'symbiotic relationship' (Foss & Kleinsasser, 1996, p. 441). In his review article, Borg (2003) insists that although the

classroom practice of teachers is affected by several (interacting and sometimes conflicting) factors, teacher cognition appears to exert a consistently strong influence.

3.1.7. Context

Teachers' classroom practices are influenced by the 'social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom'. 'These factors include parents, principal's requirements, the school society, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardised tests, and the availability of resources' (Borg, 2003, p. 94). Johnson (1996), for example, found evidence regarding how contextual realities had a (negative) influence on student teachers during their practicum. Richards and Pennington (1998) compiled a list of contextual factors that made teachers deviate from their own instructional beliefs in practice. Amongst these factors we can find class size, examination pressure, pressure to conform to experienced teachers and heavy workload.

3.1.8. Experiences

As mentioned above, there is a two-way relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practice/experiences. Cognition affects what teachers do and the experiences they accumulate in turn shape their thinking. In their studies, Nunan (1992) and Richards (1998) both found that more experienced teachers are able to concentrate more on the content of teaching because they already possess the necessary skills and routines to manage the class.

3.1.9. Summary

On the basis of the above review the following points may be stated on teacher cognition:

- the work of teachers should be considered from a holistic perspective;
- both the thinking and behaviour of teachers are affected by their established beliefs;

- these beliefs are formed early, are very difficult to change, form a system, function as a filter to understand the world and are shaped by experiences;

- teachers possess knowledge affected by their experiences, training and the contextual realities of their work;

- the role of teacher education in shaping teacher cognition is ambiguous;

- teacher cognition is in interaction with classroom practice and school context.

3.2   Teacher motivation

In any classroom, teachers are key figures. They are the ones who organise and manage the activities aimed at making students able to understand the world. They are the ones who take care of their students intellectual (and emotional) needs. Teachers have ultimate influence on their students. Consequently, the teachers' own level of motivation is a vital factor when it comes to motivating their students. As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) have pointed out, "the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that can affect learners' motivation to learn" (p. 158). Drawing on the works of Pennington (1995) and Doyle and Kim (1999), Dörnyei (2001) conceptualized and analysed teacher motivation. Around the same time, other works (Jacques, 2001; Kassagby, Boraie, and Schmidt (2001) also treated this issue giving more information about the topic. In the broadest sense, teaching is a job that requires a certain type of human behaviour. Therefore, we can use the general models of motivation to describe the essence of teacher motivation: the expectancy-value theory (e.g. Wigfield & Cambria, 2010), the expectancy theory (e.g., Mowday & Nam, 1997), the self-efficacy theory (e.g., Bandura, 1977), the goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and the self-determination theory (e.g., Csíkszentmihályi, 1997).

Working as a teacher is a highly complex professional activity so there is reason to believe that there must be certain aspects of motivation that have particular importance in

relation to teaching. Dörnyei (2001, p. 157) suggest that the following aspects have a stronger relation to teacher motivation:

1. it has a strong intrinsic component,

2. it is heavily influenced by contextual factors (e.g., school, colleagues, students and expectations of the society),

3. it seems to be quite fragile, as there are many negative influences affecting it.

The studies of Dinham and Scott (2000) and Dinham, Scott and Stone (2001) carried out in the four largest English speaking countries clearly show that when asked to identify the main satisfiers of their profession, teachers refer to intrinsic rewards such as the internal desire to educate people and assist their personal development. Intrinsic motivation "implies engaging in an activity for the pleasure and the satisfaction inherent in the activity" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 42). For teachers, this refers to their inner desire to educate people and to pass on and establish values that can eventually make the world better. Csikszentmihályi (1997) makes a distinction between the two sources of such rewards: the "educational process itself", seeing the personal development of their students, and the "subject matter", their interest in the subject they teach. These two sources of rewards are closely connected as teachers who have a strong desire to teach also do their best to acquire a broad and up to date knowledge in the field. Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory suggests that three basic human needs can be connected to intrinsic motivation: (1) autonomy, (2) relatedness, and (3) competence. Activities that satisfy these needs have the potential to strengthen intrinsic motivation. Because in the classroom, teachers have a relatively large freedom to deal with their students whom they develop constant relationship with, the first two needs, mentioned above, are answered. Competence refers to their sense of efficacy, which, in turn is related to their beliefs on how efficiently they are able to teach their students. With respect to this, goal-

setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) suggests that teachers' motivation may be increased by setting clear and possible goals for them to achieve. Hackman (1985) states that work is motivating if it is meaningful (i.e. important to others), if it bestows autonomy on the teacher (i.e. is in control of what he does) and if he knows the actual results of his work (receives feedback). Considering research on the nature of extrinsic motivation of teachers, the washback effect of test/exams may have significance in this regard. An exam has the potential to appear as a feasible goal, teachers are relatively free to achieve this goal and the results of the exam can provide them with concrete feedback.

The positive picture originating in teachers being intrinsically motivated is shaded by the fact that teachers are exposed to powerful external influences (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As it is strongly related to contextual factors, teacher motivation is fragile, by nature, and may easily be exposed to negative influences (Dörnyei, 2011). Extrinsic influences constitute a serious threat to teacher motivation. Dinham and Scott (2000) make a distinction between two levels of contextual factors affecting teacher motivation: (1) micro-level: school-related factors e.g., size of the workload, school atmosphere, available resources, students' abilities and behaviour, etc., and (2) macro-level: factors on the societal level e.g., teachers' status in society, the educational changes imposed upon them.

The fragility of teacher motivation may be traced back to the previous two concurrent aspects: teaching is an activity carried out on the basis of mainly intrinsic motivation, but at the same time, heavily constrained by contextual variables. Dörnyei (2001) identifies the most important factors affecting the commitment of teachers: (1) the stressful nature of teaching, (2) restricted autonomy, (3) insufficient self-efficacy, (4) content repetitiveness, (5) and inadequate career structure (p. 165).

The difficulty of teaching children entails a lot of stress: teachers are to teach children or youth who may go through all sorts of (personal) problems and might not be interested in

the subject, what is more, they need to maintain a certain level of control so they could make their student achieve what is prescribed in the curriculum, or required by the exams. Teachers can frequently experience the feeling that their work is strongly regulated.

Education, as an activity, has strong societal significance. Consequently, decision-makers frequently impose normative constraints on schools trying to make teachers act in a way they consider desirable. One way to regulate, or indirectly influence, the classroom activity of teachers is the introduction of a national curriculum and standardized tests. These measures tend to appear in the form of growing centralised control threatening teacher autonomy and reducing teacher motivation.

As was mentioned above, competence (self-efficacy) is strongly related to intrinsic motivation. Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (1998) suggest that the majority of what future teachers study during their teacher training programmes does not adequately prepare them to handle the challenges they face in a real classroom.

Having started their career, many teachers find themselves in a situation when, year after year, they are required to do the same work. The prescribed requirements imposed upon them in the form of curriculum or standardised tests leaves them with little freedom to deviate from their routine. These conditions may make the average teacher lose interest and motivation (Dörnyei, 2001).

Finally, the career possibilities appearing in front of teachers are limited. Unless someone wants to go into management, there are very few advancement opportunities of attainable further goals. Because teachers are highly qualified individuals with strong intrinsic motivational patterns, this situation clearly endangers their commitment (Dörnyei, 2001).

In conclusion, the following may be stated: on the one hand, teaching is a profession carried out by teachers whose major source of motivation is intrinsic in nature. However, their

level of motivation is strongly influenced by contextual factors, several of which are capable of influencing it in a negative way.

There are two aspects where the focus of our investigation, the washback effect of exams, and the construct of teacher motivation intercept one another: regarding goal-setting theory, in a positive way, and in the case of teacher autonomy, in a negative way. As we have seen, there is a connection between teachers' motivation, their sense of self-efficacy, goal-setting (Locke & Latham, 1990) and receiving feedback (Hackman, 1985). Setting clear and possible goals to achieve, then receiving feedback on it may increase the motivation of teachers (and students). Foreign language proficiency exams can nicely be fit into this picture. If teachers are aware of the exam requirements and are also able to communicate these towards their students, such an exam may appear as a clear goal, while the results provide both teachers and students with legitimate feedback. On the other hand, however, if such exams or standardized tests are externally imposed, they have the power to appear as a constraint in the eyes of teachers. This is all the more true if they contain a hidden agenda, e.g., the intention of the educational authorities to move teachers towards the application of certain teaching methods. One of the aims of our investigation is to find out what of the above aspects (the positive or negative, or both) characterise the practice of Hungarian language teachers.

PART II

THE EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF LANGUAGE EXAMS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE

Chapter 3 Research design

3.1 Rationale for research methodology

There are several factors that affect what exactly takes place in a language lesson. These factors, in addition, are in constant interaction with one another. The objective of our investigation is (1) to explore how the available language exams (school leaving examinations and externally validated language exams) affect the teaching and learning process and possibly the wider educational environment in Hungary and (2) how the various factors interact with one another. To lay the foundations for our exploratory investigation, Part 1 provided an overview of the theoretical framework of the research focusing on five areas: complex dynamic systems, innovation and change, washback (impact), teacher cognition and teacher motivation.

The various factors that affect the classroom practice of teachers were also outlined: attitudes and beliefs, behaviour, motivation, teacher knowledge, ways of teaching, ways of assessing students' performance, professional training, professional development opportunities, the way teachers were taught, former personal experiences, knowledge about the exam and context. The reviewed literature suggests that washback is a highly complex phenomenon. The empirical studies carried out in the field and discussed above show that there is a complex relationship among the various factors that all exert an influence on three levels: on society, on the education system, and on classroom teaching and learning. To investigate how they interact with one another, and to explore the nature of these interactions, we resorted to using both quantitative and qualitative research methodology. For decades, researchers were debating the priority of the qualitative and quantitative research methods over one another (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Mixed methods, however, have emerged as a continuum of these two traditions and have gained an accepted position in the field of research methodology (Dörnyei, 2007). Our investigation follows an

approach in the mixed method research tradition (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005) applying both quantitative (questionnaire survey) and qualitative (interview, open-ended questionnaire items) data collection instruments. It is the complexity of the topic which requires the use of different methods so the findings can be corroborated, cross-validated and confirmed. Therefore, the dissertation applies a concurrent triangulation strategy (Creswell, 2003, p 217), which converges both quantitative and qualitative data collected at the same time.

To construe theories that can describe, model and explain the different phenomena we encounter, researchers apply both induction and deduction. In the field of natural sciences, studies are traditionally carried out on the basis of objective measurement (standardized data collection procedures) and gather quantifiable data to focus on deduction. A quantitative design offers numeric description of trends, opinions or attitudes and as such, can be generalized (Creswell, 2003, p.153). As we used questionnaire surveys with large samples it was possible to detect the characteristics of the whole population – language learners and language teachers – from a group of individuals with the help of statistical analysis (Creswell, 2003, p.154). Applying qualitative methods, on the other hand, we can focus on exploring the world around us using non-standardized and naturalistic data (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Griffe, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Nesting open-ended questions in the questionnaire provides an opportunity to get an emic perspective on the participants and on the situation, making the topic of inquiry more understandable.

In the 1970s the idea of triangulation was introduced which led to the combination of the two methods. Establishing validity is of utmost importance in any research. "Validity is an essential criterion for evaluating the quality and acceptability of research" (Burns, 1999; p 160.). An investigation is considered valid if it is believable and true, and if it assesses what it is supposed to be assessing. To this Frankel and Wallen (2003, p. 158) add, that the quality of

data collection instruments is vital because "the conclusions researchers draw are based on the information they obtain using these instruments". The other main requirement for any research process is establishing the reliability of the data and results. Reliability, first of all, refers to the consistency, dependability and replicability of the results obtained. Getting similar results through quantitative data collection is relatively simple, but achieving identical results applying a qualitative approach is rather difficult, because here our data is mainly subjective and may be presented in a narrative form. Consequently, as Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288) suggest, instead of expecting similar results, we should consider the dependability and consistency of data. The application of different methods and sources of inquiry makes it possible to strengthen the validity of findings (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45). It has been accepted that the validity, reliability, and credibility of research findings can be ensured by the combination of these methods, as the strengths inherent in one method may compensate for the weaknesses of the other (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Our study also utilizes the complementary function of mixed methods: data collection follows a concurrent strategy as various forms of data are collected at the same time. For exploratory purposes a qualitative method – focus group interview – was used, which was followed by a quantitative method – a large scale study using a questionnaire. For an overview of the research strands see Table 3 below.

Table 3

Overview of research strands

Instrument and time of administration	Paradigm	Open and closed questions	Participants
Group interview October 2016	qualitative	7 open questions	5 teachers
Teachers 'questionnaire May 2017	quantitative and qualitative	67 closed statements 7 open questions	333 teachers
Students 'questionnaire May 2017	quantitative and qualitative	63 closed statements 5 open questions	1109 students

4.2   The context of the study

4.2.1. The foreign language knowledge of Hungarian students

According to the National Census, (*Népszámlálás, 2001*, 2002) 19.2% of the population claimed that they can speak at least one foreign language. Terestyéni (2000) found similar proportions: 24.3% in 1997 and 30.5% in 2000. According to Szénay (2005), however, the picture is better. She reported that 45% of the Hungarians between the age of 15 and 44 said they did not speak any foreign languages (p. 49). She also discovered a positive trend with respect to the language proficiency of the younger generation. Fifty-one % of her sample aged 15-19 achieved B1-C2 CEFR-level proficiency in their tests, in contrast with the sample of the 40-44 age-groups, where this ratio was 22% (p. 58). The most recent European barometer statistics (*Europeans and their languages*, 2006; *Europeans and their languages,* 2012) revealed that according to self-reports, Hungary is one of those countries with the lowest self-reported foreign language competence in the European Union. The situation is even worse with respect to people being able to speak at least two foreign languages. It is safe to say that the percentage of people who claim to be able to speak foreign languages in Hungary is still low compared with other countries in Europe.

4.2.2. The institutional framework of FL teaching

During the years following the political changes in 1990 when the world opened and it was possible to travel, people realized they needed practical and useable language proficiency (Enyedi & Medgyes, 1998; Medgyes & Miklósi, 2000). This tendency was intensified with the accession of the country, in 2004, to European Union where the emerging ideal was the trilingual citizen. However, at the turn of the millennium, the country still did not have an overall policy regarding the development of foreign language proficiency. This was one of the reasons accounting for the people's low level of FL knowledge (Nikolov, 2007; Petneki, 2007). Owing to the political changes, and because Russian was no longer obligatory to learn, a strong demand appeared to develop an efficient language policy. Language education became a field where improvement, in the form of change and innovation, became a priority. This marked the beginning of an era perceived as a "golden age" in foreign language education (Medgyes, 2011) and a modernization "success story" (Vágó, 2000). In 1999 the Ministry of Education developed a brand new foreign language teaching strategy (Kapitánffy, 2001), which determined the output requirements of FL teaching according to the CEFR (*Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment,* 2001), as recommended by the European Union. Among the specific aims of the strategy we can find the following: the secondary school-leaving exam will be revised on the basis of modern approaches; the advanced-level FL school-leaving exam will be acknowledged as an intermediate-level language proficiency exam; only qualified teachers will be allowed to teach foreign languages; and higher emphasis will be placed on teacher training for both future and in-service teachers. The implementation of this strategy took place in the framework of the World - Language Programme, developed by the Ministry of Education and Culture and launched in 2003. The aim of the programme was to provide added funding and more time for foreign language teaching with strong support for related teacher training. One important

element of the programme was the introduction of the new, two-level school leaving examination whose content was also modernized as it built upon the communicative language teaching approach and took into consideration the criteria for describing foreign language proficiency developed by the CEFR (Balázs, 2007; Fisher & Öveges, 2008).

As far as the institutional framework is concerned, language teaching in primary and secondary education is regulated by the National Core Curriculum (NCC). So far there have been four versions (Government Decrees, 1995, 2003, 2007 and 2012). As a supplement to the NCC, so called frame curricula, were introduced in 2000 and in 2012. Generally speaking the first three versions, following the recommendations of the Council of Europe, adopted "humanistic and communicative principles" (Medgyes & Nikolov, 2000, p. 271). The first NCC (1995) underlined the importance of practical language skills and the necessity to know about other cultures, while the second and the third versions (2003, 2007) focused on the development of communicative language competence. It was the 2003 NCC which reconciled the output proficiency levels with the levels of the CEFR. In the case of the first foreign language, students are expected to reach B1 level by the end of grade 12 and A2 level in the second foreign language. This regulation did not change in the 2007 version of the NCC.

At the moment, students start learning their first foreign language in grade 4 (age 9-10), although primary schools are allowed to offer language classes before that time if they have the appropriate conditions for it (qualified teachers, suitable infrastructure). According to Morvai, Ottó and Öveges (2009), 53% of primary schools use this opportunity, which is mainly the result of the pressure on part of the parents (Nikolov, 2001, 2011). On the basis of a questionnaire survey conducted by the Nyelvtudásért Egyesület in February 2016, Kuti (2016) found that 48% of students began learning their first FL before grade 4. According to the latest version of the National Core Curriculum (Government Decree, 2012) students may start to learn a second foreign language in grade 7. However, other regulations in the NCC

make it difficult to achieve this situation as the number of lessons that can be used for language teaching is reduced, while the output requirement at the end of grade 8 is raised, from A1 to A2 level (NCC, 2012). As far as the number of lessons per week is concerned, in grade 4 there should be minimum 2 classes/week, while from grade 5 through grade 12 a minimum of 3 language lessons are to be held each week. Studies investigating language education found the number of language classes per week was higher than the minimum. Vágó (2007) found that the average number of language classes at grade 9 was 4.59 and according to Morvai, Ottó and Öveges (2009), one or two lessons were offered in the first grades of primary school. If we add up the minimum required numbers we find that, at present, students are offered at least 936 lessons to study their first foreign language and 432 to learn a second one until the end of grade 12. To put it in context, most European countries require around 500-600 lessons for language teaching (Key Data, 2012).

Regarding the output requirements, students must reach CEFR A2 level by the end of grade 8 and B1 by the end of grade 12 (NCC, 2012). Students attending bilingual schools must reach CEFR level A2 by the end of grade 6 and level B1 by the end of grade 8. Furthermore, at least 50% of these students must reach CEFR level B2 by the end of grade 10 and 90% of them have to reach the same level by the end of grade 12. In the framework of the two-level school leaving exam, students may opt to take an advanced level exam too, which is acknowledged as a B2 level proficiency exam. From 2020, only those students may enter higher education that have a B2 language certificate (Government Decree 423/2012). The year 2014 saw the introduction of proficiency exams in bilingual education. Students studying in these schools are required to take such an exam every two years: A2 at the end of grade 6, B1 at the end of grade 8, and B2 at the end of grade 10. Finally, obligatory proficiency exams were also introduced in general education at the end of grade 6 (A1 level) and grade 8 (A2 level) in 2015.

4.2.3. Features of the Hungarian classroom

The Hungarian education system has undergone many changes in the past 25 years. However, the influence of the old-fashioned, "Prussian" model, which became the norm in Hungary in 1869 when the first education law was drafted, can still be felt in the everyday practice of public education. This model emphasizes factual learning and discipline. The classroom observation study of Nikolov (1999) gathered data from 118 classes in 55 secondary schools investigating the general teaching conditions in English lessons in secondary schools. Although it did not include a representative sample, the findings are telling. She found that most of the classes were teacher-fronted, that monotony and boredom characterized the lessons in which the most frequent activity was answering questions. When asked to identify students' strengths and weaknesses, "... a few teachers simply left the questions unanswered and most often them tended to identify more weaknesses than strengths" (p. 230). Many of the teachers complained about their students' aptitude, lack of motivation and willingness to communicate adding that they "(...) did not put enough effort and interest into language studies," (p. 231). Csapó (1998), Józsa and Fejes (2010) and Szenci (2008) all found when investigating the work of teachers in general education that teachers' expectations are crucial, as they often work as self-fulfilling prophecies exerting a strong influence upon the self-image and motivation of students.

Starting from 2001, the National Institute of Public Education has carried out several field research studies regarding the various academic subjects taught in Hungarian primary and secondary schools. On the teaching and assessment methods applied by Hungarian teachers a comprehensive study was published in 2005 (Radnóti, 2005). Primary and secondary school teachers of literature and mathematics (N=2000) were asked about the techniques they use when teaching and assessing their students. By the term 'teaching

technique', they refer to those constant and iterative components of the teaching and learning process that teachers apply in the form of pedagogy and management strategies in order to achieve the various aims of instruction. Such techniques include: presentation, explanation, discussion, debate, visualisation, projects, cooperative learning, simulation, role play and homework. Regarding classroom teaching it was found that teachers prefer the more traditional, teacher-centred, frontal teaching methods where the students' role is reduced to be passive participants (Radnóti, 2005). Teachers in general education, however, do use various teaching methods, 80% of them apply at least eight different instructional methods. 90% of teachers use explanation, illustration, discussion and individual work to a certain degree, but the application of constructive methods, such as cooperative learning, projects, ICT, multimedia, etc. is below 50% (Falus, 2001; Golnhofer & Szekszárdi, 2003). In the field of assessment, the application of summative assessment methods – in the form of quizzes and oral and written tests – is predominant, while the use of formative assessment methods is much less frequent (Radnóti, 2005). The qualitative study of Hild and Nikolov (2011) intended to explore how teachers of young learners assess the four skills and what they think about tests. They found that most tests assessed reading and writing.

The research of Antalné Szabó Ágnes (2006) on teacher talk also underpins the teacher-fronted nature of the Hungarian classroom. She analysed 50 video-recorded lessons, 60% of which were Hungarian as a native language lessons and the rest included lessons of various academic subjects, and found that 94% of the time it was the teacher who initiated communication, constantly reinforcing herself as the primary source of knowledge. On average, students initiated communication only 6% of the time. Regarding the ongoing oral interactions, teachers talked 78% of the time. These patterns confirm the hierarchical nature of the Hungarian classroom in which it is the teacher who dominates and determines the flow of communication.

The exploratory study of Nikolov (2008) focused on early-start FL teaching programmes. Having observed 60 English lessons and conducted interviews with 30 teachers, she concluded that in most cases pupils could not profit from the programme because teachers lacked some fundamental methodological knowledge. A similar picture was painted by Sebestyénné Kereszthidi (2011) in the field of early-start German dual language education. Her observation study also revealed serious problems regarding the professional knowledge of language teachers.

Investigating the potential existence of various emotions related to classroom atmosphere, Imre (2002) and Oláh (1999, 2005) discovered that according to Hungarian students, only 32% of their school activities create joy, occupy their attention and challenge their abilities. Most of the boredom, apathy and anxiety students experience in their life is directly connected to school. In her questionnaire study, Imre (2002) found that when classes are not interesting to students, they tend to become less motivated which, in turn, makes teachers resort to disciplinary measures more frequently.

Summarizing these results the following features are worth bearing in mind: (1) there seems to be a strong hierarchy in the lessons where teachers have a dominant role; (2) most classes appear to be held in a teacher-fronted way; (3) teachers seem have a low opinion on their students; (4) two-thirds of the feelings students have towards school is negative (boredom, apathy, anxiety); (5) in most cases students do not find school/lessons interesting; (6) in such classes teachers tend to resort to using disciplinary measures more frequently. There are, of course, great and committed teachers performing at a high professional level, but the picture, as can be seen through research, looks rather gloomy.

4.2.4. The school leaving exam and the external language exams

As mentioned earlier, the political changes of the 1990s brought several changes in the field of language education and assessment. The importance of being able to speak a foreign language came to the foreground, rendering high value to the possession of language proficiency. The changes brought positive changes with respect to language learning motivation. The attitude and motivation patterns of pupils were first surveyed in the 1993/94 school year then it was repeated in 1999 (Csizér, Dörnyei, & Nyilasi, 1999; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001). Both studies found that pupils showed positive attitude towards language learning and were highly motivated to learn. The government decided that those students who pass a successful language exam would no longer have to learn that language in school. One of the reasons behind this decision was to relieve language teachers who worked under strong pressure. A lower number of students meant an opportunity to teach them more efficiently. Having a language certificate also meant an advantage when students applied for entry to a higher education institution or took up a job. Csapó (2001) found that secondary school students had a primarily instrumental motivation to learn a FL, that being, to pass a language exam. This situation rendered the school leaving language exam useless as it was not a proficiency exam. Prior to 2005, the "old" school leaving language exam was an achievement test assessing the knowledge learned in primary and secondary schools in the form of planned instruction. This exam was not standardized; it was not linked to the CEFR levels, and did not have any legal or official documents which would have regulated the framework of its administration (Einhorn, 2009, 2015). It could not be considered valid from the perspective of communicative language testing as the translation tasks and grammar exercises were not suitable to assess the communicative language competence of students. Neither can we regard this exam reliable, because the content of the exam was compiled in a random fashion year

after year and the results were never properly analysed. As a result of these features, the state did not acknowledge it as an official document proving language proficiency.

During the 1990s, besides the most well-known international language exams, there was only one language examination centre in Hungary where students could get a language certificate. This (central) language exam was built on rather traditional principles of FL knowledge and its specification was also not detailed enough. Therefore, in the lack of precise information, teachers resorted to using the tasks/tests made public regarding this exam when preparing their students for it (Einhorn, 2009, 2015). After observing 118 lessons, Nikolov (1999) found evidence for a strong connection between this exam and the teaching of FL, as the most frequent task types used in the lessons were typical language examination tasks used in exams at that time. At the end of the 1990s, a new accreditation system was developed and introduced with respect to language examination in Hungary. In 2000, the field of language examination was liberalized and several new, Hungarian and foreign examination systems started their operation in the country. The accreditation process built upon the developments that had taken place in the field of language assessment from the 1980s and '90s: skills assessment became a norm; exams had to have clear specifications; exam levels were to be aligned with the relevant CEFR levels (Einhorn, 2009). During the same period a new, two-level (intermediate and advanced) school leaving language exam was being developed on the basis of similar principles. The advanced version of this matura exam was meant to be acknowledged as an intermediate-level language proficiency exam. The intention was to raise the prestige of the school-leaving exam and provide a cost-free opportunity for everyone to get a language certificate. The output requirements of this new exam were also intended to have a regulatory function in public education. It was introduced in 2005, following a ten-year preparatory and development process. The conceptual framework of the exam included three important principles (Einhorn, 2009; Horváth & Lukács, 2005).

It should

- be standardised: the same exam is taken in all types of secondary schools,

- be available on two levels, and

- have a modernized content.

It was clear from the very beginning that the future requirements of the exam would fundamentally determine the curriculum of at least the last two years of secondary education. The original concept brought a new genre into Hungarian public education with its "detailed examination specifications" (Horváth & Lukács, 2005). Similar to the external language exams, the information on the requirements, content, assessment criteria and task types of the matura exam has become available for both teachers, students and parents. Furthermore, its content was also modernized because it built upon the communicative language teaching approach and took into consideration the criteria for describing foreign language proficiency developed by the CEFR. The proficiency levels to be reached by the exams were regulated by the relevant version of Government Decree 100/1997 (VI. 13.) on the specifications of the school leaving exam. The novelty of the new two-level school-leaving language exam lies in the following; (1) it assesses the four language skills separately, (2) it is monolingual, (3) it uses authentic materials, (4) it uses new task types, and (5) it has a new assessment system. In the case of the receptive skills, teachers are to follow a key while for productive skills, the performances of students are to be assessed according to detailed assessment criteria. As the exam was built upon the principles of communicative language assessment, it provoked an important change in the professional life of teachers. Before that time, they had been allowed to follow the language teaching tradition of their choice; however, the communicative requirements of the newly introduced exam made it imperative for them adapt their ways and move towards a more communicative tradition (Einhorn, 2009). It was the culture of assessment that represented the most important change brought by the exam. The aim now, is

not to assess what students know *about* the language, but rather, how they are able to use it. The emphasis is on skills and competence rather than on knowledge.

At the time when the survey of the dissertation was carried out (May 2017) possession of a language certificate in Hungary is of ultimate importance for both language teachers and learners. According to the existing regulations on the output requirements in language education, (the latest version of the National Core Curriculum: Government Decree, 2012) all students must reach CEFR level A2 by the end of grade 8 and B1 by the end of grade 12. Since 2014, students in public education have been required to take proficiency exams at the end of grade 6 (A1 level) and grade 8 (A2 level). The purpose of this exam is to assess whether the FL knowledge of pupils meets the requirements of the CEFR levels set by the curriculum. This exam assesses two skills only: listening and reading comprehension. Those pupils' level of knowledge is deemed being in conformity with the given CEFR levels who achieve a 60% average on the test. Students studying in bilingual schools are also required to take a proficiency exam every two years: A2 at the end of grade 6, B1 at the end of grade 8, and B2 at the end of grade 10. However, in their case the exam is different as here three skills are tested: listening, reading comprehension and written communication. To get a degree in higher education one must possess, with some exceptions, a B2 level language exam (Act CCIV of 2011 on Higher Education). From 2020, only those students may enter higher education who have a B2 language certificate (Government Decree 423/2012). Passing an advanced level school-leaving exam successfully (achieving a 60% score) means that one gets a language certificate acknowledged by the state as a B2 level proficiency exam. On the basis of such data we are safe to say that the various language exams permeate the life of both teachers and students in Hungary in 2017. Beginning with grade 6, every Hungarian student needs to take a language exam at the end of every two school years. For those who intend to enter higher education it is an absolute necessity to obtain a language certificate, preferably by

the time they start their tertiary studies. The focus of our investigation is therefore relevant to all students and teachers in the country.

4.3.   Research questions

The literature on teacher cognition reveals that both the thinking and behaviour (classroom practice) of teachers are influenced by their established beliefs they form on the basis of their (early) experiences as learners and later on as teachers, by their training (teacher education and further training courses) and by the contextual realities of their work. In addition, their classroom practice is also affected by the various forms of their knowledge (teacher knowledge, practical knowledge, personal practical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge), by the expectations displayed towards them and by the level and nature of their motivational patterns (e.g. (pl. Borg, 2003; Clark & Yinger 1977; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011; Elbaz, 1983; Grossman, 1990; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999; Nisbett & Ross 1980).

On the basis of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 exams may also exert an influence on teachers' attitudes, beliefs, behaviour, motivation, their ways of teaching and assessment and their feelings (anxiety, embarrassment, insecurity). It, therefore, seems logical to concentrate on those variables that affect the teaching practice of teachers and, at the same time, are affected by the exams. Table 4 below shows these variables. The teacher variables in the middle column are the ones that are both affected by tests/exams and affecting classroom practice at the same time.

Table 4

Factors affecting teachers and their classroom practice

Teacher variables affected by tests/exams		Teacher variables affecting classroom practice
feelings: anxiety embarrassment insecurity	*attitudes* *beliefs* *behaviour* *motivation* *ways of teaching* *ways of assessing their students*	- teacher knowledge - professional training - professional development opportunities - the way they were taught - former personal experiences - knowledge about the test - expectations

According to the literature review (Chapter 2), exams may influence students' attitudes towards learning and also their motivation, behaviour and learning process. It has been revealed that in addition to these factors, the language learning activities of students are also influenced by the following factors: what they know and think about the test, their former experiences and expectations, their learning style and goals, and also their feelings. Table 5 below shows those variables that affect the learning activities of students and, at the same time, are affected by the exams. The variables in the middle column are the ones that are both affected by tests/exams and affecting students' language learning activities at the same time.

Table 5

Factors affecting students and their learning

Student variables affected by tests/exams		Variables that affect the language learning activities of students:
- behaviour - learning process	*attitudes towards learning* *motivation* *anxiety*	- what they know about the test - what they think about the test - learning styles - former experiences - expectations - anxiety - expectations of assessment - goals

The aim of our research is to reveal the complexity of the various factors affecting classroom practice: exams, teachers, students, and contexts. It is the secondary level of the Hungarian education system which is most strongly affected by the issue of language exams. As a result, it is reasonable to focus our investigation on the secondary level. Consequently, our research questions are as follows:

1. How do the different types of language exams (school leaving examinations and external proficiency exams) affect teachers and students in the Hungarian context?
2. What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams (school leaving and external)?
3. What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback and the classroom practice of secondary school teachers?
4. What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback, teacher ID variables and classroom practice of secondary school teachers?

4.4. Setting and participants

4.4.1. Setting

The washback effect of all the existing language exams (school-leaving and externally validated exams) has not been systematically researched within one single framework in Hungary. The dissertation of Vígh (2010) investigated the impact of the Hungarian FL school-leaving exam (in English and German languages at both levels) on the beliefs and attitudes of language teachers. The statistics of the Education Authority and the Accreditation Centre for Foreign Language Examinations show, however, that the number of students opting to take an advanced level school-leaving language exam is extremely low, while that of those who choose to take an external language exam is much higher (see Table 6 below).

Table 6

Number of candidates taking the different language exams in 2016

Type of examinations	English	German
School leaving language exam at intermediate level (level B1)	52 260	17 068
School leaving language exam at advanced level *(recognized as B2 level external language exam)*	11 001	2 551
External language exam, intermediate level (level B2)	79 348	24 132

These data show the ultimate significance of the language exams provided by the for-profit examination centres. Consequently, if we want to reveal the true nature of the washback effect of language exams, we need to take into account the influence that both the school leaving and the external FL exams exert on the everyday practice of language teachers. The views of the other stakeholders, the students, also need to be explored as their participation in the teaching-learning process affects teaching also. Therefore, the research discussed in this dissertation, focuses on two groups of stakeholders: teachers and students. In order to reveal the complex nature of washback various research instruments are used: online questionnaires with open-ended items and a focus group interview involving teachers.

4.4.2. Participants

The participants in the research study include teachers and students. As our investigation is relevant to all teachers and students, we aimed at accessing the widest possible group of respondents. We intended to reach teachers who work in general education and in language schools, who are examiners at the advanced level school leaving exam and

who work as examiners in the various for-profit examination systems. It was also important to get answers from those teachers who are not examiners themselves, but are affected by the present educational context. In a similar vein, it was also crucial to reach as many students as possible. We needed the answers of those who have already taken a language exam and were successful, of those who failed, and of those who have not yet attempted to take an exam.

4.4.3. Sampling

Teachers

To be able to generalize the results of the questionnaire surveys, an appropriate sample size was needed, which includes people whose most essential general characteristics are very similar to the target population (e.g. age, gender, educational background, qualifications, workplace, languages taught) (Dörnyei, 2007; p. 96). Considering the sampling strategies an opportunity sampling procedure was applied. This procedure involves people from the target population available at the time and willing to take part in a study. We have obtained the sample by asking members of the population of interest if they would take part in your research. A letter of invitation (Appendix A and C) containing the link to the questionnaire, was sent to the principals of 1,028 schools asking them to forward it to their language teachers. The directors of two major accredited language examination systems (ECL and Euroexam) operating in Hungary were asked to forward the letter with the survey link to teachers and examiners working for them. In the case of ECL examinations 198 teachers/examiners have received the link, while Euroexam provided the email address of 153 teachers/examiners. The sampling procedure was made random by the fact that the opportunity was there for thousands of language teachers working at the primary and secondary level to provide their responses. The procedure also included an element of opportunity sampling, as in the case of the teachers who were interviewed, convenience or

opportunity sampling was used (Babbie, 2001). Dörnyei (2007) states that such samples are frequently partly purposeful in that "besides the relative ease of accessibility, participants also have to possess certain key characteristics that are related to the purpose of the investigation" (p. 99). The five teachers who were interviewed therefore were more experienced and novice teachers, as well as, teachers who teach English and German.

Students

The request letters containing the link to the questionnaire (Appendix B) have been sent to two distinct groups of respondents: (1) over 20 000 students received an e-mail with the request letter directly in it; (2) the letter sent to the teachers also included reference to the students' questionnaire and asked them to call the attention of their students to fill in the questionnaire. As mentioned earlier, two accredited language examination systems assisted in conducting the research. Both ECL and Euroexam offered the email-address of those students who had taken a language exam at their centres in the previous six months. In the case of ECL Examinations, the number of former test takers was just over 11,000, whereas for Euroexam it was 11,742.

Respondents

Using an online questionnaire is very practical: one can fill it in easily and, thanks to modern technology (e.g., smartphones), almost anywhere; anonymity is properly ensured; and there is instant access to the data gathered. The biggest drawback is that the response rate may be quite low. By the end of the set deadline (end of May 2017), 333 teachers completed the questionnaire. It was completely voluntary to fill in the questionnaire, teachers did not receive any remuneration for it. The number of students having completed the questionnaire is 1109.

4.5. Data collection instruments

4.5.1. Design and development of data collection instruments

The term mixed methods research refers to collecting and analysing qualitative and quantitative data within one single study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). According to Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989, p. 259), there are five rationales for conducting mixed method research:

- *Triangulation*: to corroborate the results from the different methods and designs;

- *Complementarity*: to elaborate, clarify and illustrate the results from one method with results from the other method;

- *Initiation*: to discover paradoxes and contradictions that lead to re-framing the research question;

- *Development*: to use the findings from one method to help inform the other method;

- *Expansion*: to expand the depth and the range of research by using different methods for different inquiry components.

Mixed methods research design, however, may take different forms according to the following aspects: (a) the priority of the various forms of data over one another, (b) the combination of the data collected from the different sources (time of collection and analysis), (3) the timing of the qualitative/quantitative phases (concurrent or sequential), (4) and the order of these phases (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In their earlier work, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) use the term "mixed model studies" to refer to the integration of other aspects of qualitative and quantitative approaches (e.g. epistemological assumptions, analysis and inference strategies). It is a transformative design which changes one form of data into another so that they can be merged. The aim of my dissertation is to reveal the complex relationships and interactions existing among the variables affecting the appearance

of washback in the classroom practice of language teachers in Hungary. The complexity of the issue under investigation requires the application of multiple angles of exploration, in other words, the use and combination of different research methods. To find answers to our research questions the strategy of inquiry in this dissertation applies the combination of sequential and concurrent research design (Figure 10). Regarding the rationales of Greene et al. (1989) this strategy offers an opportunity to corroborate and converge the results from the different methods (triangulation), to illustrate the results from one method with results from the other method (complementarity) and to use the findings from one method to help inform the other method (development).

Time:			
October 2016		*Focus group interview with five secondary school teachers*	
November December 2016		Developing questionnaires for teachers and students	
2017 February March		Qualitative validation of the questionnaires	
2017 April		Pretesting the questionnaires	
May 2017	Questionnaire for teachers	Time of the Questionnaire survey	Questionnaire for students
June, July 2017		MERGING DATA	

Figure 10 Research design

First, a focus group interview was held with the participation of five language teachers who work in a secondary school in Hungary's fifth largest city (see Appendix D). Two of them have been teaching for over 20 years while three started their career 2, 5 and 7 years ago. To gain an understanding on what role language exams play in their professional life and on how they influence their work, a semi-structured interview, consisting of six questions, was conducted. The aim of the interview was to get an overall picture regarding the situation of language exams and their role in public education so that ideas could be generated for the questionnaire. The interview was conducted in Hungarian. The term "language exam" refers to both the advanced level school leaving exam and the external language exams. The questions are as follows:

1. How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?

2. What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?

3. How do language exams influence your everyday work?

4. Do you motivate students by referring to the language exam?

5. What is the proportion of time you spent on developing the four skills?

6. Do you discuss the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?

7. What had the strongest impact on the way you teach now?

The aim of developing the questionnaires was to reveal and explore the relationships and interactions existing and working between the factors which exert an influence on teachers and students. Since teaching is an activity where both teachers and students are

involved, it was decided to develop two questionnaires; one focusing on teachers and another one scrutinizing students (Appendix E and F).

The development of the questionnaires included three stages: (1) reviewing the literature to identify the various factors affecting the appearance of washback (from the points of view of teachers and students); (2) writing questionnaire items addressing these very factors (3); and piloting and validating the questionnaires. We began with reviewing the relevant literature where, besides perusing the articles on washback, the literature on what factors affect the teaching practice of teachers was also reviewed. Synthesizing the results, the various factors exerting an influence on classroom practice were identified (see Tables 4 and 5). On the basis of the findings, two instruments were compiled consisting of 84 (teachers' questionnaire) and 78 (students' questionnaire) items. The novelty of this research lies in the fact that two different kinds of language exams are investigated within a single framework: the school leaving language exams (B1 and B2 levels) and the exams of the various, externally validated language examination systems operating in Hungary (levels B1, B2 and C1). The relevant items treat these two kinds of exams separately, that is, respondents have the opportunity to make a distinction in their answers according to the type of exam. As an example, the statement in item 13: 'The following exams function as important motivating sources for my students' must be answered according to the five different exam types. This, in the end, will make it possible to reveal the weight and importance of the different exams and also the relationships between them.

4.5.2. Validating the questionnaires

Having composed the individual items, they were assessed by two experts in the field of applied linguistics. They were asked to indicate, in the case of each item, whether they found it suitable regarding the objectives of the research and whether the wording was clear. After

modifying the items on the basis of the experts' opinion, the reliability and validity of the survey instruments needed to be established. This process includes the application of predominantly statistical methods. These procedures are able to establish construct or internal consistency within the instrument in question, using meticulous statistical methods to create coefficients, such as Cronbach's alpha, to prove that the instrument has achieved an acceptable level of reliability and/or validity. These methods help us decide whether the instrument systematically and properly measures the responses the participants give to the various items, whether the items appropriately cover the relevant content, whether they are scored or evaluated in a consistent way and whether they are answered consistently by the participants (Salkind, 2006).

However, it is also necessary to consider the cognitive validity of a given instrument. It may happen that participants respond to a particular item consistently, but fail to interpret the question or statement in the way the designer of the survey had in mind. Ultimately, it is the nature of the research instrument and the goals of the study that determine the most appropriate techniques for validation. Since our questionnaires are to be completed by hundreds of teachers and students, it is paramount that a case for its cognitive validity be established. We needed to know whether the respondents interpret our questions and statements the way we intended them to understand. To achieve this, we applied a technique that falls under the scope of Verbal Report Methods (VRM, Willis, Royston, & Bercini, 1991; Payne, 1994). We decided to apply a particular use of a VRM, the think-aloud session. In the framework of this method, respondents are asked to voice their thoughts as they complete a given task (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). This way we can find out why particular choices are made by observing what is happening and asking questions as the respondent interacts with the survey. Our think-aloud protocol was used between survey instrument development and deployment. There is no established protocol on how to conduct think-aloud sessions but

documentations on such cases provide us with some guidelines (Willis et al., 1991). On the basis of this we designed our think-aloud protocol to include the following steps:

1. Told respondents to voice any confusion or trouble they have when taking the survey.

2. Made it clear that the aim of this investigation is to evaluate the survey.

3. When a respondent struggled with a question/statement, asked them questions to clarify what they are thinking of.

4. Observed whether respondent re-read the question and whether they gave a complete answer.

5. Asked respondent, at the end, to reflect upon the instrument to see if anything seems confusing or if there was anything the respondent might add to it.

The relevant literature on the cognitive validation of a web-based survey instrument indicates that four or five participants will detect 80% of the problems (Virzi, 1992). We decided to apply a reiterative process: at first five respondents were involved in the think-aloud protocol. The survey instrument was then revised on the basis of their feedback, observations and suggestions they made during these sessions. After revising the questionnaire, additional sessions were conducted (with three more participants). The purpose of this reiteration was to make sure that 1) the changes have appropriately corrected the controversial items that emerged during the sessions, 2) no other important issues were found within the instrument. In case there were still issues identified by the respondents another round was organised.

When think-aloud feedback did not indicate new issues the survey was pilot tested including a sample of the target group that would eventually fill in the questionnaire. The purpose of pilot testing is to verify that no major issues emerged as respondent completed the survey and to justify that the items can provide us with useful data.

4.5.3. Teachers' questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire consists of six sections. **Section 1** elicits information on the background of the respondents. This part of the survey instrument provides us with an opportunity to categorize our respondents according to age, gender, qualification, experience as teachers and as examiners, place of work (location) and place of residence. It was especially important to differentiate between those who are examiners in the state system only and those who also work as examiners within an externally validated examination system. Similarly, it was vital to see to what exam respondents prepare their students for.

Section 2 of the questionnaire contains statements on *teachers' beliefs and attitudes* regarding the exam (12, 13, 15, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28), their *knowledge about the test* (11) and their *ways of assessment* (17, 18, 19, 20). This part of our survey instrument also contains 5 open-ended questions, of which three relate to washback (16, 25, 29), one (30) is about the selection of course books and one (31) is on beliefs.

The statements in **Section 3** refer to the variables found in the context surrounding teachers: *expectations of students* (32, 36, 37), *expectations of parents* (33, 38) *expectations of school* (34, 39) and *anxiety* (35, 40, 41).

Section 4 is about the way teachers teach as interpreted through the interrelation between exams and *teachers' autonomy.*

The statements in **Section 5** include items on the basis of which we can decide whether it is rather the *extrinsic* or the *intrinsic motivation* that characterizes the responding teacher.

In the final part, in **Section 6,** we adapted the items from the classroom observation study of Nikolov (1999). The aim of this part is to shed light on the actual classroom practice as self-reported by the teachers. The language exams − both the school leaving and the externally validated ones − are built on the principles of communicative language teaching,

therefore we are interested to what extent teachers see their practice moving towards this direction. Some of the items in this section can be grouped into three language teaching approaches. Naturally, we needed to define what we mean by language teaching approaches. The works of various researchers, including Damiani (2003), Canale and Swain (1980), Richards (2006), Tyler (2008) and White (1988) describe the main features of the two, most distinct approaches: the traditional (grammar-translation) method and the communicative language teaching approach. Items 63, 65 and 66 relate to the traditional approach (e.g.: grammar-translation and drills); whereas items 64, 70, 71, 72 and 76 are related to the communicative approach (e.g.: pair and group work). We decided to create a third group that includes items (68, 78 and 80). that relate specifically to an exam-focused approach(e.g.: practicing task types features by the exam)

Item 82 asks teachers to assess the strength of the various factors that affected the way they actually teach. The answer options may be grouped according to the following factors: early experience, teacher education, context, further training courses, students' expectations, teaching experience, resources/materials and exams.

Language teachers (N=22) from various secondary schools in Pécs filled in the pilot version of the questionnaire. The aim of this pretesting was to identify those items, especially within the group of items that are related to one factor, that, for some reasons, do not function properly. The following factors, each containing at least three items, were placed under analysis:

- attitude/beliefs;

- knowledge about the test;

- ways of assessment;

- expectations (of students, parents, school);

- teacher autonomy (way of teaching);

- intrinsic motivation; and

- extrinsic motivation.

The items in the factor 'ways of teaching' were not analysed as 4 out of the five items are open-ended questions. The statistical analysis revealed that some of the items did not work appropriately as in these cases the respondents' answers showed great inconsistency.

With respect to the factors 'ways of assessment' and 'expectations' no outlying items were detected.

Regarding the factor 'attitude/beliefs', item 14 (I keep account of my students who have taken a successful language exam.) was found not fitting with the construct of the factor, therefore it was deleted.

Concerning the factor 'teachers' autonomy' (way of teaching) two items were found not fitting: item 46: 'I think the following exams extend my scope as a teacher' and item 47: 'I think the available course books affect what and how I teach'. It was found the deleting these two items raised the degree of reliability concerning this factor.

Item 51 'The following exam means a motivation to me by giving (useful) feedback on my work." was found inconsistent with the other items within the factor 'intrinsic motivation', while item 58 'Besides the time I spent in the school my work as a teacher takes a lot of time.' and item 62 'It is important the society acknowledge my work as a teacher' were found not fitting with the construct of 'extrinsic motivation'.

Altogether 6 items were deleted due to malfunctioning and fit problems. Three items were paraphrased into positive statements and it was decided that two additional items needed to be written on the factor 'knowledge about the test'. The analysis also showed that using only four categories on the Likert scale, applied in the pilot version, is not able to provide the respondents with the chance to give elaborate and weighted answers. One reason for the

malfunctioning of the items deleted might have been that the four-point scale forced respondents to take sides. As a result, it was decided to use a 7-point scale. It gives respondents the opportunity to indicate neutrality and also to give more weighted answers. Table 7 shows the structure of the teachers' questionnaire's final version. Note that many statements refer to the five different exam types (intermediate and advanced level school leaving exams and B1, B2, C1 level external exams) and therefore generate five items (as explained above on p 85.). For the individual items constituting the various factors in the teachers' questionnaire see Appendix E.

TABLE 7

Structure of variables in the final version of the teachers' questionnaire

Section	Variable investigated	Item	Number of items
1	- background information	1-11	11
2	- attitude / beliefs	15, 16, 17, 23, 24, 25, 28, 29, 30	30
	- knowledge about the test	12, 13, 14	15
	- ways of assessment	19, 20, 21, 22	20
	- open-ended items	18, 27, 31, 32, 33	
3	- expectations of students	34, 38, 39	15
	- expectations of parents	35, 40,	10
	- expectations of school	36, 41,	10
	- anxiety	37, 42, 43,	11
4	- autonomy (ways of teaching)	44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49	30
	- open-ended item	50	
5	- intrinsic motivation	51, 52, 53, 54, 55	5
	- extrinsic motivation	56, 57, 58, 59	4
6	classroom practice (self-reported)	60-78	18
	- more traditional approach	60, 62, 63	3
	- more communicative approach	61, 67, 68, 69, 73,	5
	- exam-focused approach	65, 75, 77	3
7	Teacher individual variables:	79	
	- early experience	79	1
	- teacher education	79	2
	- further training courses	79	1
	- context	79	3
	- teaching experience	79	1
	- resources/materials	79	1
	- exams	79	1

93

4.5.4. Students' questionnaire

The students' questionnaire consists of five parts. **Section 1** elicits information on the background of the respondents: age, gender, foreign language proficiency, place of residence and the foreign language proficiency of their parents.

Using the items in **Section 2** of the questionnaire we intended to elicit information concerning students' *motivation,* the way they use *the language and* their *self-confidence*.

The items in **Section 3** refer to *extrinsic motivation* and how students use the information and the experiences they got as a result of having taken a language exam. This part contains five open-ended questions in order to get as much information as possible on how students utilize the information they gain.

The items found in **Section 4** treat the following variables: *what they know about the test* (33, 34, 38, 42), *what they think about the test* (37, 45, 46, 53, 56), *their expectation towards assessment* (39, 54), *their expectations* (41, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51), *anxiety* (52, 55, 57) and *learning* (35, 36, 40, 43, 44).

The items of **Section 5** refer to *what students say about how they are taught*. Items 57, 64, 65, 66 and 67 refer directly to washback. These items correspond to the items found in the teachers' questionnaire providing us the chance to compare the way teachers and students see the same situation that is classroom practice

Students (N=33) from different secondary schools in Pécs filled in the pilot version of the questionnaire. Similar to the teachers' questionnaire, the aim was also to identify those items, which, for some reasons, do not function properly. The following factors, each containing at least three items, were placed under analysis:

- intrinsic motivation;

- use of language;

- self-confidence;

- former exam experiences;

- what they know about the test;

- what they think about the test;

- expectations towards assessment;

- expectations towards the exam;

- anxiety;

- attitude towards learning;

- classroom practice.

The statistical analysis of the pilot questionnaire did not reveal any problems. For the reasons described in the case of the teachers' questionnaire the 4-point Likert scale items were also changed into a seven-point scale The analysis also showed that using only four categories on the Likert scale, applied in the pilot, is not able to provide the respondents with adequate chance to give elaborate and weighted answers. One reason for the malfunctioning of the items might have been that the four-point scale forced respondents to take sides. As a result, it was decided to use a 7-point scale. It gives respondents the opportunity to indicate neutrality and also to give more weighted answers. Table 8 shows the structure of the final version of the students' questionnaire. Note that many statements refer to the five different exam types and therefore generate five items (as explained above on p 85.). For the individual items constituting the various factors in the students' questionnaire see Appendix F.

TABLE 8

Structure of variables, students 'questionnaire

Section	variable investigated	item	number of items
1	- background information	1-9	9
2	- intrinsic motivation	21, 24, 25	3
	- use of language	12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20	7
	- self-confidence	14, 16, 22, 23	4
3	- former exam experiences (open items)	26 - 35	10
4	- what students know about the test	36, 37, 45	15
	- what students think about the test	40, 48, 57, 60	16
	- expectations towards assessment	41, 42, 58	15
	- student related expectations	50, 51, 52, 53, 54	25
	- anxiety	55, 56, 59, 61	16
	- attitude towards learning	38, 39, 43, 44, 46, 49	22
5	classroom practice (self-reported)		16
	- more traditional approach	62, 64, 65	3
	- more communicative approach	63, 69, 70, 71, 73	4
	- exam-focused approach	75, 76, 77	3

4.6. Procedures of data collection

4.6.1. Participants

Teachers were the participants of the first phase of the study while both teachers and students took part in the second phase. The relevance of the investigation made it necessary to access the widest possible group of respondents, both teachers and students. The responses of all those who teach in public schools and in private language schools, who are examiners at the advanced level school leaving exam and who work as examiners in the various accredited examination systems and who do not work as examiners were needed. In a similar vein, it was also crucial to reach as many students as possible. The responses of those who have already taken a language exam and were successful, of those who failed and also of those who have not yet attempted to take an exam were needed.

4.6.2. Qualitative data collection from teachers (Phase 1)

At the beginning of the survey, a focus group interview (for script see Appendix D) was held with the participation of five language teachers who work in a secondary grammar school in Pécs, a middle-sized Hungarian county town. Two of the participants were teachers of German and three of them teachers of English.

The semi-structured interview administered to them included the following questions:

1. How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?
2. What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?
3. How do language exams influence your everyday work?
4. Do you motivate students by referring to the language exam?
5. What is the proportion of time you spent on developing the four skills?
6. Do you discuss the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?
7. What had the strongest impact on the way you teach now?

4.6.3. Mixed methods data collection from teachers and students (Phase 2)

Teachers

Quantitative data were collected from Hungarian language teachers in the form of an online questionnaire (Appendix G and H). At first, access to language teachers needed to be ensured. All 59 Hungarian school districts were approached and permission was requested to access the schools under their authority via e-mail. Having received permission, the addresses of the primary and secondary schools were identified in each county with the help of the Internet. The request letter (Appendix C) containing the link to the questionnaire, was sent to the principals of 1,028 schools asking them to forward it to their language teachers. By the end of

the set deadline (end of May, 2017) 333 language teachers completed the questionnaire. The majority of them teach English, German, French, Spanish, Italian and Russian. The completion of the questionnaire was voluntary; teachers did not receive any remuneration for it.

Qualitative data was collected using seven open-ended questions. These questions were answered by approximately one third of the respondents. In the course of the inductive (qualitative) analysis of the interview data, the emergence of frequent and dominant themes was searched for.

Students

Quantitative data was collected from Hungarian students in the form of an online questionnaire (Appendix I and J). The request letters containing the link to the questionnaire was sent to two distinct groups of respondents: (1) approximately 20,000 young people received an e-mail with the request letter in it directly, with the help of two language examination systems (Euroexam, ECL) that provided the e-mail addresses of those candidates who took their language exams in 2016; (2) the letter sent to the teachers also included reference to the student's questionnaire and asked them to call the attention of their students to fill in the questionnaire. By the end of the set deadline (end of May, 2017) 1109 students completed the questionnaire.

Qualitative data was collected using five open-ended questions. In the course of the inductive (qualitative) analysis of the interview data, the emergence of frequent and dominant themes was searched for. Table 9 below shows the various data sources and their methods of analysis

Table 9

Data sources and methods of analysis

Data sources	Participants	Methods of analysis
Phase 1 Focus group Interview	3 EFL and 2 GFL teachers	content analysis (general inductive approach)
Phase 2 Administration of the teachers' questionnaire	333 teachers	descriptive statistics, multiple linear regression analysis, ANOVA, One-Sample T test, Paired – Sample T test,
Open-ended questions in the questionnaire		content analysis (general inductive approach)
Administration of the students' questionnaire	1109 students	descriptive statistics, multiple linear regression analysis, ANOVA, One-Sample T test, Paired – Sample T test
Open-ended questions in the questionnaire		content analysis (general inductive approach)

4.7   Procedures of data analysis

The research behind our dissertation applied a mixed methods (MM) approach. A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used in both the data collection and data analysis phase of this study. According to Bogdan and Biken (1998), the purpose of data analysis is to bring order, structure, and meaning to the accumulated data. This process is about uncovering patterns, identifying themes, and establishing categories. The review of the literature has made it clear that washback was a truly complex phenomenon which occurs at the systemic level as well as within the school and classroom contexts. As a result, it was decided that this methodology would be the best to capture the complexity of the phenomenon under investigation.

To analyse qualitative data, we applied a strategy referred to as the general inductive approach (Thomas, 2006). There was no hypothesis which would have preceded the interpretation of the responses. Data analysis involved several iterative steps. First it needed to be prepared for analysis, so the interviews were recorded and transcribed. This was followed by a rigorous and systematic reading, rereading and coding of the transcript to allow major themes and categories to emerge. The categories were then labelled and described. The

purpose of the interview was to get an insight into the appearance of washback of language exams in classroom practice of Hungarian language teachers. The emerging themes provided part of the framework on the basis of which the content of the questionnaire was to be developed. The same procedure was applied in the analysis of the responses given to the open-ended questions of the questionnaire.

The statistical analysis of data helps researchers plan, analyse, and interpret the results of their investigation. It can provide accurate information with respect to the issue under exploration. In the present study, the data were analysed using computer software Statistical Package for Social Sciences 23.0 for Windows. To analyse quantitative data, first it needed to be transformed and coded in order to be suitable for statistical analysis. Quantitative analysis in this study involved the following methods:

- multiple linear regression analysis was applied to reveal the connection between washback related factors (e.g.: beliefs/attitudes, ways of assessment, etc.) and self-reported classroom practice;

- multiple linear regression analysis was applied to reveal the connection between washback related factors (e.g.: beliefs/attitudes, ways of assessment, etc.), teacher ID variable (e.g.: experience, teacher education, context) and self-reported classroom practice;

- Paired sample T-test was carried out to find out if there are significant differences in the answers of teachers with respect to the exam types;

- Independent samples T test was applied to find out whether there are significant differences between the responses of teachers and students for the same statements;

- descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency counts, means, standard deviations, etc.) was employed to reveal the strength of the washback-related factors as well as the ID variables in the case of both teachers and students;

- ANOVA analysis was applied to analyse how the different exam types affect teachers of different languages.

Finally, the different types of data sources were synthesized and integrated; qualitative data (through the interview and the open-ended questions) was compared with the quantitative data (through the questionnaires) to find any possible patterns of agreement or disagreement. The aim of the synthesis was to reveal whether the results from the quantitative data analysis were congruent with those from the qualitative data analysis. The details of the data analysis procedure are reported in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Research questions, data sources and methods of their analysis

	Research questions	**participants**	**Data sources**	**Methods of analysis**
Phase 1	How do the different types of language exams (school leaving and external) affect teachers and students in the Hungarian context?	2 EFL and 3 GFL teachers	focus group interview	content analysis using general inductive approach
Phase 2	**TEACHERS** - What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams (school leaving and external)? - What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback and the classroom practice of secondary school teachers? - What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback, teacher ID variables and classroom practice of secondary school teachers? **STUDENTS** - What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams (school leaving and external)?	173 teachers 423 students	online questionnaires	descriptive statistics, multiple liner regression analysis, ANOVA, One-Sample T test, Paired –Sample T test, content analysis

4.8   Summary

In this section the reasons for the decision to apply a mixed methods research design was discussed and context and the participants of the present study along with the research questions were presented. The design and development of data collection instruments, together with the procedures of data collection and analysis employed in the research on the washback effect of different Hungarian language exams were presented. Figure 11 illustrates the procedures of data collection and the participants.
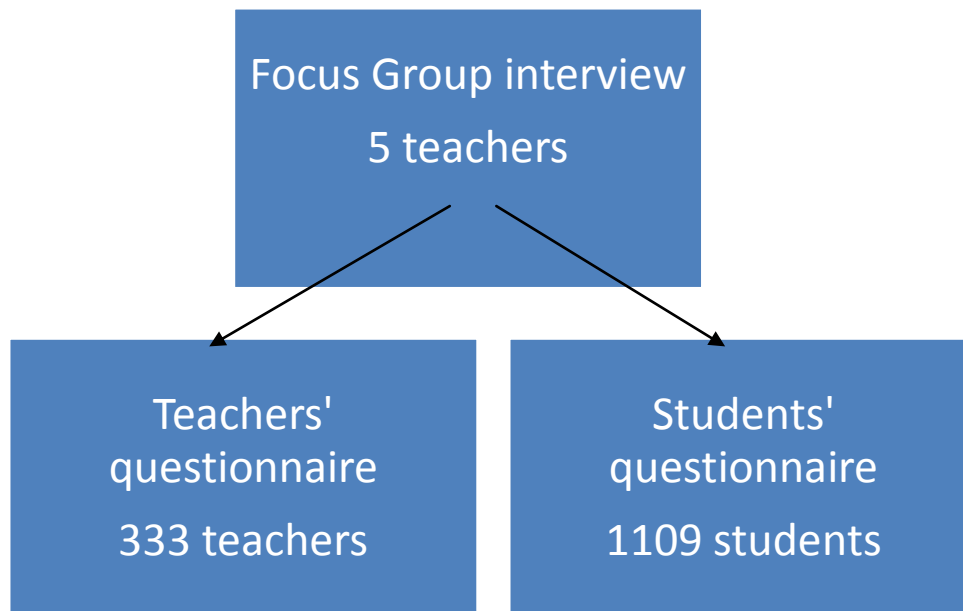
Figure 11 Summary of the data collection procedures and their participants

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Introduction

The methods of data collection have been detailed in the previous chapter. This chapter includes the results of our investigation with the aim of analysing the outcomes of the study and drawing conclusions from the findings. The chapter provides the analysis of the data collected in the framework of this research. It begins with the presentation and discussion of the qualitative findings derived from the focus group interview. This analysis answers the first research question. After that, the quantitative findings produced by the questionnaires are presented. The chapter is divided into two main sections according to the respondents of the questionnaires: teachers and students. After detailing the characteristics of the sample, the first section provides the analysis of the teachers' questionnaires according to the research questions. Finally, qualitative data produced by the open-ended questions of the questionnaire are presented. Section two – students' questionnaire – follows the same order of data analysis and presentation. Given the substantial amount of data generated by this study, the detailed description of all the findings lies beyond the scope of this thesis. As a researcher, I was obliged to limit the presentation of results to the findings that specifically addressed my research questions.

5.2 Teachers' views on the washback effect of language exams in Hungary

5.2.1 The interview

If we wish to understand how washback works, we need to consider both the educational context where the test or exam is used, and the characteristics of the participants, teachers and students. In order to get an overall picture regarding the situation of language exams and their role in public education, a focus group interview (for the script see Appendix D) was held on 22 September 2016 in a secondary school in Pécs, Hungary's fifth largest city. Five female

teachers took part in the interview, three of them were teachers of English and two teach German language. Two of the language teachers (Irén and Krisztina) have been teaching for over 20 years while three (Kincső, Flóra and Piri) started their career 2, 5 and 7 years ago (all names are pseudonyms). In their everyday life, they prepare their students for both school leaving and accredited language exams. One of the more experienced teachers also works as an examiner at the advanced level school leaving examinations. The aim of the interview was to gain an insight into the importance language exams have in relation to the professional life of language teachers in Hungary, so that ideas could be generated for the questionnaire. It was decided to apply a semi-structured interview format to allow ideas to emerge. On the basis of the literature on washback detailed in Chapter 2, the following topics were identified as possible fields to explore in the framework of the interview: exams and everyday work; exams and motivation; the conformity of the various types of exams; the knowledge of teachers/students with respect to the exams. As the interview unfolded seven questions were finally asked. These questions are as follows:

1.   How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?

2.   What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?

3.   How do language exams influence your everyday work?

4.   Do you motivate students by referring to the language exam?

5.   What is the proportion of time you spend on developing the four skills?

6.   Do you discuss the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?

7.   What has the strongest impact on the way you teach now?

To analyse the qualitative data this interview produced, a strategy, referred to as general inductive approach (Thomas, 2006), was applied. The analysis was not preceded by any hypothesis regarding the possible answers. The procedure of analysis consisted of iterative steps. The transcribed text was analysed by rigorous and systematic reading, rereading and coding in order to identify the major themes and categories embedded. The categories were then labelled and described. In the following, the outcome of the analysis is presented in the order the questions were asked.

1.   *How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?*

As a response to this question most of the participants mentioned the theme of constraint as related to passing a language exam. For students, a language exam appears to be an external necessity, something they have to get because it is expected from them. As Piri said "...the school forces them to do it...", "... they are under the influence of their parents, and they need the language certificate to get their degree". Kincső added that possessing a language certificate is "suggested by the media" and its importance originates from the present situation and current regulations. At the same time, the teachers also mentioned that for them language knowledge, being able to communicate in a foreign language, is more important than the certificate itself. The theme that emerged on the basis of what they said was that teachers seem to think that language exams appear in the form of external pressure or necessity affecting students' life.

2.   *What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?*

All of the participants insisted that the school leaving exam was more difficult than the accredited language exams. According to the existing regulation [Government Decree

100/1997 (VI. 13.) regarding the specifications of the school leaving exam], the level of the intermediate level school leaving exam is B1 and that of the advanced level is B2. The present regulations regarding the proficiency levels of accredited language exams (Government Decree 71/1998) stipulate that their levels should be aligned with the relevant CEFR levels of A2, B1, B2 and C1. This means that, in theory, there should be no difference between the levels of the school leaving and the accredited language exams, because their levels must be aligned with the relevant CEFR levels. In spite of this, the teachers repeatedly reassured one another that the advanced level school leaving exam (CEFR level B2) was more difficult than any accredited B2 level language exam. Krisztina said: „...on the basis of long years of experience... if they say the advanced level school leaving exam is on level B2, then the level of the accredited exams is between B1 and B2." They also believe that the reason why so many students opt to take the costly language exam instead of the free advanced level school leaving exam is that the former is easier to pass. Teachers believe that although in theory the school leaving and the external language exams should have the same level of difficulty, in reality the external exams are easier to pass.

3.   How do language exams influence your everyday work?

The first thing the participants mentioned in regard to this question, was the choice of the course books they use for teaching. In their experience, the exams strongly affect what course books they use, because they tend to choose those that they believe are able to prepare their students for the exam. By this, they mean that these books contain the task types featured in these exams and develop the skills necessary to possess in order to pass them. As Kriszti explained: "... when choosing a course book, the most important aspect is preparation." With respect to this, two of them (Kriszti and Irén) mentioned that by using these books, they are able to help students get acquainted with the requirements of the exam. The more experienced

teachers also added that they adjust their ways of assessment according to the exams' ways of assessment. Teachers believe that exams affect the choice of the course books they use and the ways of assessment they apply in class.

4.   Do you motivate your students by referring to the language exams?

Answering this question, the teachers mentioned that it depends on the individual student and that it does not work with everyone. As Flóra put it, "It is entirely up to the students, there are classes where there is no motivation at all." Kriszti repeatedly mentioned that they tend to bring their motivation from home, from their parents. By saying this, she confirmed the idea of strong expectation mentioned in connection with question 1. It seems that teachers do not consider motivation as part of their activities.

5.   What is the proportion of time you spend on developing the four skills?

Every respondent answered that they develop all four skills simultaneously, although the proportion of time they spend on them is not equal. Here, again, the issue of course books emerged: "...the course books are also built on this principle" (Kriszti). They mentioned that since the introduction of the two-level school leaving exam the time spent on developing listening skills has increased. Flóra said that "Remembering back to my high school years, we never practiced listening comprehension." Teachers believe that (smultaneous) skills-development is an important part of their job.

6.   Do you discuss the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?

There was no agreement among the teachers on this issue. The younger teachers (Piri and Flóra) explained that they decided not to use them, because it makes the better students overconfident and demotivates them. On the other hand, Kriszti, the most experienced teacher

said she regularly used these criteria for peer assessment, when students were asked to assess one another's work. Irén mentioned that although she did discuss these criteria with her students she only went into details with respect to written communication.

7. What had the strongest impact on the way you teach now?

Answering this question, the following were mentioned: negative early experiences as a learner (Piri); colleagues (Flóra); positive early experiences as a learner and the experiences she gained through teaching (Kriszti); her mentor teacher and colleagues (Kincső).

5.2.2 Discussion

The focus group interview exposed several issues that may be connected to both washback and teacher cognition. As we saw in Chapter 2, washback is related to teaching materials, curriculum and teaching methods (Cheng, 1997; 1999), the attitude of students towards learning (Biggs, 1995), the teaching and learning process (Hughes, 1989), and the participants in the teaching-learning process (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Messick, 1996). In the interview, reference has been made to the following areas: teaching materials (course books); the attitude of students (external constraint on them and motivation); the teaching and learning process (ways of assessment, skills development); and the participants (teachers, students, colleagues and parents). If we take Hughes' (1993) five conditions (see p. 38 in Chapter 2) that are necessary for the appearance of washback, we find that three of them were referred to either directly or indirectly in the interview. What teachers said revealed that students consider the results of the test important (2), they know the tests well (3) and there are available resources (4). Regarding Watanabee's (2004a; 2004b) five factors that affect washback (see p. 38 in Chapter 2) we can find reference to four of them: (1) with respect to test factors (e.g. the method of assessment, skills assessed) teachers talked about simultaneous skills development

and mentioned that their ways of assessment was affected by the assessment criteria of the test; (2) regarding prestige, frequent reference was made to how important students (and their parents) consider the exams; (3) regarding personal factors we saw how their opinion differed on certain issues (e.g.: sharing the assessment criteria with their students); (4) factors of the macro environment were mentioned when teachers talked about the constraints and the necessity students feel to pass a language exam.

When asked about the conformity of the levels of the school leaving and the external language exams, all teachers believed they were at different levels of difficulty, although in theory, these levels should be the same. Two interesting studies have been carried out to investigate the extent to which the various language exams are related to the CEFR levels. Analysing the tasks of the school leaving language exam, Dávid (2008) found that their level of difficulty is not clearly adjusted to the relevant CEFR level. He found level adjustment problems in the case of other language exams as well. In their small scale empirical study Szabó and Kiszely (2010) also found differences regarding the difficulty level of the various language exams. Although both studies have their limitations (e.g.: not enough data, small scale) it seems clear that language teachers have some basis to interpret the difficulty level of the various language exams in a subjective way. Another issue worth mentioning here, is that while the accredited language examination systems are legally obliged to carry out and record their standard setting procedures, similar regulations do not exist in the case of the school leaving exam. As a result we have no information on whether standard setting, as a procedure, is carried out in the case of the school leaving exams, or not and whether the test results achieved by students on the tasks are analysed statistically or not. Pajares (1992) pointed out that teachers' beliefs strongly influence their perception and heavily affect their behaviour and that is closely intertwined with knowledge (see p. 51. in Chapter 3). On the other hand, teachers' classroom practice is affected by their personal practical knowledge which, in turn,

is the result of their experiences as teachers and their reflections on these experiences (e.g., Beijaard & Verloop, 1996; Fenstermacher, 1994; Grossman & Shulman, 1994). Shavelson and Stern (1981) also suggest that there is a two-way interaction between thinking and classroom practice. In spite of the fact that according to the regulations mentioned above, there should be no difference in the difficulty level of the various exams, the interview exposed that teachers hold highly subjective beliefs on this issue and these may have their origin in their experiences as teachers.

In his article, Borg (2003) provide a list of contextual factors that influence classroom practice mentioning the psychological and environmental realities that include parents' requirements, colleagues, standardised tests and the availability of resources. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Wall (1999) and Wall and Horak (2006) also found that teachers stated that the expectations of students had an impact on the way they chose to teach. Students' expectations were also found to constrain the activities of teachers (Hawkey, 2006). The elements of context, the current regulations that make it obligatory for students to pass a language exam, were repeatedly mentioned by the teachers in the interview referred to it as pressure, necessity, a must.

Research show that exams, especially high-stakes ones, have a strong effect on the teaching materials teachers use, a phenomenon, known as "textbook washback" (Lam, 1993). Several researchers (e.g., Andrews, 1994; Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997) indicate that teachers tend to rely on exam textbooks and exam preparation materials. During the interview, teachers repeatedly mentioned that the (requirements of) exams strongly affect the course book they chose to teach from. Another feature which is closely connected to their course book choice is the task types contained by the given books. They said they tended to choose course book that prepare their students for the exam by offering the same task types as found at the exams. Three of the five teachers added that they compile their own quizzes and

tests according to the given task types. With respect to this, the research of Read and Hayes (2003), Sturman (2003) and Saif (2006) found that teachers tend to use practice tasks is class and rehearse specific item types. Nikolov (1999) also observed that the most frequent task types used in the lessons were typical language examination techniques used in the school-leaving exams. In their Sri Lankan study Alderson and Wall (1993) noted that that the newly introduced exam affected the way teachers designed their classroom tests by focusing on exam skills (e.g., reading and writing). Finally, there were significant differences between the opinions voiced by the teachers; one of them, for example, insisted the she did not discuss the assessment criteria with her students because it makes the good students lazy. She claimed that if a (good) student assumes that he/she has reached the level of proficiency described by the assessment criteria relevant to the level they are at, he/she will not make any effort to be diligent in class. Such differences may be traced back to the teacher ID variables mentioned already above in connection with beliefs. Studies by Green (2006) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) both found that teacher variables can be accounted for practices that cannot be traced back to test design features. Such differences may have their origins in teacher or institutional variables including teachers' beliefs and levels of professional training rather than in the influence of the test.

5.3 Teachers' questionnaire

5.3.1 Characteristics of the sample

As introduced in Chapter 4, a questionnaire survey was administered to teachers using an opportunity sampling procedures. 333 teachers filled in the questionnaire by the prescribed deadline (30 May 2017). In Hungary, it is the students and teachers at the secondary level of education who are most affected by the necessity of obtaining a language certificate, therefore we decided to narrow the number of respondents to those belonging to these two groups. As a

result, we decided to analyse the responses of the secondary school teachers only. The most

important statistical characteristics of respondents are shown by Tables 11, 12, 13 and 14.

Table 11

Distribution of teachers according to gender and years of experience

N = 172	*male*	*female*	*4 - 9*	*10 - 20*	*20 - 30*	*30+*
gender	5.8%	94.2%				
years of experience			8.7%	39.5%	30.8%	20.9%

Table 12

Distribution of teachers according to their place of work

N = 172	*place of work %*
town	41,9
county town	29,7
capital	28,5

Table 13

Distribution of teachers according to the languages they teach

N = 172			
Language	English	German	Other (French, Italian, Spanish, Russian)
Respondents (%)	59,9	16,9	23,3

Table 14

Distribution of teachers according to the types of exams they prepare their students for and whether they are examiners (in percentages)

N = 172	school leaving exam		levels of proficiency exams			yes %	no %	intermediate level	advanced level	do not work as examiners
	intermediate	advanced	elementary	intermediate	advanced					
exam types they prepare their students for (%)	83.2	64.6	27	89.2	56					
examiners at an accredited language examination system (%)						62.8	37.2			
level of school leaving exam they are examiners at (%)								48.8	49.4	1.7

5.3.2 What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams?

The literature on teacher cognition and washback reveals the various factors that shape the thinking and behaviour (classroom practice) of language teachers. In the questionnaire, we divided these factors into two groups that we named washback factors and ID variables. Washback is represented by eight factors: attitudes and beliefs towards and regarding the exam; feelings (anxiety, embarrassment, insecurity); knowledge of the test/exam; ways of teaching (through teacher autonomy); ways of assessment; and expectations (students, parents and school). As mentioned above, we decided to analyse the responses of the 172 secondary school teachers only. With respect to the teachers, we divided them into three groups: teachers who teach English, German and other languages (Table 15).

Table 15

Distribution of teacher respondents according to languages taught

Language	N	%
English	103	59.9
German	29	16.9
Other languages	40	23.3
Total	172	100.0

One of the aims of our investigation is to find out whether there is any difference between the washback effects of the various types of language exams. Do the school leaving language exams influence the classroom practice of teachers in a different way than the external, for-profit language exams? The reason why we are able to compare them lies in the fact that, as described in Chapter 4, the 2005 reform made the structure of the school-leaving exams very similar to that of the external language exams: e.g. it assesses the four language skills separately, it uses authentic materials and it has a new assessment system based on clearly defined assessment criteria. Regarding receptive skills, teachers are to follow a key while for productive skills, the performances of students are to be assessed according to detailed assessment criteria. The statements of the questionnaire regarding the exams were composed in a way that the answers had to be given according to each exam type. This made it possible to compare the possibly distinct washback effects of the various exam types and find out whether they work in a diverse way. The abbreviations of the exams types are shown by Table 16.

Table 16

The abbreviations used to refer to the various exam types

Type of Exam	Abbreviation
Intermediate level school leaving exam (B1)	ISLE
Advanced level school leaving exam (B2)	ASLE
Elementary level language exam (B1)	ELE
Intermediate level language exam (B2)	ILE
Advanced level language exam (C1)	ALE

To get a first glance of the situation, we applied descriptive statistics (Appendix K) and compared the means generated on the basis of the respondents' answers given to the eight washback factors (attitude and beliefs regarding the exam, feelings, knowledge of test, teacher autonomy, ways of assessment, and expectations of students, parents and school). We also applied a paired sample T-test (Appendix L) to find out whether there are significant differences in the answers with respect to the exam types. For secondary students the most important three exam types are the two school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) and the intermediate language exam (ILE). They either need to pass the intermediate level school leaving exam, as it is part of the obligatory school leaving examination, or try to obtain a language certificate, which can be achieved passing an ASLE or an ILE. As a result, we focused on these three exam types. In the questionnaire we used different scales: for some statements we wanted our respondents to take sides more decidedly so we used a four-point Likert scale, while in the case of other statements, to allow them to take a neutral stance, we used a seven-point Likert scale As a result of this, the scales needed to be harmonized, therefore in the tables below the means are represented in percentages of agreement with the statement.

Attitudes and beliefs

The statements within this factor concerned if teachers consider the exam useful, motivating and reliable, and whether they believe it is their job to prepare students for it. The analysis shows that ISLE and ILE function in a similar way. The washback effect of these two exam types is very similar which is also confirmed by the paired samples T-tests, which show that there is no significant difference (p=0,053) between the means of these two exams types. The same test shows significant differences when comparing the other exam types.

Table 17

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor attitudes and beliefs

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.73	0.59	0.75
STD. DEVIATION		0.11196	0.13203	0.11054
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p=1.000		
significance)	ILE	p=0.053	p=1.000	

Feelings (Level of anxiety)

The statements of this washback factor are related to the level of anxiety teachers might experience as a result of the exam. The means shown here are represented in percentages of agreement with the statements. First of all, it needs to be noted that the levels are not high. Table 18 below shows that teachers experience the highest level of anxiety in relation to ILE. Here we can find significant differences between the washback effects of the school leaving and the external exam. The level of anxiety connected to both types of school leaving exams is significantly different from that of related to the external language exam. This indicates that

the requirement or expectations that their students should obtain an intermediate level language certificate generates the highest level of anxiety.

Table 18

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor feelings

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.37	0.38	0.40
STD. DEVIATION		0.22838	0.22664	0.24626
DIFFERENCE (level of significance)	ISLE			
	ASLE	p=0.186		
	ILE	p<0.001	p=0.008	

Test knowledge

The statements within this washback factor refer to how well teachers know the exam, its parts, task types and assessment criteria. The data received show that the type of exam teachers know the best is the ISLE. There is significant difference between the knowledge of this exam types and the other two. It is also worth noting that the depth of knowledge regarding the two exam types that provide a language certificate is on exactly the same level, though lower than that connected to ISLE.

Table 19

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor test

knowledge

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.98	0.93	0.93
STD. DEVIATION		0.05973	0.13531	0.12223
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p<0.001	p=1.000	

Ways of assessment

The statements of this washback factor are about the degree to which teachers discuss the assessment criteria of the various exams with their students and whether they apply them in their everyday work. Our data show that teachers tend to use the assessment criteria of the ISLE most frequently. The differences between each exam types are significant

Table 20

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor ways of

assessment

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.93	0.80	0.86
STD. DEVIATION		0.12019	0.22803	0.16956
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p<0.001	p=0.005	

Teacher autonomy (ways of teaching)

The statements within this factor refer to the degree to which teachers feel that the exams affect what they teach, the way they teach and the materials they use for teaching. The results show that it is the ISLE that has the strongest influence of teachers' autonomy followed by ILE and ASLE. All differences are significant.

Table 21

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor teacher autonomy

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.75	0.66	0.71
STD. DEVIATION		0.12019	0.22803	0.16956
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	$p<0.001$		
significance)	ILE	$p<0.001$	$p<0.001$	

Students' expectations

This factor refers to the degree students expect their teachers to prepare them for the language exam as felt by teachers. Here, there is no difference between ISLE and ILE. Students would like to finish their secondary studies with either passing the language part of the school leaving exam or with having an external language certificate. There is no significant difference between the washback effects of these two exams.

Table 22

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor students' expectations

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.85	0.77	0.85
STD. DEVIATION		0.16278	0.22582	0.17106
DIFFERENCE (level of significance)	ISLE			
	ASLE	p<0.001		
	ILE	p=0.881	p<0.001	

Parents' expectations

This factor refers to the degree parents expect the teachers to prepare their children for the language exam as felt by teachers. Here we can see that the expectations of parents greatly differ regarding what exams they want teachers to prepare their children for. ISLE comes first, followed by ILE and ASLE in importance. All differences are significant.

Table 23

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor parents' expectations

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.94	0.80	0.89
STD. DEVIATION		0.11741	0.20661	0.17635
DIFFERENCE (level of significance)	ISLE			
	ASLE	p<0.001		
	ILE	p<0.001	p<0.001	

School expectations

This factor measures the degree schools expect their teachers to prepare their students for the language exam as felt by teachers. Our data reveals that it is the ASLE which is the most important for schools followed by ILE and ISLE.

Table 24

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor school expectations

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.79	0.88	0.84
STD. DEVIATION		0.23611	0.15418	0.20886
DIFFERENCE (level of significance)	ISLE			
	ASLE	p=0.006		
	ILE	p<0.001	p=0.006	

Conclusions

Analysing the means of the respondents' answers given to the eight washback factors, we tried to reveal what teachers think about the washback effects of three different exam types, ISLE, ASLE and ILE. Our data show that according to secondary school teachers, the intermediate school leaving exam stands out as having the strongest effect on their work. This is the type of exam they consider the most useful and reliable and this is what they have the deepest knowledge about. They tend to discuss the assessment criteria of this exam with their students and apply those in their everyday work the most frequently and this has the strongest influences on their autonomy as teachers. The difference between how teachers view the two different types of school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) is significant in every case except the level of anxiety generated by these two exams. The overriding prominence of ISLE can be explained by the fact that this is the exam type that every language teacher is involved with.

Of the three, this is the exam type which is administered, carried out and assessed by the teachers. At the same time however, it is the ILE which generates the highest level of anxiety in teachers. In this respect, this external exam type works in a significantly different way than the school leaving exams. This exam type (ILE) has the second strongest impact on teachers' work. Teachers regard it just as useful and motivating as ISLE (no significant difference) and the level of students' expectations regarding these two exam types are exactly the same. However, for the schools, it is the exam types that provide a certificate, ASLE and ILE, which have the greatest importance. In summary, we have a colourful picture with respect to these three exam types. ISLE has the strongest impact on teachers work though they are most worried about (their students passing an) ILE. According to teachers for students, ISLE and ILE are equally essential, for parents ISLE has priority while for the school ASLE occupies first place.

Results according to languages taught

We also looked into how the above three exam types affect teachers of different languages. To find this out, we applied ANOVA analysis (Appendix M). The results show that there are no significant differences in the way the different washback factors affect teachers of different languages. There was only one case where significant difference was detected: in the case of school expectations concerning ILE. Here, teachers of English and German feel that their schools express stronger expectations towards them, than teachers of other languages.

Table 25

Results of ANOVA analysis for the connection between exam types and languages taught

	Intermediate language exam (ILE)
Languages taught	level school expectations towards teachers to prepare students to take this exam (mean) (expressed in %)
English	12.04
German	11.96
Other languages	10.47
level of significance	***0.012***

Motivation, classroom practice and the ID variables

Regarding the level of their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, our data (Table 26) shows that the mean of teachers' reported level of intrinsic motivation is higher (mean: 0.85; std. deviation: 0.925) than that of the level of their extrinsic motivation (mean: 0.62; std. deviation: 0.140).

In the final part of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to judge their classroom practice. The statements regarding classroom practice can be grouped into three distinct approaches: traditional (e.g.: grammar-translation, drills); communicative (e.g.: pair-work, situations, etc.); and exam-focused (e.g.: practicing exam tasks). The respondents' answers indicating their type of classroom practice (Table 26) show the dominance of the communicative language teaching practice (mean: 0.79; std. deviation: .117) followed by the exam focused (mean: 0.77; std. deviation: 0.133) then the traditional grammar-translation approach (mean: 0.60; std. deviation: 0.124). Owing to the nature of the questionnaire, respondents had the opportunity to indicate their preferences with respect to more than one approach. The factors below consist of different number of items (statements in the questionnaire), therefore, in order to compare them, the scores have been transformed into

percentages. The % above the numbers indicates to what extent these factors characterise the responding teacher.

Table 26

Results of the descriptive statistics regarding motivation and classroom approach

Variable	Instrinsic motivation (%)	Extrinsic motivation (%)	Traditional Approach (%)	Communicative Approach (%)	Exam-focused Approach (%)
Mean	0.85	0.63	0.61	0.79	0.77

With respect to what had the strongest impact on the way they teach, teaching experience occupies first place, followed by resources and materials and further training courses (Table 27). In the case of this item, respondents were asked to indicate the strength of each of the effects below on a four-point Likert scale. Respondents were not asked to place these variables in order. They were asked to indicate the strength of their importance individually.

Table 27

Results of the descriptive statistics regarding the individual differences between teachers

VARIABLE	Teacher education (%)	Context (colleagues, school, society) (%)	Early experience (as learner) (%)	Further training courses (%)	Teaching experience (%)	Resources and materials (%)
MEAN	0.60	0.65	0.67	0.79	0.97	0.85

5.3.3 What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback and the classroom practice of secondary school teachers?

As we have seen, various factors shape the classroom practice of language teachers. One group of such factors is related to the exams and called washback. In our questionnaire, nine aspects of washback are represented: attitudes and beliefs towards and regarding the exam; feelings (anxiety, embarrassment, insecurity and shame); knowledge of the test/exam; ways of teaching (through teacher autonomy); ways of assessment; expectations (students, parents and school); and the available resources and materials. To find out how these factors are related to the classroom practice of language teachers, we needed to define what we mean by classroom practice. In the last part of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to self-report the way they think they tend to teach. Some of these statements can be connected to three different language teaching approaches: the traditional grammar-translation approach; the communicative approach; and a third one that we named exam-focused. In this last approach the focus of instruction is on preparing students for the exam by practising typical exam tasks. To find out what washback factors are related to a particular teaching practice, multiple linear regression analysis (Appendix N) was applied. The purpose of this analysis is to learn about the relationship between more than one independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable. In other words, this analysis makes it possible to examine how multiple independent variables are related to a dependent variable and helps answer the question "what is the best predictor of...". In our case, the predictor variables are the nine washback factors while the dependent variable is one of the three classroom practices. Applying this analysis, we can identify the best predictors, that is, the strongest washback factors that tell us why teachers tend to teach in a certain way. As a result of the analysis we can learn to what degree, presented in percentages, the independent variables are able to explain the variance of the dependent variable and also how this explained variance is divided among the individual

variables (Pratt index: Beta*r*100). As the statements regarding the washback factors were asked according to each exam type, we were also able to identify the differences the various exam types may produce. Table 28 shows the results of the regression analysis. Colours are applied to indicate the same factors. The minus sign (-) in front of the variable shows that the relation is reversed.

Table 28

Results of the multiple regression analysis between washback factors and type of classroom practice

Exam type	traditional approach	%	communicative approach	%	exam-focused approach	%
ISLE	anxiety	11.9	(-) anxiety	9.8	school expectations	8.2
	resources_materials	3.4			resources_materials	4.6
					(-) anxiety	1.6
ASLE	(-) assessment	8.7	beliefs	5.4	beliefs	11.9
	anxiety	4.7	(-) anxiety	2.9	resources_materials	4.4
	resources_materials	3.6			teacher autonomy	7.1
ELE	anxiety	6.1	(-) anxiety	4.04	(-) assessment	0.3
			(-) assessment	5.3		
			test knowledge	1.4		
ILE	(-) test knowledge	8.3	assessment	3.05	Students' expectations	11.3
	anxiety	4.7	(-) anxiety	4.00	teacher autonomy	5.6
	resources_materials	3.0	parents' expectations	2.8	resources_materials	4.5
ALE	(-) beliefs	8.7	test knowledge	5.4	beliefs	9.2
	(-) test knowledge	6.8				

Results

Here again we would like to concentrate on the three exam types that are the most important to secondary school students: the two school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) and the intermediate language exam (ILE). If we differentiate between the effects produced by the

school leaving exams and the intermediate language exam, regardless the type of teaching practice, we find the following washback factors:

- there is a higher level of anxiety connected to the school leaving exams;
- there are certain washback factors that only appear in connection with either the school leaving or the external language exams:
  - o the beliefs that the exam is useful and reliable and the expectations of the school appear only in the case of the school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE;)
  - o the washback factors related to the expectations of students and parents emerge only in the case of external exams.

If we analyse the functioning of the washback factors according to the three languages teaching approaches ignoring the types of language exams an interesting pattern emerges. (The statements constituting the individual washback factors in the teachers' questionnaire can be seen in Appendix E on p. 209). Experiencing a high level of anxiety, not knowing the exam well, not considering it useful and reliable and not discussing and applying its assessment criteria, as the minus sign in front of these variables indicates, are the best predictors that a teacher applies a traditional language teaching approach. Among these predictors anxiety has the dominant position. Having no anxiety (minus sign), regarding the exam useful and reliable, discussing and applying its assessment criteria and paying attention to the expectations of students and parents are predictors connected to the communicative way of language teaching. Here the lack of anxiety and the beliefs regarding the exam are the most dominant. Finally, paying attention to the expectations of students, parents and the school, experiencing no anxiety, considering the exam useful and reliable, and thinking that exams

have a strong influence on one's autonomy are connected with the exam-focused approach. With respect to this approach, the expectations have the highest value.

5.3.4 What possible connections may be revealed between the appearance of washback, teacher ID variables and the classroom practice of secondary school teachers?

The many factors that exert an influence on the classroom practice of language teachers also include, besides the washback factors discussed in the previous section, variables that are connected to the individual teacher. In our questionnaire survey we call them ID factors and they refer to the following: age; gender; early experience (as learners); place of work; exam experiences (whether one works as an examiner); teacher education; context (school colleagues, society); further training courses; teaching experiences; and motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic). To find an answer to the above research question, we also applied multiple linear regression analysis, however, this time we included the ID variables into the predictor variables (Appendix O). In this way we were able to measure that besides the washback factors what ID variables may emerge as predictors connected to a certain language teaching approach, and how strong their values are. As a result of the analysis, we now can learn to what degree, presented in percentages, the independent variables are able to explain the variance of the dependent variable and also how this explained variance is divided among the individual variables (Pratt index: Beta*r*100). Table 29 shows the results of the regression analysis. The minus sign (-) in front of the variable shows that the relation is reversed.

Table 29

Results of the multiple regression analysis between washback factors, teacher ID variables

and type of classroom practice

Exam type	traditional approach	Pratt index %	communicative approach	Pratt index %	exam-focused approach	Pratt index %
ISLE	anxiety	9.5	intrinsic motivation	10.07	school expectations	8.2
	(-) examiner	6.04	further training	7.1	resources_materials	4.5
	resources_materials	2.9	(-) anxiety	6.2	(-) anxiety	1.5
	early experience	3.1	(-) extrinsic motivation	0.9		
	further training	2.4	teaching experience	3.5		
	gender	2.05	Budapest	3.9		
ASLE	(-) assessment	8.2	intrinsic motivation	11.1	beliefs	11.8
	(-) examiner	5.5	further training	6.07	resources_materials	4.4
	anxiety	2.8	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.07	teacher autonomy	7.1
	resources_materials	3.06	teaching experience	3.6		
	early experience	3.02	Budapest	4.1		
	further training	2.6	beliefs	3.6		
	(-) county town	3.6				
	(-) Budapest	3.03				
ELE	(-) examiner	6.5	intrinsic motivation	12.3	resources_materials	4.45
	anxiety	4.6	further training	6.5		
	resources_materials	3.01	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.1		
	early experience	3.5	(-) school exp.	2.99		
	further training	2.5	Budapest	3.7		
	gender	2.05	teaching experience	3.1		
ILE	(-) test knowledge	8.2	intrinsic motivation	11.1	students' expectations	11.3
	(-) examiner	5.5	further training	6.7	resources_materials	4.4
	extrinsic motivation	3.3	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.05	teacher autonomy	5.6
	(-) county town	3.9	teaching experience	3.4		
	(-) Budapest	3.4	Budapest	4.3		
			assessment	3.5		
ALE	(-) beliefs	10.06	intrinsic motivation	11.2	beliefs	10.12
	early experience	2.88	further training	6.4	resources_materials	5.2
	further training	2.66	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.08		
	(-) examiner	4.5	teaching experience	3.4		
	(-) county town	3.89	Budapest	3.89		
	(-) Budapest	3.66	test knowledge	3.37		
	resources_materials	2.6				

Results

Here again we would like to concentrate on the three exams that are the most important to secondary school students: the two school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) and the intermediate language exam (ILE). If we differentiate between the effects produced by the

school leaving exams and the intermediate language exam, regardless the type of teaching practice, we find the following washback factors and ID variables:

- Some factors appear in relation to the school leaving exams only. These include anxiety, considering the exam useful and reliable (beliefs), early experience (as a learner), gender and the expectations of school. Amongst them anxiety is the dominant factor (ISLE: 9.5%; ASLE: 2.8%) followed by school expectations and beliefs.

- Three factors emerge connected to the ILE only. These are assessment that is, discussing the exams' assessment criteria with the students and applying them, students' expectations, and lack of test knowledge with the expectations of students (11.3%) being the strongest predictor.

- The eight other factors that emerge in relation to all three exam types have similarly strong effect on the classroom practice of teachers. These factors are the following: teaching experience; resources and materials; Budapest; county town; intrinsic motivation; extrinsic motivation; being an examiner; and ways of teaching (autonomy).

Here we have also analysed how the washback factors and the ID variables function as predictors with respect to what language teaching approaches teachers choose to follow. Our data show marked differences regarding what factors may be connected to a particular approach as predictors. (The statements constituting the individual washback factors in the teachers' questionnaire can be seen in Appendix E on p. 209). Experiencing anxiety, having powerful early experiences (as a learner), not discussing and using the exams' assessment criteria, living is small towns, not being an examiner, having extrinsic motivation only and not

knowing the exam emerge as those independent variables that explain why a teacher tends to apply the traditional grammar-translation approach. Amongst the predictors, anxiety and not being an examiner stand out as the most important ones. On the other hand, the predictors suggesting that teachers use a more communicative language teaching approach are the following: having no anxious feelings, possessing strong intrinsic motivation, improving knowledge at further training courses, relying on their own teaching experiences, living in big towns, knowing the exam, considering it useful and reliable and applying their assessment criteria in their everyday work. Amongst these factors intrinsic motivation seems to be the strongest followed by what they learn at further training courses. Finally, the variables that explain why teachers teach a language focusing on the exam preparation include the expectations of schools and students, considering the exams useful and reliable, believing that the exam has a strong influence on their autonomy and relying heavily of the available resources and materials.

5.4   Students' questionnaire

5.4.1 Characteristics of the sample

As introduced in Chapter 4, a questionnaire survey was administered to students using an opportunity sampling procedure. A total of 1,109 students filled in the questionnaire by the prescribed deadline (30 May 2017). The most important statistical characteristics of respondents are shown by Tables 30, 31, 32. As in Hungary, it is the students (and teachers) in secondary schools who are most affected by the requirement of obtaining a language certificate, we decided to narrow the number of respondents to those belonging to this group. As a result, we analysed the responses of 423 secondary school students.

Table 30

Distribution of students according gender and age and whether they passed an external

language exam

N = 423	*male*	*female*	*14 – 18*	*19 -23*	*24+*	*successful*	*unsuccessful*	*no language exam*
gender	33%	67%						
age			31%	41.1%	27.9			
language exam						82.7%	12.5%	4.8%

Table 31

Distribution of students according to their being bilingual and place of living

N = 423	*yes*	*no*	*village*	*town*	*county town*	*capital*
bilingual (speaks two languages as a mother tongue. see Appendix J)	8.2%	91.8%				
place of living			17..9%	33..9%	18..8%	29..3%

Table 32

Distribution of secondary school students according to year they attend

year	year of intensive learning	9	10	11	12
% of 423 students	2..6	6..1	12..3	24..6	54..4

5.4.2 What differences may be revealed with respect to the washback effect of the different types of language exams

According to the literature review (Chapter 2), exams might have an influence on students' attitudes towards learning, on their motivation, behaviour and the learning process. It has also been revealed that in addition to these, the language learning activities of students are also influenced by the following factors: what they know and think about the test; former experiences and expectations; their learning style and goals; and their feelings. In our questionnaire, similarly to the teachers' survey, we divided these factors into two groups that we named washback factors and individual differences. Washback is represented by six factors: what students think about the exam; what students know about the exam; their expectations of assessment; the expectations expressed towards them in relation to the exam; anxiety; and attitude towards learning. The three categories of individual differences we have formed include intrinsic motivation, use of the target language and self-confidence.

One of the aims of our investigation is to find out whether there is any difference between the washback effects of the various types of language exams. The statements of the questionnaire regarding the exams were composed in a way that the answers had to be given according to each exam type which made it possible to compare the possibly distinct washback effects of the various exam types and find out whether they work in a diverse way. At first, we analysed the descriptive statistics and compared the means generated on the basis of the respondents' answers given to the six student-related washback factors mentioned above (given the large size of the statistical tables please see them in Appendix P). Applying a paired sample T-test we checked if there are significant differences in the answers with respect to the exam types (Appendix Q). Similar to the analysis of the teachers' answers, here we also narrowed our investigation to the three most important exam types: the two school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) and the intermediate language exam (ILE). In the

questionnaire we used different scales: for some statements we wanted our respondents to take sides more decidedly so we used a four-point Likert scale, while in the case of other statements, to allow them to take a neutral stance, we applied a seven-point Likert scale As a result of this the scales needed to be harmonized, therefore in the tables below the means are represented in percentages of agreement with the statement.

What students think about the test

This factor is similar to the washback factor we use with the teachers called beliefs. The statements within this factor are concerned if students consider the exam useful and fair. The analysis shows that students consider ILE the most useful and fair followed by ASLE and ISLE. There are significant differences with respect to the three exams types.

Table 33

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor what students think about the test

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.69	0.71	0.73
STD. DEVIATION		0.20326	0.19890	0.18958
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p<0.001	p=0.006	

What students know about the test

The statements of this washback factor are related to how much students know the exams, the task types they apply and their assessment criteria. The results show that student are most familiar with the ILE followed by ISLE then ASLE. The differences are significant everywhere.

Table 34

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor what students know about the test

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.82	0.70	0.88
STD. DEVIATION		0.23005	0.2679	0.1891
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	$p<0.001$		
significance)	ILE	$p<0.001$	$p<0.001$	

Students' expectations of assessment

The statements within this washback factor refer to whether the teacher discusses the assessment criteria with their students and if students expect this to happen. Our data show that students expect their teachers to apply the assessment criteria of the ISLE most frequently, followed by ILE and ASLE. All differences are significant.

Table 35

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor students' expectations of assessment

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.74	0.61	0.63
STD. DEVIATION		0.23728	0.25027	0.24485
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	$p<0.001$		
significance)	ILE	$p<0.001$	$p=0.012$	

Student-related expectations

The statements of this washback factor are about the expectations expressed towards students to pass the exam and obtain a language certificate, from their parents, teachers, the school and their friends. Our survey shows that the strongest expectation is related to being able to pass the intermediate language exam. Regarding this washback factor there is no significant difference between ISLE and ILE. The other two differences are significant.

Table 36

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor student related expectations

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.75	0.59	0.76
STD. DEVIATION		0.22146	0.23685	0.19795
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p=0.054	p<0.001	

Anxiety

The statements within this factor refer to the degree of anxiety students may experience related to the exams. The results show that it is the ASLE which generates the highest level of anxiety, though the values are closer to one another. All differences are significant.

Table 37

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor anxiety

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		.48	.51	.49
STD. DEVIATION		0.25431	0.25873	0.25418
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p=0.022	p=0.011	

Attitude towards learning

This factor includes statements regarding how students see the language teaching activities connected to their exam preparation and whether they consider their preparation and the materials used effective for that purpose. Our results tell us that these statements characterize the ISLE the most significantly followed by ILE. All differences are significant.

Table 38

Results of the descriptive statistics and Paired Samples T-test for the washback factor attitudes towards learning

EXAM TYPE		ISLE	ASLE	ILE
MEAN		0.68	0.59	0.65
STD. DEVIATION		0.17607	0.17607	0.17607
DIFFERENCE	ISLE			
(level of	ASLE	p<0.001		
significance)	ILE	p<0.001	p<0.001	

Conclusions

Our data regarding the means of the respondents' answers given to the six washback factors show how, according to secondary school students, the washback effects of three different exam types (ISLE, ASLE and ILE) function. The results show that students consider ILE as the exam which is able to assess their language knowledge in the most fair and effective way providing them with useful feedback. Students also know this exam type the best. According to our data students report a significantly higher level of knowledge with respect to ILE than to ISLE. At the same time, however, they expect their teachers to use the assessment criteria of the school leaving exams primarily. Regarding the expectations expressed towards students, there is no difference between ISLE and ILE. Students are expected to pass either ISLE, or ILE. Surprisingly, the exam type that generated the highest level of anxiety is ASLE. Finally, students think that their teachers prepare them for the ISLE mainly.

To sum it up, there seems to be a marked difference regarding how the various aspects of the washback effect of the school leaving and the external language exam function. The external language exam seems to have a better face validity than the school leaving exams, because students know and consider them better. But it is the school leaving exam types that generate more anxiety in students who also expect their teachers to use the assessment criteria of these exams in their everyday work and report that their teachers prepare them mainly for these exams.

5.5 The classroom practice of language teaching as seen by secondary school teachers and students

As we have seen in the previous chapters, the various types of language exams function in different ways when it comes to exerting their washback effect on teachers and students. As the focus of our investigation is how the classroom practice itself is affected, it is worth

examining how teachers and students view the instructional activities related to language teaching. The final part of both the students' and the teachers' questionnaire contained statements regarding the classroom practice of language teachers that could be grouped into three distinct approaches: the traditional grammar-translation, the communicative, and a third one that we called exam-focused approaches. Teachers and student were asked to judge how often the activities mentioned by the statements take place in the classroom. As we wanted our respondents to take sides we decided to apply a four-point Likert-scale here. In the case of the first such statement, for example, both students and teachers needed to assess how often the teacher uses his mother tongue during an FL lesson (an approach associated with communicative teaching). Although the number of statements is not the same in the two survey instruments, there are sixteen statements whose content is exactly the same. This made it possible to compare the frequencies provided by the two distinct groups of stakeholders and, using an Independent sample T test (Appendix R), find out whether there are significant differences between the answers [Sig. (2-tailed)]. Consequently, we can learn how differently the two groups see the same situation. Table 39 shows the results of this analysis.

Table 39

Comparison of classroom practice by teachers and students (1- never; 2 - rarely; 3 - often; 4 – very often)

Statement During the lesson, how often		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2- tailed)
does the teacher speak in Hungarian?	teacher	172	2..18	0..579	0..044	
	student	423	2..69	0..870	0..042	p<0.001
do you work in pairs?	teacher	172	3..33	0..691	0..053	
	student	423	2..95	0..854	0..042	p<0.001
do you practice grammar rules?	teacher	172	2..86	0..728	0..056	
	student	423	3..13	0..762	0..037	p<0.001
do you translate sentences and texts?	teacher	172	2..25	0..710	0..054	
	student	423	2..70	0..961	0..047	p<0.001
are there tasks that students find interesting?	teacher	172	3..37	0..552	0..042	
	student	423	2..88	0..902	0..044	p<0.001
do you prepare especially for the exam?	teacher	172	2..63	0..879	0..067	
	student	423	3..32	0..838	0..041	p<0.001
do you have a feeling of success?	teacher	172	3..39	0..524	0..040	
	student	423	3..34	0..810	0..039	p=**0..382**
do you work in groups?	teacher	172	2..94	0..781	0..060	
	student	423	2..68	0..998	0..049	p<0.001
do students speak in the target language?	teacher	172	3..45	0..605	0..046	
	student	423	3..18	0..831	0..040	p<0.001
do you play games?	teacher	172	2..94	0..715	0..055	
	student	423	2..22	0..953	0..046	p<0.001
do you read authentic texts?	teacher	172	2..94	0..750	0..057	
	student	423	3..09	0..946	0..046	p=0..034
do you role-play everyday situations?	teacher	172	3..16	0..670	0..051	
	student	423	2..50	0..988	0..048	p<0.001
do you specifically practice listening comprehension tests?	teacher	172	3..36	0..656	0..050	
	student	423	3..24	0..750	0..036	**p=0..055**
does the teacher apply task types similar to those of the various language exams?	teacher	172	3..47	0..616	0..047	
	student	423	3..33	0..837	0..041	p=0..031
does the teacher motivate you by referring to the language exams?	teacher	172	3..19	0..728	0..056	
	student	423	2..99	0..946	0..046	p=0..004
do the language exams generate anxiety in you?	teacher	172	2..39	0..737	0..056	
	student	423	2..04	1..014	0..049	p<0.001

Table 40

The average value of statements belonging to a given instructional approach

	Traditional approach	Communicative approach	Exam focused approach
Teachers (mean)	2.43	3.16	3.09
Students (mean)	2.84	2.70	3.21

Our results show that when it comes to judging their classroom practice, teachers think they teach in a less traditional and more communicative way, whereas students think it is the other way round; the language teaching approach of their teachers is more traditional and less communicative. Students also believe that teaching is more exam-focused than what teachers think about the same issue. As in the case of the statements belonging to a given approach, the differences between the opinions of the two groups are significant we can assume that significant differences exist between how teachers and students view the classroom practice of secondary school teachers on the whole. There are two exceptions, though, that of experiencing success in class and practicing specifically listening comprehension tests.

In Chapter five we presented the results of our two questionnaire surveys (teacher and student). The data gathered reveal the interactions between the influence of exams, teaching practice and the opinions of students and teachers. It has been found that it is the intermediate level school leaving exam which exerts the strongest influence on both students and teachers. At the same time, however, the externally validated B2 level language exam also possesses a strong influence which appears mainly in the form of students' and parents' expectations. In Chapter 6 we are going to discuss the above results in the framework of the complex dynamic systems theory.

Chapter 6 Discussion

6.1   The washback effects of language exams within the complex, dynamic system of language teaching

6.1.1 The complex dynamic systems framework

The teaching of a foreign language is a multifaceted activity. As mentioned in Chapter 1, language is an open system existing in a state of constant change and evolution. Consequently, the same feature characterizes the teaching and learning of language. This makes it possible for us to apply the theoretical framework of system theories with the purposes of analysing and interpreting the various phenomena in connection with language teaching and learning. The most important characteristics of complex, dynamic systems include the following features: they consist of a great number of components; these components are all related to and in interaction with one another; they are nonlinear as an effect within them may be disproportionate to a cause, therefore its behaviour cannot be reduced to a set of components that interact in a simple and linear way; they are highly sensitive to initial conditions; they are open meaning that they are in constant interaction with their environment; they are feedback sensitive and able to reorganise themselves as a result; and finally, sensitivity to feedback also makes these systems adaptive. One of the components within the complex and dynamic system of language teaching is the language teacher himself with his multifaceted individual disposition (Borg, 2003). Social psychology has revealed that environmental and situational elements are able to influence the intentions of socially situated individuals who, on the other hand, may not be aware of this impact. If we intend to understand the behaviour of an individual or a system this individual is part of, we need to

look into both the environmental factors that make up the behaviour of that particular system and the interactions between these components and between the components and the environment.

Using our questionnaire, we treated foreign language education at secondary level as a complex and dynamic system and tried to find out what components, within this system, have an influence on the classroom practice of Hungarian secondary school teachers. On the basis of the literature on washback, teacher cognition and teacher motivation, we identified 20 components (factors) that are all in interaction with one another and shape teaching practice. These factors can be divided into two groups: nine factors are related to washback; and eleven factors are related to the individual teacher. In our investigation we named the first group washback factors and the second group ID variables. The factors related to washback include the following: (1) attitudes and beliefs towards and regarding the exam; (2) feelings in connection with the exam (anxiety, embarrassment, insecurity and shame); (3) ways of assessment; (4) knowledge of the test/exam; (5) ways of teaching (through teacher autonomy); (6,7,8) expectations (students, parents and school); and (9) resources, materials The teacher-related ID variables are as follows: (1) age; (2) gender; (3) place of work; (4) exam experience; (5) early experience; (6) teacher education; (7) context; (8) further training courses; (9) teaching experience; (10) extrinsic motivation; (11) intrinsic motivation. In order to find out how these components interact with one another and shape classroom practice we applied a statistical method called multiple regression analysis. To be able to carry out this analysis we needed to identify what we mean by classroom practice. The final section of the questionnaire contained statements that could be connected to three different language teaching approaches: the traditional grammar-translation approach; the communicative approach; and a third one that we named exam-focused. Respondents were asked to judge their own classroom practice on the basis of these statements.

The method we applied, multiple linear regression analysis, is able to reveal what relationships exist between the independent or predictor variables and the dependent or criterion variable. With the help of this analysis we were able to identify the best predictors, that is, the strongest and most influential factors – let them be washback factors or ID variables - that suggest why teachers tend to teach in a certain way. We can also learn how strongly an independent variable is able to explain the variance of the dependent variable, or if we have more than one predictor, how this explained variance is divided among the individual variables (Pratt index: Beta*r*100). The statements regarding the washback factors were written in a way that respondents needed to answer them according to each exam type (intermediate and advanced school leaving exams, and elementary, intermediate and advanced level external language exams), so we were also able to identify the differences the various exam types may produce. To sum it up, our model of foreign language teaching (at the secondary level in Hungary) treated as a complex and dynamic system consisted of the following components: nine washback factors; eleven ID variables; three approaches of classroom practice; and five different types of language exams.

6.1.2 The divergent functioning of washback factors according to the type of exam

In the first regression analysis model we included only the washback factors and left out the ID variables, because the focus of our investigation at this stage was to learn how the exam-generated washback factors function. When analysing the results, we decided to focus on the three exams that secondary school students and teachers are most affected by: the two school leaving exams (ISLE and ASLE) and the intermediate language exam (ILE). First, we compared the behaviour of washback factors according to the school leaving and the external

language exams and our results show that they work in a different way. Table 41 shows the results of the analysis we build our discussion upon.

Table 41

Results of the multiple regression analysis of washback factors and classroom practice restricted to ISLE, ASLE and ILE

Exam type	traditional	Pratt index %	communicative	Pratt index %	exam-focused	Pratt index %
ISLE	anxiety	11.9	(-) anxiety	9.8	school expectation	8.2
	resources_materials	3.4			resources_materials	4.6
					(-) anxiety	1.6
ASLE	(-) assessment	8.7	beliefs	5.4	beliefs	11.9
	anxiety	4.7	(-) anxiety	2.9	resources_materials	4.4
	resources_materials	3.6			teacher autonomy	7.1
ILE	(-) test knowledge	8.3	assessment	3.05	students' expectations	11.3
	anxiety	4.7	(-) anxiety	4.00	teacher autonomy	5.6
	resources_materials	3.0	parents' expectations	2.8	resources_materials	4.5

As we can see, the school leaving exams, especially ISLE, tend to generate a higher level of anxiety than the external language exam. This is somehow surprising as the results of the descriptive statistics (see paragraph 5.3.2, p 113.) show that teachers attach the highest level of their anxiety to ILE. It is, however, the special Hungarian context which may shed light on the contradiction of these findings. Table 42 below shows the number of students who took the three exam types in question in the year 2016.

Table 42

Number of students taking the school leaving and the intermediate language exams in English and German in 2016

Type of exam	English	German
school leaving language exam, intermediate level (ISLE)	52 260	17 068
school leaving language exam advanced level (ASLE) *(recognized as B2 level language exam)*	11 001	2 551
External language exam, intermediate level (ILE) (B2)	79 348	24 132

Here we can see that the overwhelming majority of students take either the ISLE or the ILE. As ILE is external, teachers might feel they have less influence on shaping their students' results and this uncertainty has the potential to generate anxiety, as is revealed by the descriptive statistics. In addition, this is the exam type (together with ASLE) which has the greatest importance with respect to entering into and getting a degree in higher education. On the other hand, looking at the number of students who take the school leaving exams we can see that a much higher number opt to take the ISLE, five times as many as the ASLE. This is the exam that everyone, including those who do not even want to take an ILE, must pass, which creates an enormous pressure on language teachers and students. These reasons might explain why anxiety, as a predictor, is connected to the school leaving rather than to the external exam.

With respect to anxiety, it is only the level which differs according to the exam types. There are, however, certain washback factors which are connected exclusively to either one or the other exam type. The washback factors of beliefs (considering the exam useful and reliable) and of school expectations emerge in connection with the school leaving exams only. This is in harmony with the results of our descriptive analysis which revealed that according to teachers it is ISLE that they consider and know the best.

The washback factors that emerge in connection with the external, intermediate language exam only, are test knowledge (or the lack of it as the minus sign indicates), expectations of students and parents, with students' expectations being very strong and ways of assessment. Owing to the Hungarian context, it seems that the externally validated language exams, which provide students with a language certificate, have a higher value for both students and parents than any of the school leaving exams. The fact that teachers also use the assessment criteria of this exam with their students confirms its importance.

To sum up, the divergent functioning of the school leaving and the external language exams the following can be stated: the school leaving exams affect the classroom practice of teachers mainly through the anxiety they generate, through the beliefs teachers develop in connection with them and through the expectations of the school, while the external language exams influence teachers via the expectations of students and parents.

6.1.3 The divergent functioning of washback factors according to the three instructional approaches

The results of our multiple regression analysis also tell us what predictors are associated with the three different instructional approaches, the traditional, the communicative and the exam focused. Here anxiety (and the lack of it as suggested by the minus signs) appears to be the most important factor. As Table 41 indicates teachers who do experience a high level of anxiety tend to teach in a traditional way, while the lack of this feeling is connected to those teachers who use either a communicative or exam-focused practise. Since both the school leaving and the external language exams follow a communicative language testing tradition, we have good reason to believe that teachers who apply these approaches tend to teach in a more communicative way and the only difference lies in the proportion of exam tasks they use during the lesson. The results also show that if a teacher neither discusses the assessment

criteria with his students nor applies them in class, and does not know the exam well he tends to teach in a more traditional way, too. The key issue here is the lack of knowledge about the exam, since it can explain why they do not apply its assessment criteria. It seems that teachers who have little knowledge of the exam(s) decide to teach in the traditional way.

On the other hand (see Table 41), experiencing no anxiety, regarding the exam useful and reliable, using its assessment criteria and paying attention to the expectations of school, parents and students are those washback factors which predict that a teacher's classroom practice is more communicative and exam-focused. There is one factor, teacher autonomy, which is connected to only the exam-focused approach. This, however, is very logical: those teachers focus on exam preparation, who believe that an exam has a strong influence on their autonomy as teachers (on what they teach, how they teach, and what they teach from).

The above results confirm what cognitive psychology has already pointed out, that there is a relationship between what we think, know and believe in and what we actually do. In the case of teachers, their beliefs or belief systems have central significance. Amongst the list of assumptions regarding teachers' educational beliefs Pajares (1992) came up with (see paragraph 3.1.2, p 51.), we can find that knowledge and beliefs are intertwined and form a filter through which teachers make sense of the world including their work. Borg (2003) mentions the important role of the environmental realities in affecting classroom practice. The results of our regression analysis show that the washback effect of language exams becomes apparent through the beliefs and feelings teachers develop, the knowledge (including knowledge about the exam) they possess and the contextual realities (expectations of schools, parents and students) that surround their work.

6.1.4 The divergent functioning of the washback factors and teacher ID variable according to the type of exam

Expanding our focus of investigation beyond the nine washback factors we also included the eleven teacher ID variables into our second regression analysis model. Table 43 shows the results of the analysis we build our discussion upon.

Table 43

Results of the multiple regression analysis of washback factors, teacher ID variables and classroom practice restricted to ISLE, ASLE and ILE

Exam type	traditional	Pratt index %	communicative	Pratt index %	exam-focused	Pratt index %
ISLE	anxiety	9.5	intrinsic motivation	10.07	school expectations	8.2
	(-) examiner	6.04	further training	7.1	resources_materials	4.5
	resources_materials	2.9	(-) anxiety	6.2	(-) anxiety	1.5
	early experience	3.1	(-) extrinsic motivation	0.9		
	further training	2.4	teaching experience	3.5		
	gender	2.05	Budapest	3.9		
ASLE	(-) assessment	8.2	intrinsic motivation	11.1	beliefs	11.8
	(-) examiner	5.5	further training	6.07	resources_materials	4.4
	anxiety	2.8	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.07	teacher autonomy	7.1
	resources_materials	3.06	teaching experience	3.6		
	early experience	3.02	Budapest	4.1		
	further training	2.6	beliefs	3.6		
	(-) county town	3.6				
	(-) Budapest	3.03				
ILE	(-) test knowledge	8.2	intrinsic motivation	11.1	students' expectations	11.3
	(-) examiner	5.5	further training	6.7	resources_materials	4.4
	extrinsic motivation	3.3	(-) extrinsic motivation	1.05	teacher autonomy	5.6
	(-) county town	3.9	teaching experience	3.4		
	(-) Budapest	3.4	Budapest	4.3		
			assessment	3.5		

The first major difference we notice in comparison with our previous table is the domination of ID variables. With the exception of the exam-focused approach in each case

there are at least three times as many ID variables as washback factors among the predictors. Their strength, presented in percentages, also surpasses that of the washback factors. This tells us that washback has a secondary importance, it is one of the many factors, which affect classroom practice. The ID variables appearing in this model, the experiences of teachers, their place of work, training and motivational dispositions together with the contextual elements (expectations and resources available) seem to exert a much heavier influence on the way they teach than the washback effect of the language exams.

If we compare the washback factors and ID variables connected to the two major exam types (school leaving and external), we can see that there are some predictors that emerge only in connection with certain exam types. The washback factors of anxiety, beliefs and school expectations and the ID variables of early experiences (as learners) and being an examiner (exam experience) appear with respect to the school leaving exams only. The washback factors of test knowledge (or the lack of it as the minus sign indicates) and student's expectations appear in connection with the external exam only. The picture we get here is somewhat similar to the results we got on the basis of our previous table, where school expectations and beliefs also belonged to the school leaving exams only. This confirms our claim that the two school leaving exam types (ISLE and ASLE) exert their washback effect primarily through the teachers' beliefs and school expectations. The data in this second, extended table shows that teachers consider these exams, especially the advanced level school leaving exam, useful and reliable, they think they can motivate their students with them and suggest that their students should take these exams. Schools also expect their teachers to make their students able to pass these exams. The two ID variables, early experience and exam experience, are connected to the school leaving exams only with respect to the traditional approach.

There are no teacher ID variables that are connected solely to the external exams. The two washback factors that emerge in connection with this exam type only are the same as in our first table: test knowledge (or the lack of it) and students' expectations. This also corroborates our claim that the external intermediate language exam exerts its washback effect through these two washback factors: how well (or how little) teachers know this exam and how strong the students' expectations are towards them in this relation.

In addition to the above mentioned washback factors and teachers ID variables, the following components in our regression model can be connected to both exam types: teacher autonomy (washback factor); and intrinsic motivation, the lack of extrinsic motivation, further training courses, and teaching experiences (ID variables). There is no significant difference with respect to the degree these independent variables are able to explain the variance of the two exam types.

6.1.5 The divergent functioning of the washback factors, teacher ID variables according to the three instructional approaches

Similar to our previous table, anxiety has a central role in this table, too. High level of anxiety appears only in connection with the traditional approach. Not knowing the exam well and (consequently) not discussing and using its assessment criteria also predicts that a teacher tends to apply the traditional, grammar-translation method. Considering the ID variables, not being an examiner (exam experience), early experiences (as learners), and having extrinsic motivation emerge only in relation to this approach, too. Participating in further training courses and relying on the available resources and materials are connected to the approach too, but the variance they can explain is smaller than in that of the other two approaches. Teachers belonging to this group also tend to work in smaller settlements in the countryside.

The predictors that are connected to communicative classroom teaching show a very clear picture. Of the ID variables intrinsic motivation and teaching experience appear only in connection with this approach, with intrinsic motivation as the strongest component. Believing that the exam is useful and reliable and discussing and using its assessment criteria are the two washback factors emerging here.

Expectations (school and students), the available resources and materials, (the restriction of) teacher autonomy and believing that the exam is useful and reliable are those factors that can be connected to the exam-focused approach. It is interesting to see that there are no ID variables among the predictors explaining the variance of this approach.

6.1.6 Conclusions

The results of our two tables (Table 41 and 43), developed on the basis of multiple regression analysis, show that of the 20 components influencing the classroom practice of Hungarian language teachers at the secondary level 18 appear in either one or both of the two models. All nine washback factors emerge, of which anxiety has the strongest influence followed by beliefs, and the expectations of students and school. Regarding the teacher ID variables two of the eleven variables, age and teacher education, never emerge, while among those that do appear, intrinsic motivation seems the most important followed by further training courses and exam experience. Tables 43 and 44 below summarize those washback factors and teacher ID variables that are connected *exclusively* to a type of exam or to an instructional approach.

Table 44

Washback factors and teacher ID variables connected exclusively to a type of exam

	Washback factors	**ID variables**
School leaving exams (ISLE, ASLE)	- high level of anxiety - beliefs (exam is useful and reliable) - school expectation	- early experience (as learner) - exam experience (being an examiner)
External, intermediate language exam (ILE)	- test knowledge - student expectation - parent expectation	- no ID variable can be connected exclusively to the external exam

Table 45

Washback factors and teacher ID variables connected exclusively to an instructional approach.

	Traditional approach	**Communicative approach**	**Exam-focused approach**
Washback factors	- high level of anxiety - not knowing the exam well - not using its assessment criteria	- no anxiety - parents' expectations	- school expectations - teacher autonomy
Teacher ID variables		- intrinsic motivation - teaching experience	

The aim of our investigation was to find what factors, components, predictors, or variables have an influence on the classroom practice of language teachers at the secondary level in Hungary. We developed a matrix with four angles: washback factors, ID variable, language teaching approaches and language exam types. Treating our matrix as a complex

153

dynamic system we intended to show how the various components interact with one another and reveal those factors that belong exclusively to a particular exam type or teaching approach. In conclusion, the following may be stated:

The two exam types (school leaving and external) affect teachers in a slightly different way. On the one hand, both exam types influence teachers through their feelings, through the way they discuss and use assessment criteria of the exams, and through restricting their autonomy as teachers. On the other hand, however, there are certain washback factors that can be connected only to one type of exam. The school leaving language exams (ISLE and ASLE) exert their influence (washback effect) on the work of teachers through generating high level of anxiety, through what teachers think about the exam and through the expectations of the school. The washback effect of the external intermediate language exam influences the work of teachers through the knowledge (or the lack of it) that they have about the exam and through the expectations of students and parents.

As mentioned above, nine of the eleven ID variables emerge as predictors in the regression analysis. Two of them, early experience and exam experience, emerge with respect to the school leaving exams only, while there is no ID variable that we can connect to the external exam only. On the basis of our data it seems that age and teacher education have no effect on the classroom practice of teachers. This result is in harmony with the findings of research studies in the field of teacher cognition (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Freeman1993; Kagan, 1992; MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Richardson, 1996; Sendan & Roberts, 1998; Peacock, 2001) according to which the degree of influence teacher education has on teacher cognition is still a debated issue.

Regarding the relationship between washback factors, ID variables and the three distinct language teaching practices the following have been noticed: the number of ID variables connected to either of the approaches is higher than that of the washback factors,

and the predictors belonging solely to each of them show a clear picture. Teachers who are anxious, do not know the exam well and do not use its assessment criteria, who are influenced by their early experiences and have no experience as examiners and live is smaller places tend to teach in a traditional way. Teachers who have a high level of intrinsic motivation, experience no anxiety, utilize their teaching experiences, pay attention to the expectations of parents and live in bigger cities tend to use a communicative approach. Finally, teachers who think that their autonomy is heavily restricted by the exam and who feel strong expectations from their school are inclined to prioritize exam preparation when teaching the language.

6.2 The washback effect of different exam types on students as compared to those of teachers

6.2.1 The different functioning of washback effects on students according to exam types

According to the literature review (Chapter 2), exams might have an influence on students' attitudes towards learning, on their motivation, behaviour and the learning process. It has also been revealed that in addition to these, the language learning activities of students are influenced by the following factors: what they know and think about the test; former experiences and expectations; their learning style and goals; and their feelings. In our questionnaire washback is represented by six factors: (1) what students think about the exam; (2) what students know about the exam; (3) their expectations of assessment; (4) the expectations expressed towards them in relation to the exam; (5) anxiety; and (6) attitude towards learning. We restricted our analysis to those exam types that primarily affect secondary students: the two school leaving exams and the external intermediate language exam. We intended to find out whether these two exam types affect students in the same or in different ways. In Hungary secondary school students have to study two languages at school

155

– one in a higher number lessons per week than the other – and are required to take either an ISLE or an ASLE as part of the matura examination. If they take an ASLE they get an intermediate language certificate, however, they can also obtain such a certificate should they pass an external language exam. The possession of a language certificate is of crucial importance for Hungarian secondary school students, because they are not able to graduate from higher education in the absence of that. The advantage of the external exam is that it is not a one-time occasion and if they fail, they can repeat it.

This is the context in which we have to interpret our results, which can be summarized as follows. Our data reveal a difference between how the washback effects of the above mentioned two exam types function in the case of secondary school students. Our results show that students consider ILE as the exam, which is able to assess their language knowledge in the most fair and effective way providing them with useful feedback. Students also know this exam type the best. The difference between ILE and the school leaving exams is significant regarding these two washback factors (what students know and think about the exam). It may be surprising that they know the external exam better than the assessment requirements of one of their subjects, but as it is clear from the context, for them, being able to get a language certificate during their secondary studies has priority. In addition, it is easier to try to pass an exam which they can repeat if they fail, consequently it is important for them to be fully informed about these exams. At the same time, however, they expect their teachers to primarily use the assessment criteria of the school leaving exams. The apparent contradiction we may find here can be explained by the fact that ISLE is the type of exam that everyone must take. Regardless of whether they have a language certificate, or not. These results suggest that students make a definite distinction between preparing for ISLE and ILE. The former is part of their academic subjects in school, it is part of the school leaving matura examination that everyone must take, so it is very important to get used to it. This explanation

can also be supported by our data regarding the "attitude towards learning" washback factor where students put ISLE into first place. ILE, on the other hand, is something that they need to prepare for separate from school. This situation might explain why ASLE generates the highest level of anxiety in students (though the levels are close to one another). On the basis of the number of students taking the different exam types (see Table on p...), it seems that ASLE is an exam that those students opt to take who were unable to pass an external language exam during their secondary studies. They choose it as a last resort, knowing that they cannot repeat it. Consequently, students may consider ASLE as a "dark horse", something that they do not know much about, as can be seen in our data regarding what students know about the test, which shows that the knowledge of students regarding ASLE is significantly lower. With respect to the expectations expressed towards students, there is no difference between ISLE and ILE. Students are expected to pass either ISLE or ILE.

To sum it up, there seems to be a marked difference regarding how the various aspects of the washback effect of the school leaving and the external language exams function. The external language exam seems to have a better face validity than the school leaving exams, because students know and regard them better. But it is the school leaving exam types that generate more anxiety in students who also expect their teachers to use the assessment criteria of these exams in their everyday work and report that their teachers prepare them mainly for these exams.

6.2.2 Comparing the views of teachers and students regarding the different functioning of washback effects

Our questionnaires were designed to elicit information from both teachers and students regarding similar washback factors. This makes it possible for us to compare how teachers

and students see the diverging functioning of the washback factors. The following aspects, covering the same content, can be compared:

Table 46

Name of washback factors that have the same content for both teachers and students

no. of items	Teacher	no. of items	Student
9	beliefs and attitudes	4	what students think about the test
3	knowledge about the test	3	what students know about the test
7	expectations (students/parents/school)	5	student related expectations
3	anxiety	4	anxiety
4	ways of assessment	3	expectations towards assessment

Attitudes and beliefs / what students think about the test

For teachers these statements are about whether they think the exam is useful, motivating and reliable. For students the statements within this factor are concerned whether or not students consider the exam useful and fair. For teachers ISLE and ILE function in a similar way, with no significant difference (p=0.53) between them, while students put ILE the first place with significant differences between the other two exam types.

Knowledge about the test / what students know about the test

The statements within this factor in the case of both teachers and students refer to how well they know the exam, its parts, task types and assessment criteria. According to our results teachers know ISLE, while students know ILE the best. There is significant difference between the knowledge of this exam type and the other two.

Feelings (Level of anxiety)

For both teachers and students these statements are related to the level of anxiety generated by the exams. Teachers experience the highest level of anxiety in relation to ILE, while students put ASLE in the first place.

Ways of assessment / expectations towards assessment

For teachers, these statements are about the degree to which they discuss the assessment criteria of the various exams with their students and whether they apply them in the everyday work. For students, these statements refer to whether their teacher discusses the assessment criteria with them and if they expect this to happen. Here we have received the same results, as for both teachers and students it is the ISLE, which is the most important.

Expectations of students, parents and teachers / student-related expectations

The statements for teachers refer to the degree students/parents and the school expect them to prepare students for the language exam as felt by teachers. For students the statements are related to the degree their parents/teachers/the school expect them to pass a certain exam. Our data show that teachers feel the strongest expectations from students in relation to ISLE and ILE. Students also report that the expectations towards them are the strongest regarding these two exam types. For parents ISLE, and for the school ASLE is the most important.

6.2.3 Conclusions

On the basis of our results, it seems clear that the two major exam types – school leaving and external – exert their washback effect on teachers and students in a different way. Table 47 summarizes the washback factors teachers and students regard as having the strongest influence on them.

Regarding the effects of two of the above mentioned washback factors, we can see a clear contrast between the views of teachers and students. The first of these aspects is knowledge about the test/exam. The exam type students are most familiar with is ILE, while teachers report the deepest knowledge in connection with ISLE. The other aspect where contrasting views exist is anxiety. For students it is ASLE which generates the highest level of anxiety, while for teachers it is ILE. Considering another two aspects of washback, what teachers/students think about the test and expectations, both students and teachers agree that ISLE and ILE exert the strongest influence (for students it is only ILE). The third washback factor where both stakeholders agree on is related to assessment. Teachers tend to discuss and apply and students also tend to expect them to discuss and apply the assessment criteria of ISLE.

Table 47

Summary of washback factors exerting the strongest influence on teachers and students

TEACHERS	Exam type	STUDENTS	Exam type
beliefs and attitudes	ISLE / ILE	what students think about the test	ILE
knowledge about the test	*ISLE*	*what students know about the test*	*ILE*
expectations of students/parents/school	ISLE / ILE	student related expectations	ISLE / ILE
anxiety	*ILE*	*anxiety*	*ASLE*
ways of assessment	ISLE	expectations towards assessment	ISLE

On the basis of the picture we can form interpreting the results of our survey it can be assumed that the washback effects of those exams tend to be more important for teachers and students that they feel more associated with: for teachers it is ISLE, while for students it is ILE. In the case of students, there seems to be a dichotomy with respect to the two exam types. Our data suggest that students connect the concept of language exam or language

certificate mainly to the external, intermediate level language exam, hence it is important for them to get acquainted with it. This explains why students regard ILE/ISLE the best (most fair and reliable) and know about ILE the most.

However, when it comes to learning the language in school, ISLE takes precedence. It is an academic subject they are to learn, being also one of the five compulsory subjects of the school leaving examination. This phenomenon can be connected to the stake of the exam, as students see it. According to the literature (e.g. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt and Ferman, 1996; Watanabe, 2004a, 2004b) there is a concrete relationship between the stake of a test and the strength of its washback: the higher the stake the stronger the washback is. For students the stake of ILE is just as high as that of ISLE. While the first one is needed to finish higher education, the second one is necessary to graduate from secondary school.

Interpreting the teachers' situation through the same framework, our data proposes that ISLE might represent a higher stake for teachers. Taking the five conditions outlined by Hughes (see Chapter 2, p. 38) that are necessary to achieve washback, the first states that teachers should want their students to succeed. As a foreign language is one of the five compulsory subjects of the school leaving exam, to make students able to pass (at least) this exam is of crucial significance for teachers. Therefore, in their everyday work, they concentrate on achieving this aim rather than preparing students for an external language exam.

Finally, and it seems logical, both students and teachers attach the highest level of anxiety to that exam type which they know the least.

6.3 The classroom practice of secondary school language teachers in an innovation and change framework

The last section of both the teachers' and the students' survey contained statements on the classroom practice of teachers. Sixteen of them had the same content, therefore we were able to compare how the two participants see the same situation. The results of our surveys regarding the classroom practice of language teaching at the secondary level as viewed by teachers and students showed significant differences in the ways the two groups see the situation. Teachers think that their teaching approach is less traditional and more communicative, whereas students think it is the other way around; their language teachers teach in a more traditional and less communicative way. Students also believe that language teaching is more exam-focused than what teachers think about the same issue. There are two issues that both stakeholders agree on: students experience success in class and they practice specifically listening comprehension tests. It is worth examining this situation from the perspective of innovation and change (see Chapter 1, pp. 15-19).

Change is a complex and potentially unpredictable phenomenon. In our dissertation we treat language teaching as a complex, dynamic system. The great number of variables in a complex system interacts in a great number of ways; therefore, a change within such a system may take different forms. It could be random, but it can also be orderly and controlled.

According to Hyland & Wong (2013, p. 2) we can talk about 'constructive change' if there are carefully designed objectives attached to it which are intended to initiate and manage change. The literature on innovation defines it as something new which aims to be an improvement on what already exists. In Markee's (1993, p. 231) definition, innovation in education is a 'qualitative change in pedagogical materials, approaches, and values that are perceived as new by individuals who comprise a formal (language) education system'. Rogers adds that, innovation is 'an idea, practice or object perceived as new" (2003, p. 21.), and

162

Waters (2009) emphasizes that innovation includes the intention to cause a change that is beneficial, as there is some sort of dissatisfaction with the existing situation. Hyland and Wong (2013) refer to the process of innovation as something "which implies some deliberations and consciousness" (p. 2). As we saw in Chapter 4 (pp. 71-74) detailing the context of our study, in 2005, following a ten-year preparatory and development process, a new type of school leaving language exam was introduced into secondary education. The output requirements of this new exam were also intended to have a regulatory function in public education. The intention was to raise the prestige of the school-leaving exam, to provide a cost-free opportunity for everyone to get a language certificate, and initiate, or provoke changes in the language teaching approach of teachers. Before that time teachers had been allowed to follow the language teaching tradition of their choice, but the communicative requirements of the new exam were meant to push their practice towards a more communicative stance (Einhorn, 2009). It was the culture of assessment that represented the most important change brought by the exam. The aim now is not to assess what students know *about* the language, but rather, how they are able to use it. The emphasis is on skills and competence rather than on knowledge.

Using the framework of innovation and change we can interpret the 2005 reform as a constructive change and innovation: there were carefully designed objectives attached to it intending to initiate and manage change; it originated from dissatisfaction with the existing situation; it aimed to be an improvement on what already existed; it presented a qualitative change in pedagogical materials, approaches, and values; and it was perceived as new. The intentions of the decision makers were clear, however, whether a change is implemented or not depends on many different factors. Innovation always depends on the characteristics of local context (Murray, 2013). As in education, teachers are key figures, the way they perceive any change or innovation is of ultimate importance. Stoller's (2009) six characteristics that

163

contribute to the success of any innovation (see Chapter 1, p. 17) reveal how difficult it might have been for some teachers to change their ways. Stoller writes that to be successful an innovation should (1) be compatible with the existing practice (of teachers); (2) neither be too complex nor too simple; (3) be clear enough on what it means; (4) have room for variation in its implementation; (5) not be entirely new; and (6) make the visibility of the organization better. If we disregard the last condition, the interpretation of the first five characteristics depends entirely on the individual teacher. There might have been (and might be) teachers, for example, for whom teaching in a communicative way is not compatible with their own existing practice. A lot might have depended on the further training courses where teachers were given information regarding the reform. Similar thoughts may be formed with respect to Kelly's (1980) three aspects that can make innovation effective(see Chapter 1, p. 17): whether (1) the innovation is feasible; whether (2) it is accepted by the teachers; and whether (3) it is relevant to students' needs. Although the 2005 reform was relevant to students' needs, it is difficult to tell whether it was feasible or accepted by teachers.

Our data regarding the classroom practice of Hungarian language teachers in secondary schools show the existence of all three approaches with the differences as seen by the two groups of participants detailed above.

Table 48

Descriptive statistics on teachers' preferred classroom approach

		CP_traditional	CP_Communicative	CP_Exam focused
N	Valid	172	172	172
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		..6076	..7904	..7737
Median		..5833	..8000	..7500
Mode		..58	..75	..83
Standard Deviation		..12414	..11727	..13322
Variance		..015	..014	..018
Range		..75	..50	..67

However, we have reason to believe that the category we call 'exam-focused', is closer to the communicative approach because the exams in question (the school leaving and the external ones) are built on the principles of communicative testing. Therefore, it seems possible that there has been a shift towards the communicative practice. We cannot, however, state this with an acceptable level of certainty, because the data we have are based on self-reporting, with no classroom observation. If we take the statements one by one (see pp 134-135) there are significant differences regarding all of them. This implies that students and teachers see the same situation very differently. There are however, two exceptions. The first, experiencing success in the language classroom, is good news. It may refer to the nature of learning languages, where results may soon appear in the form of being able say something in a foreign language. The other statement where both students and teachers agree on is that they both think they specifically practice listening comprehension tasks. The school leaving exam in operation before the 2005 reform did not have a listening comprehension component, although the external exams did and do have one. The fact that this is one of the two statements that both groups of respondents agree on points to the working of washback in the form of a concrete change in practice. A part of the empirical research regarding washback found evidence of test washback on how teachers teach (Read & Hayes, 2003; Saif, 2006; Shohamy, 1993; Sturman, 2003).

6.4   The insiders' perspective. Teachers' and students' views on how exams affect them

Our questionnaires also contained open-ended questions where respondents had the opportunity to elaborate their answers. Approximately one-third of the respondents used this possibility to share his or her views regarding the issues asked. Thus, we have qualitative data

– text, in the form of separate answers placed one after another – which gives us the chance to provide an emic perspective on the washback effect of language exams. To analyse qualitative data, we applied a strategy referred to as the general inductive approach (Thomas, 2006). At the beginning, no hypothesis was established before interpretation of the responses, which involved several iterative steps. The written answers were subjected to rigorous and systematic reading, rereading and coding. As a result of this process major themes emerged which we transformed into categories. The frequency of appearance of the emerged categories was also counted.

6.4.1 The influence of exams on the everyday work of teachers

The questionnaire for teachers contained seven open-ended items. Similar to the other questionnaire items, these questions were asked in Hungarian, consequently, the answers were also written in the same language. The three items which specifically refer to the influence of exams are as follows: (Item 27) Please, briefly describe how the above mentioned exams affect your work as a language teacher; (Item 50) The language exam, as such, affects my everyday teaching practice in the following way... (please, write down what comes to your mind first); and (Item 18) Please list three things you change if your student fails a language exam. The responses we got for these three items are similar, though there are some differences in emphasis. On the whole it can be said that exams seem to influence the quantitative aspects of language teachers' work. We shall discuss our results in the order given above, moving from the more general to the specific.

The first question (Item 27) was asked about how the exams, in general, affect teachers' work. This text, compiled from the answers of the 101 respondents, consists of 1765 words. Following the iterative process of reading and re-reading the following categories were formed (in the order of importance): (1) task and task type; (2) practice and preparation; (3)

motivation; (4) requirements; (5) knowing; and (6) course book. The two categories containing the most frequently appearing words are tasks and preparation. The noun 'task', either on its own or as part of a compound word or expression like 'task type', appears 38 times. The verbs of 'practice' (18 times), 'prepare for' (14 times), 'prepare someone' (18 times) and 'learn something' (19 times) appear the most frequently. Motivation, or an idea related to either the motivation of and to motivate students, comes up seventeen times. The frequency of the appearance of words belonging to the categories of 'requirements', 'knowing' and 'course book' are about the same. The noun 'requirement' appears ten times, the expressions related to 'knowing something' (to learn, get to know, make students know) also appear 10 times, while 'course book' is mentioned eight times. It looks like for Hungarian secondary school teachers, the washback effects of language exams appear in the form of a given exam's tasks or task types and the related activities of preparing their students for it, as a source of motivation, in making students get acquainted with the requirements of the exams and in selecting the type of course book to be used for teaching.

In the case of the second open-ended item (Item 50), respondents were to finish a sentence: "The language exam, as such, affects my everyday teaching practice in.... The text created on the basis of the 104 answers we got contains 812 words. Here, too, a pattern similar to that of the first open item (see above) can be seen. The order of importance is, however, somewhat different. The category with the most frequently appearing words is the same: 'task and task types'. The word 'task' appears 31 times. It is followed by the word 'requirements' (14 times), 'prepare' and 'preparation' (12 times) and 'aim' and 'motivation' (15 and 6 times).

The third open item (Item 18) was more specific in asking teachers to name three things they change after their student fails a language exam. He we got 107 answers. The text, this time, consisted of 886 words. The feature that teachers tend to mention the quantitative

167

aspects of their work in relation to language exams is the most obvious here. The categories we found are slightly different from the previous two cases. Here the categories are the following: (1) frequency; (2) practice; (3) task; (4) skills; (5) develop; and (6) vocabulary. The frequency of the words belonging to the first three categories is twice as high as that of the words of the second three categories. The adverb 'more', the verb 'practice' and the noun 'task' appear 49, 48 and 36 times respectively. This suggests that the major reaction of teachers to their students failing an exam is to practice the tasks more. The next two categories (skill and develop), however, may indicate a change in their instructional approach, which can also be interpreted as a concrete example for the washback effect. As mentioned earlier, both the school leaving and the external language exams are built on the principles of communicative language testing. Both exam types assess the communicative competence of the candidates by assessing their four skills: listening, speaking, writing and reading. The fact that the noun 'skill' and the verb 'develop' appears 14 and 13 times respectively, proposes that exams do influence the approach teachers apply, or at least the emphasis on what aspects of competence they develop. This result is even more telling if we compare the frequency of appearance of the word 'skill' in the three open-ended items. The noun 'skill' does not appear in the answers for Item 49 (The language exam, as such, affects my everyday teaching practice in the following way...) and comes up only three times in Item 26 (Please, briefly describe how the above-mentioned exams affect your work as a language teacher.).

6.4.2 The influence of exams on students' preparation

The questionnaire for students contained five open-ended items. In one of these items they were asked to report about how they change their study habits if they fail an exam (Item 35: "Mention three things you changed regarding your preparation after you failed your exam. The text containing the students' answers consists of 882 words. The pattern we get here is

similar to what teachers report about. It is also the quantitative aspects of preparation which takes precedence. The adverb 'more', the noun 'task' and the verb practice' appear 23, 20 and 16 items respectively. It is interesting to see that, similar to what teachers mentioned about the three things they change, students' answers also suggest a shift of emphasis. The verbs belonging to the four skills: 'read', 'listen', 'speak' and 'write' appear in 15, 15, 9 and 9 times respectively. This may also imply that after failing a language exam based on communicative principles, the emphasis of their preparation changes.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1   Summary of findings

What a teacher in a secondary school in Hungary actually does during a language lesson is the result of a complex interaction of various components and factors. The first group of such factors concern the exams themselves. This subject, foreign language, is one of the compulsory subjects that every secondary student must pass as part of their school leaving (matura) examination. Consequently, every one of the students is to take either an ISLE or an ASLE. In addition, owing to the Hungarian context detailed in Chapter 4, secondary school students are pushed to obtain a language certificate during their four years of secondary school. This creates a situation where teachers are under pressure from two sides: they are expected to teach their students in a way that they become able to pass at least one of the school leaving exams, and, if possible, manage to pass an external language exam. This pressure constitutes the first factors which have an impact on their work. These two exams do exert strong influence.

Although both exam types (school leaving and external) are built on the principles of communicative testing, there are differences that teachers are advised to be aware of. Consequently, the types of exams, including their slightly different requirements, task types and assessment criteria, form a second group of factors which affect their teaching. Furthermore, teachers are individuals coming from various contexts. Their social background, education, life and teaching experiences and motivational patterns are all different from one another, similarly to the types of their personality. These components, being the third group of influencing factors, also impact what they do, how they behave, what instructional approach(es) they decide to apply. Being able to choose from different teaching methods make up the last group of components that plays a part in what actually happens during a foreign language lesson.

The present dissertation investigated the complex system of language teaching and testing at the secondary level in Hungary. The aim of the research was to explore the complexity of the various factors affecting classroom practice. The model we used consisted of four categories of components: washback factors, teacher ID variables, exam types and teaching approaches. We also looked into how students see the same situation regarding both the washback effect of exams and classroom practice. We used both qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry in the form of a focus group interview and open-ended questions, and questionnaires for both teachers and students. Through our research questions we managed to reveal how the two major exam types – the school leaving and the externally accredited exams – as well as the ID variables of teachers (e.g. experience, motivation, training, etc.) interact and influence teachers, students and teaching and learning.

It has been found that the washback effect of exams, in the Hungarian context at the secondary level of education, in general and disregarding their type, appear mainly in the form of the feelings and beliefs teachers attach to them. The first regression analysis showed that all nine washback factors have an effect on the work of teachers in the following order of importance: (1) anxiety; (2) beliefs; (3) ways of assessment; (4) test knowledge; (5) student expectations; (6) school expectations; (7) teacher autonomy; (8) resources and materials; (9) parent expectations. The washback factors that impact exclusively one or the other exam type indicate that the two main exam types exert their influence in different forms.

Our results indicate that the washback effect of the school leaving exams appears in the form of beliefs and school expectations, while that of the external exam emerges in the form of knowledge about the test and expectations of students and parents. In our second regression analysis, eight of the eleven ID variables appeared as having an influence on classroom practice. These variables are the following, in the order of their importance: (1) intrinsic motivation; (2) further training courses; (3) exam experience; (4) place of living; (5)

teaching experience; (6) extrinsic motivation; (7) early experience; and (8) gender. Since this model included the washback factors and the ID variables as predictors of the dependent variable of classroom approach, we had the chance to compare the proportion of these two groups of predictors. Our model showed that, on average, three times as many ID variables appeared as washback factors, indicating that the actual teaching practice of language teachers is more emphatically influenced by their individual variables than the washback effect of the exams. There are two ID variables which appear to belong exclusively to the school leaving exams: early experience and exam experience. No ID variables can be connected to the external exams only.

The regression models were also able to show which washback factors and ID variables can be connected to the three different teaching approaches: traditional, communicative and exam-focused. The results show that teachers who are not appropriately aware of the exam, are influenced by their early experiences, have no experience as examiners, do not use the assessment criteria of the exam, experience high levels of anxiety and live is smaller places tend to teach in a traditional way; teachers characterized by strong intrinsic motivation, experience no anxiety, use their teaching experiences as feedback, respect the expectations of parents and live in bigger cities tend to use a more communicative approach; and teachers who believe that their autonomy is reduced by the exam and teach in a school which expresses strong expectations towards them are inclined to place higher emphasis on exam preparation when teaching the language.

The student questionnaire made it possible for us to compare what the status the two major types language exams is with teachers and students. The results showed that on the whole, there is a difference in emphasis regarding the priorities of the two groups. While for teachers the intermediate level school leaving exam bears the greatest importance, for students the intermediate language exam has a priority.

In 2005 an important reform took place in the field of language teaching in public education. A new type of school leaving exam was introduced with the specific intention of pushing teachers' language teaching approach towards a more communicative method. As the same statements were asked from both students and teachers regarding classroom practice, the questionnaires had the potential to reveal whether a change has indeed taken place in the last twelve years. The three instructional approaches we identified are the following: traditional; communicative; and exam-focused. The responses of teachers show that the latter two approaches are slightly more dominant. Since the language exams we investigated are all built on the principles of communicative testing we have reasons to believe that there has been a shift towards a more communicative practice. The data we received also indicate a concrete change in the practice of teachers: one of the two statements that both students and teachers agree on refers to the fact that teachers pay more attention to improving the listening skills of their students.

7.2   Limitations of the research

We are aware that the present dissertation has weaknesses. First of all, it was impossible to implement a random sampling procedure due to the lack of access to official databases. Hence convenient sampling was applied. However, the relatively high number of responses and the fact that the distribution of teachers in our sample is proportionate to the distribution of them on the national level provide a sufficient basis to claim that the results can be generalized.

Secondly, some assumptions are based on self-reported data. Problems associated with the use of such data include subject expectancy. However, when asking teachers to report their preferences on classroom approaches, no exclusive categories were used in the questionnaire. Teachers were not required to choose between one or the other approach and this, we believe, may counter-balance the detrimental effects of subject expectancy.

Thirdly, we are aware of the fact that being present at the interview might have had an effect on what the participants mentioned. However, there is hardly any other method that a researcher may apply in order to tap into teachers' views.

7.3   Pedagogical implications

In spite of its limitations, the findings of the present study carry pedagogical implications for both practicing teachers and teacher educators. The results shed light on the importance of teachers having to be aware of the content of the various exams. The analyses showed that the washback factor of anxiety appeared as having the strongest influence. However, the findings also tell us that high level of anxiety is felt by those teachers who do not know the exams well, have no experience as examiners and do not use their assessment criteria. This implies that if teachers know the given exam well, they may consider it useful and reliable and use its assessment criteria, consequently their anxiety level may be reduced. Furthermore, this situation characterises teachers who tend to teach in a traditional way. Our analysis also showed that those teachers who, besides being intrinsically motivated, are strongly influenced by further training courses and exam experiences tend to teach more communicatively. Therefore, our findings also suggest that by providing teachers with appropriate further training courses and involving them in the process of examining students we may be able to push them towards a more communicative language teaching approach.

Further research should be needed to tap into the reasons why teachers and students view the same situation – classroom practice – in such different ways. To establish firm basis for our findings regarding the relationships between the factors that influence classroom practice and the practice itself classroom observations are needed.

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Appendix A   **Letter of Invitation to teachers**

Kedves Kolléga!

A Pécsi Tudományegyetem Idegen Nyelvi Központjában működő *Ars Linguae* kutatócsoport arra szeretne választ kapni, hogy a nyelvvizsgák (beleértve az emelt szintű érettségit) milyen hatással vannak a tanári gyakorlatra. A tudományos modellek azt mutatják, hogy e hatás elsősorban a tanárok tanítási gyakorlatán keresztül érvényesül.

Tisztelettel kérjük, vegyen részt az általunk kidolgozott online kérdőív kitöltésében, hogy a teszthatás folyamatát pontosabban megismerhessük és ez alapján javaslatokat tehessünk a döntéshozók felé a vizsgák fejlesztésével kapcsolatban. Számítunk az Ön véleményére. Az adatok feldolgozását követően rövid összegzést küldünk a kutatás eredményeiről. Az online kérdőív teljesen titkos, nevet nem kell feltüntetni, kitöltése önkéntes és a kipróbálás alapján átlagosan 25 percet vesz igénybe. Azok között, akik **május 30-ig,** kitöltik a kérdőívet egy tabletet sorsolunk ki. Amennyiben szeretne részt venni a sorsoláson, a kérdőív végén adjon meg tetszőleges e-mail címet.

https://goo.gl/forms/SLrKjOHL49f1Lun73

A kutatás részét képezi egy, a diákok számára készített online kérdőív is.

Szeretném megkérni arra, feltéve, ha ez nem jelent túl sok munkát, hogy ezt juttassa el diákjaihoz:

https://goo.gl/forms/lzfX5EELCdx4uRWG3

és mondja el nekik, hogy ők is nyerhetnek egy tabletet, ha kitöltik. Csatolom a neki szóló felkérő levelet.

Köszönjük a részvételét és együttműködését a kérdőív kitöltésében! A kutatással kapcsolatban felmerülő kérdéseit az alábbi e-mail címre küldje.

Üdvözlettel:

Märcz Róbert,

középiskolai angol-történelem tanár

PTE, Idegen Nyelvi Központ

Postacím: 6733, Pécs, Szántó Kovács J. u. 1/b.

E-mail cím: mercrobi@inyk.pte.hu

Appendix B   **Letter of Invitation to students**

Kedves volt, vagy leendő vizsgázó!

A Pécs Tudományegyetem Idegen nyelvi Központjában működő *Ars Linguae* kutatócsoport azt kutatja, hogy a nyelvvizsgák milyen hatással vannak rátok, diákokra.

Tisztelettel kérjük, vegyél részt a kérdőív kitöltésében, mert így Te is hozzájárulhatsz ahhoz, hogy e jelenséget megismerhessük és ez alapján javaslatokat tehessünk a vizsgák fejlesztésével kapcsolatban. Számítunk a véleményedre. Online kérdőívünk teljesen titkos, a nevedet nem kell feltüntetni, kitöltése önkéntes és a kipróbálás alapján átlagosan 25 percet vesz igénybe. Azok között, akik **május 30-ig** kitöltik a kérdőívet egy tabletet sorsolunk ki. Amennyiben szeretnél részt venni a sorsoláson, a kérdőív végén adj meg tetszőleges e-mail címet.

https://goo.gl/forms/lzfX5EELCdx4uRWG3

Köszönjük a részvételed és együttműködésed a kérdőív kitöltésében! A kutatással kapcsolatban felmerülő kérdéseidet az alábbi e-mail címre küldd.

Üdvözlettel:

Märcz Róbert,

középiskolai angol-történelem tanár

PTE, Idegen Nyelvi Központ

Postacím: 6733, Pécs, Szántó Kovács J. u. 1/b.

E-mail cím: mercrobi@inyk.pte.hu

Appendix C   **Letter of Invitation to principals**

Tisztelt Hölgyem/Uram!

Märcz Róbert vagyok, volt középiskolai nyelvtanár, a Pécsi Tudományegyetem kutatója. Az egyetem Idegen Nyelvi Központjában működő *Ars Linguae* kutatócsoport a nyelvvizsgák és a nyelvi érettségi tanári gyakorlatra kifejtett hatását kutatja, a tudományos modellek ugyanis azt mutatják, hogy e hatás elsősorban a tanárok tanítási gyakorlatán keresztül érvényesül.

Kutatásunk ez egész országra kiterjed, ezért tisztelettel kérjük, hogy az alábbi levelet, amelyet csatolunk is, küldje tovább az Ön által vezetett intézmény nyelvtanárainak.

Segítségét hálásan köszönjük.

Tisztelt Kolléga!

A Pécsi Tudományegyetem Idegen Nyelvi Központjában működő *Ars Linguae* kutatócsoport arra szeretne választ kapni, hogy a nyelvvizsgák (beleértve az emelt szintű érettségit) milyen hatással vannak a tanári gyakorlatra. A tudományos modellek azt mutatják, hogy e hatás elsősorban a tanárok tanítási gyakorlatán keresztül érvényesül.

Tisztelettel kérjük, vegyen részt az általunk kidolgozott online kérdőív kitöltésében, hogy a teszthatás folyamatát pontosabban megismerhessük és ez alapján javaslatokat tehessünk a döntéshozók felé a vizsgák fejlesztésével kapcsolatban. Számítunk az Ön véleményére. Az adatok feldolgozását követően rövid összegzést küldünk a kutatás eredményeiről. Az online kérdőív teljesen titkos, nevet nem kell feltüntetni, kitöltése önkéntes és a kipróbálás alapján átlagosan 25 percet vesz igénybe. Azok között, akik **május 30-ig,** kitöltik a kérdőívet egy tabletet sorsolunk ki. Amennyiben szeretne részt venni a sorsoláson, a kérdőív végén adjon meg tetszőleges e-mail címet.

https://goo.gl/forms/SLrKjOHL49f1Lun73

Köszönjük a részvételét és együttműködését a kérdőív kitöltésében! A kutatással kapcsolatban felmerülő kérdéseit az alábbi e-mail címre küldje.

Üdvözlettel:

Märcz Róbert,

középiskolai angol-történelem tanár

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Appendix D – Script of the original interview with teachers

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<u>**QUESTIONS**</u>

1.   **How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?**   **2.**   **What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?**   **3.**   **How do language exams influence your everyday work?**   **4.**   **Do you motivate students by referring to the language exam?**   **5.**   **What is the proportion of time you spent on developing the four skills?**   **6.**   **Do you discuss the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?**   **7.**   **What had the strongest impact on the way you teach now?**

Märcz   Szeretettel köszöntelek benneteket, köszönöm, hogy vállaltátok az interjút. Első kérdésem az, hogy mennyire fontosak a nyelvvizsgák (emelt szintű érettségi, külső vizsgák) ma az iskolában számotokra, mint tanárokra nézve.

1.   **How important are language exams regarding your work in the school?**

Piri   Én nem tartottam soha fontosnak a nyelvvizsgát, mert én Németországban jártam iskolába és ott nincsen ilyen, ott vagy beszél az ember egy nyelvet vagy nem. Én 17 évesen tapasztaltam azt meg, hogy nem volt az a nyomás rajtuk hogy nyelvvizsgázniuk kell, ezért szabadon és kötetlenül tudtak beszélni a tanult idegen nyelven. Biztos vagyok benne, hogy ez azért van, mert nem volt ott a kényszer. Szóval szerintem nem fontos a nyelvvizsga, mert vagy beszélek egy nyelvet vagy nem.

M   Értem én, de a kérdés arra vonatkozik, hogy a mindennapi munkában fontos-e a nyelvvizsga.

Piri   Én nem tartom fontosnak a nyelvvizsgát, hanem magát a nyelvtudást tartom fontosnak.

M	Tehát akkor azt lehet mondani, hogy te a mindennapi munkádban nem tartod fontosnak a nyelvvizsgát.
Piri	Nem, én azt tartom fontosnak, hogy megtanuljanak beszélni és alkalmazni a nyelvet. Magántanári tapasztalataim azt mutatják, hogy a gyerekek olyan nyomás alatt vannak emiatt, hogy nem mernek megszólalni. És én ezt ugyanúgy végigcsináltam, nagyon sokat küzdöttem a némettel egész addig, amíg ki nem mentem és mindig ez a nyomás volt bennem, mert hogy ez a nyelvvizsga kell...
M	De most két dologról beszélünk, mert te azt mondod, hogy szerinted nem fontos, de ugyanakkor azt is mondod, hogy a gyereknek nagyon fontos.
Piri	Persze, mert az iskola kényszeríti őket erre. Szerintem a gyerek nem tudja, hogy ez még kell neki vagy sem, ők egyszerűen a szülők hatása alatt vannak, diplomához nyelvvizsga kell, mert itt Magyarországon ez divat, kint nem az. Voltam én is állásinterjún, beírtam, hogy van három nyelvvizsgám, aztán nem tudtam megszólalni, mert hiába volt meg a vizsga, X éve nem használtam a nyelvet. Én nem azt mondom, hogy a gyereknek fontos, hanem a külső körülmények miatt gondolják fontosnak a nyelvvizsgát.
Kincső	Én is azt tapasztaltam meg hogy nem a nyelvvizsga megszerzése volt az a pont, amikor én úgy érezzem, hogy most már tudok beszélni, hanem amikor kint voltam és ott töltöttem időt, de azt is mondom, hogy a mai világban kell a nyelvvizsga, mert szükséges, az emelt szintű érettségi is. Ez nagyon sok gyereket inspirál is arra, hogy lehetőleg az emelt szintűt szerezze meg és minél előbb, és meg is tesznek érte sokan mindent, különórára is járnak, tudják, hogy az egyetemi felvételihez is szükséges, illetve a diplomához is kell ez. A médiából és mindenhonnan is azt sugallják nekik, hogy ezt minél előbb és minél gyorsabban, mert sokan pórul jártak és nem kaptak diplomát.
R	De ettől függetlenül nem biztos, hogy elérik ezt a várt eredményt. Nekem sok tanítványom azért jött hozzám, mert nem lett meg a diplomája és a minimálisra törekedett, hogy csak meglegyen a nyelvvizsga, nem törekszik arra, hogy beszéljen, csak a diplomához kell, ez a fontos.
M	Tehát akkor a gyerek számára fontos, mert plusz pontot kap, a diplomához kell...
Piri	Külső kényszer.

Kriszti   Nagyon fontos, hát hogyne lenne fontos

Irén: Nálunk nagyon, a Nyek-es osztály miatt, mert ott a kimenet vagy az emelt szintű vagy a nyelvvizsga. A nem nyekeseknél viszont inkább a nyelvvizsga az, ami számít. Nekünk az a benyomásunk, hogy a gyerekek nem szeretik az emelt szintű érettséginek a nyelvhelyesség részét, az egy elég nehéz rész és a nyelvvizsgán nincsen nyelvhelyesség. Meg ugye ez nem egy angolszász kultúra, és az hogy emelt szinten nekik vitázniuk kell, az nagyon nehéz, sokkal egyszerűbb a nyelvvizsgán az, hogy egymást kiegészítve kifejtik a véleményük egy témáról. Mivel az emelten a vizsgáztatóval kell vitáznia és nagyon nehéz tételmondatok vannak, olyan témakörök, amik egy 18 éves gyereknek a fejében nem fordul meg. Például múltkor egy 17 éves srác kihúzta azt hogy az anyáknak a gyermek fejlődése szempontjából fontos, hogy az első három évben otthon legyenek, vagy kell-e vagy nem a halálbüntetés. És ugye a vizsgáztatónak van, egy kidolgozott listája az érvekről a diáknak pedig van elvileg 30 másodperce arra hogy felkészüljön. Ez a gyerekek számára félelmetes szerintem. Nincs benne a kultúránkban ez a vitázás. Hiába gyakoroltatjuk velük.

M   Zárjuk le ezt a részt azzal, hogy tehát a nyelvvizsga – akár emelt érettségi akár külső, fontos a gyerek életében. második kérdés, mennyire van a kettő szintje, az érettségi és a nyelvvizsga, összhangban?

What do you think about the conformity of the two-level school leaving language exams and the externally validated language exams?

Kriszti: Nincs. Szintjét tekintve sincs. Különböző nyelvvizsgák különböző szinten vannak, hiába van ez a B2 keret, az emelt szintű érettségi jóval magasabb szintet követel meg mint egy középfokú nyelvvizsga. Sokkal többet követel a gyerekektől.

Piri: A gyerekek szerint is ez a helyzet.

Kriszti: Ha most szintezni kellene, akkor én úgy tudnám felállítani, hosszú évek tapasztalata alapján, ugye 2005-től csináljuk ezt, hogy a B1-es a középszintű érettségi, az rendben van, és hogyha azt mondják, hogy B2-es az emelt szintű érettségi akkor a

202

nyelvvizsga valahol a B1-B2 között van. Számunkra, nyelvtanárok számára a nyelvvizsga az valahol ott van a középszintű és emelt szintű érettségi között.

Flóra: Én máshonnan, és a nyelvvizsgák felől jövök és én is úgy látom, hogy a közszintű érettségi is feljebb van, mint a B1, tehát ha lehet neveket mondani egy ... . B2 szóbeli az bőven az érettségi szintje alatt van, és ha egy átlagot veszünk B1-nek, akkor a középszintű érettségi az a B1-B2 felé van egyharmad úton, az emelt szint pedig a B2 és C1 között.

M: Tehát akkor nincs összhang?

Többen: Nincs

Piri: Fontos és markáns különbség az, hogy az emelt szintű érettségin nekik nem elég a 60%. Ott nekik 95% kell, a továbbtanulásnál ugyanis a százalék számít. És ilyen szempontból lehet, hogy egyensúly van a szintek között, de az érettségin nekik nem elég a 60, ott 90-re kell törekedniük.

M: Viszont, ha a 60-at elérik, akkor kapnak egy középfokú nyelvvizsgát.

Piri: Igen de az nem boldogítja őket és ezért sokkal nehezebb nekik az érettségi.

M: Akkor viszont ez azt jelenti, hogy azonos a szint...

Piri: Nem tudjuk összehasonlítani azért mert a nyelvvizsgának örül, ha megvan 60% az érettségin meg sírva fakad egy ilyen eredménnyel, mert a pont számít.

Kriszti: A gyerekek eredményei erről tanúskodnak, ha egy gyerek megcsinál egy nyelvvizsgát teszem azt 76%-ra, az nem biztos, hogy egy emelt szintű érettségit is meg tud csinálni.

M: Nem gondoljátok, hogy akkor ez a helyzet a nyelvvizsga felé tereli a gyereket, tehát jobban jár azzal?

Kriszti: Nem, nem minden esetben. Azért nem mert +50 pontot kap ha az emelt szintű érettségit megcsinálja, azt hiszem 40 vagy 45 %-tól már + 50 pontot kap.

M: Akkor miért van az, hogy mégis többen választják a nyelvvizsgát?

Kriszti: Azért, mert az könnyebb, mert 60% százalékot szerezni könnyebb...

Piri: A gyerek egy ponton nem látja jól ezt a rendszert, mert hogy neki nem azért kell a 90% mert máskülönben nem kapja meg érte a B2 nyelvvizsgát, hanem azért mert ha emelt érettségit csinál, akkor az a pont számít neki, amennyit az emelt szinten kapott.

M: Tehát a pontszámítás módja miatt más. Tehát ha oda megy továbbtanulni.

Kriszti   Gyakorlatiasabb oldaláról megfogva a dolgot azt tesszük a gyerekkel, hogy csinál egy középszintű nyelvi érettségit, és ha nem olyan egyetemre megy, ahol számít neki a plusz 50 pont, ezt meg kell nézni a 11-12-eseknél, akkor azt mondja, hogy csinál egy középszintű érettségit és hoz hozzá egy középfokú B2 nyelvvizsgát. Akkor azt lehet hogy könnyebben el tudja érni és pontokban többet fog vinni, mint hogyha csinálna egy emelt szintű nyelvi érettségit, ami jóval nehezebb, mint egy középfokú nyelvvizsga. Arról nem is beszélve, hogy az emelt szintű százalékos pontjait vinné akkor magával a továbbtanulásra, az meg nem jó neki. Ez egyénenként változik.

Irén: Az emelt szint az B2. Én azt gondolom, hogy a nyelvvizsga gyakran könnyebb, mint az emelt szint, mert az szadibb, tehát a feladattípusát tekintve nehezebb, mondom a gyerekek elakadnak a vitán. A nyelvvizsga szerintem kiszámíthatóbb. A feladat típusa nehezebb. Kimondottan. Meg mondom ez a nyelvhelyesség, az is rémisztő a gyerekeknek. Nekem az a tapasztalatom, hogy még az a gyerek is, aki nincs B2 szinten, némi szerencsével meg tudja csinálni a nyelvvizsgát, és aki B2-es szinten van, annak simán megy.

M: A következő kérdésem az lenne, hogy a nyelvvizsga fontossága miben jelenik meg az órán? Ez az igény a szülök és gyerekek felől, ez a nyelvvizsga kényszer miben befolyásolja a munkátokat, hogyan jelenik meg az órán?

| 3. | **How do language exams influence your everyday work?** |

Kincső: Elsősorban az érettségire kell őket felkészíteni, de pl. nekem kezdő csoportom van és van egy fiú, aki nagyon ügyes, vele külön kell foglalkozni, neki viszek be külön direkt olyan feladatokat minden órára, ami egyelőre a középszintű érettségire készíti fel. Más csoportokban is van olyan, aki nem azon a szinten van, és akkor őt felhozom.

Kriszti: Van egy kimenet nekünk, a vizsgák. Attól függ, hogy hova jár, hogy például nyelvi tagozatra jár-e.

Kriszti: Befolyásolja, persze a tankönyvet is megpróbáltuk e szerint megválasztani.

Piri: Nekem szempont volt, hogy van benne olyan kifejezetten az érettségi feladatokat tartalmazó rész és olyan jellegű feladatokat csinálunk, és nem mellesleg, nyelvvizsgára is felkészít, mert hasonló feladatok vannak benne.

M: Tehát akkor benne van a fejtekben, hogy párhuzamosan az érettségire és a nyelvvizsgára is készítitek a diákokat.

Kriszti: Persze egy csomó átfedés van a két vizsga között. És a tankönyv kiválasztásánál szempont a felkészítés. Mindegyik szempont, középszintű érettségi, emelt szintű és nyelvvizsga, mind a három szempont, amikor mi kiválasztunk valamit.

Kincső: De azt hozzátehetjük, hogy nagyon leszűkült ez a kör most, most nem lehet annyira sokféléből választani.

M: Tehát akkor a mindennapi munkát befolyásolja azt, hogy ilyen vizsgákra készítitek fel a gyerekeket...

Kincső: A témazárókat is úgy állítjuk össze...

Irén: Az érettségi az folyamatosan jelen van, azért is, mert olyan tankönyv családokat használunk, amik erre lettek kitalálva, egészen a kezdő szinttől kezdve tele van pont olyan feladatokkal, ami minden féle vizsgára felkészít, középszintűre és emelt szintűre. Így a gyerekek belenőnek ebbe, minden egyes könyvben és a munkafüzetében vannak speciálisan vizsgára felkészítő szekciók, feladatok. És ez annak is jó, aki nyelvvizsgázni akar. Ráadásul megismertetjük őket a különböző nyelvvizsgákkal, hogy lássák, végigcsinálunk egy-egy feladatsort a legismertebbekből és akkor ő választ. A nemzeti alaptanterv csak a kimenetet határozza meg, az pedig az érettségi, azaz a B1 minimum Az, hogy mi nyelvvizsgára is készítünk, az az adott tanár szexepilje. Szerintem is többnyire párhuzamosan megy a felkészítés az érettségire és a nyelvvizsgára, ilyen szintű könyveket is használunk. A vizsgákra való felkészítés már a tankönyvválasztásnál eldől.

M: Motiváljátok-e a diákokat ezzel a nyelvvizsgával, vagy ez már bennük van. Jelent-e ez plusz motivációt

Kriszti: Valakit lehet valakit nem. De egyébként otthonról is hozzák magukkal ezt a motivációt, a szülők nagy része azért íratja nyelvi tagozatra, hogy mire befejezi a középiskolát, legyen neki minimum egy vagy kettő nyelvvizsgája.

Flóra: Teljesen diáktól függ, vannak olyan osztályok, ahol nincs meg a motiváció.

Irén: Szerintem olyanok a gyerekek, hogy vagy van belső motivációjuk, vagy nincs, persze mondogatjuk mi ezt, de azt érzékelem, hogy ez érettségi évében van motiváló ereje.

M:	**Az érettségi és a nyelvvizsga is a 4 készségre épít, ennek a 4 készségnek a fejlesztése, miként történik, milyen arányban?**

Kriszti: Párhuzamosan és egyenlő arányban. Én próbálok minél változatosabban fejleszteni, aztán amikor látom, hogy mi megy nehezebben az adott csoportnak, akkor többet gyakoroltatom azt, ami nehezebben megy. De párhuzamosan muszáj fejleszteni és kell is.

Kincső: Én is így gondolom, és a tankönyv is így épül fel.

Flóra: Nálam is ez a helyzet, és ha végeztünk a tankönnyel, akkor kimondottan vizsgafeladatokra koncentrálunk a négy készség fejlesztésére.

M: Végeztek a tankönyvvel?

Piri: Igen ez egy bevett dolog, tavaly például egy jó csoportban igen hamar végeztem a tankönyvvel és mi akkor tudtunk a vizsgákra készülni.

M: Gyakran fordul ez elő?

Kriszti: Ez nagyon csoportfüggő és a tankönyvtől is függhet.

Flóra: Én nem hiszem hogy azonos mértékben kell fejleszteni a négy készségét, szerintem a beszédkészség fejlesztésére kell koncentrálni, mert azt nem tudja máshol, csak itt, amikor van kivel beszélgetni. Én ezt egy egymásra épülésnek képzelem, hogy elsőként egy passzív készséget fejleszt az ember, olvasást vagy hallást, ha megvan a szókincs, akkor utána lehet nyelvtant tanítani, ha van mondat, akkor lehet szöveget építeni, véleményt kimondatni.

M: Ennek kapcsán hadd kérdezzem Andit, aki tanított az érettségi reform előtt is, amikor még nem volt beszédértés a vizsgán. Szerinted megnőtt ennek a gyakoroltatása azóta?

Kriszti: Hogyne, ég és föld, megváltozott a tanításom a reform óta, ezt magával vonta az érettségi változása.

Flóra: Én is ha visszaemlékszem a gimire, soha nem gyakoroltuk a beszédértést. Sőt az akkor készült tankönyvekben nem is volt hanganyag.

Irén: Én úgy látom, hogy a hallott szövegértés és az olvasott szövegértés az nagyon domináns, mert minden feladat az egyben halott és olvasott szövegértés is... ezért ezek fejlesztése folyamatos megy, így kapja az infót és az íráskészség az pedig inkább úgy koncentráltan, végigbeszéljük, gyakoroljuk, írunk, kitaláljuk, megbeszéljük és akkor meg kell alkotni és be kell adni és kijavítom. De összességében nem tudom megítélni. A beszédkészség pedig attól függ szerintem, hogy milyen a társaság, mert vannak olyan csoportok nyilván, akikkel nagyon lehet és van, ahol meg úgy kell keresztülverni bármilyen beszélgetős feladatot. A párhuzamos fejlesztést nem lehet dekára mérni, nem lehet patikamérlegen szétválasztani a készségek fejlesztését. Gyakorlatilag a tankönyvek feladatain keresztül történik a négy készség fejlesztése, és ez nagy segítség, mert 25-26 óránk van. Ezért jól meg kell választani a könyvet. Az alsóbb szinteken és úgy gondolom, hogy a nyelvtan főleg egy nem nyekes osztályban mindig az alapoktól, nagyon türelmesen meg nyolcszor visszatérve, azért az domináns, ahhoz hogy aztán bármit össze tudjon rakni a nyelvhelyesség ott még nagyobb szerepet kap, ahogy följebb mész ott már szinte csak ismételni kell, ott már a szókincs van., meg a vonzatos igék, meg a nem tudom milyen szerkezetek, meg a színvonal. Attól is függ, hogy melyik dominál jobban, hogy milyen szinten van a tanuló. Ami a hallásértés fejlesztését illeti, a tankönyvben, amit használok, vannak feladatok pár percesek, szinttől függően és mindig minimum két feladat tartozik hozzájuk, egy rövidebb, ami globálisabb a második feladat pedig részletekbe menőbb.

M: Tehát a négy készség fejlesztése párhuzamosan történik. Ennek kapcsán azt kérdezem, hogy az vizsgák értékelési kritériumait megbeszélitek a diákjaitokkal? Hogy mondjuk levélírásnál akkor kapsz ennyi meg ennyi pontot, ha így tudod kifejezni magad. Mivel ezek nyilvános dokumentumok, a szóbeli értékelésnél is.

> **Do you discuss the requirements and the assessment criteria (of language exams) with your students?**

Kriszti: Mindenképpen, ki szoktam osztatni az órán, megbeszéljük a pontokat, látják, akár írás, akár szóbeli és van olyan óra, amikor egymásét le kell értékelni a skála alapján.

Piri: Én ilyet még nem csináltam.

Flóra: Én sem szoktam elmondani, azért nem mert aki ügyes, az akkor hátradől és ezért nem mondom el. Nekem megvan a fejemben, hogy mi kell ilyen B2-re és persze szólok neki, hogy na ez például nem felel meg annak a szintnek.

Kriszti: Pedig nagyon fontos, hogy tudja, hogy ha erre nem figyel, akkor nem fog pontot kapni.

M: Azok, akik nem használják, ez azért van, mert most kezdtétek a pályát, vagy mert nem gondoljátok fontosnak?

Piri: Én eddig mindig csak otthon készítettem fel, nem tudom, nekem az iskola még új, ezért csak a fejemben vannak meg a dolgok, hogy mi az, ami elvárt, mi az, ami jó, stb.

Irén: Nem kimondottan, hogy csak a nyelvvizsga, mert azok között is vannak különbségek, tehát például a témaköröket, azokat szerintem nagyon komolyan vesszük és mindig hangsúlyozzuk, hogy ezek az érettségi témakörök és akkor ezen kívül ilyenek vannak még a nyelvvizsgán, és akkor arra külön hozunk nekik anyagot. Ami az értékelési kritériumok használatát illeti, nagy mélységekbe nem megyek bele, azt szoktam mondani nekik például az írásbelik kapcsán, hogy értsék meg, hogy mikre kapnak pontot, hogy mennyire fontos, a szóbelikénél pedig csak annyit, hogy ne görcsöljenek annyit a nyelvtanon, mert a nyelvtan ennyied része az egésznek, de ez érettségin is, folyamatosan amíg készülünk és folyamatosan nyomatom nekik a levélírásnál... hogy de így is javítom a levelet, ugyanazokkal a szempontokkal. Ezeket a kritériumokat meg is beszélem velük, ők pontosan tudják...

M: Miért csak az írásbelinél?

Irén: Nem tudom... merthogy ott annyira pontosan kijön, nekem is jó, tehát, hogy állandóan képben vagyok, hogy mit kell nézni és nekik is felhívom a figyelmüket arra a néhány kritikus pontra, például a szövegalkotásnál, hogy mi az, amin totálisan biztos, hogy veszítesz két pontot

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What had the strongest impact on the way you teach now?

M: Végezetül azt kérdezem, hogy mi volt a legerősebb befolyással arra, ahogy most tanítotok?

Piri: Nálam például a mentorom, itt, akitől nagyon sokat tanultam, őt követem mindenben, tempóban. És ahogy engem tanítottak az is, mert kriminálisan rossz tanáraim voltak, mind az általános, mind a középiskolában. Én akkor döntöttem el, hogy szeretnék tanítani és nem így átadni azt a tudást.

Flóra: Nem az, amit az egyetemen megtanultam és nem a tanáraim, bár nekem jó német tanárom volt az iskolákban. Engem a nyelviskolában lévő kollégák formáltak leginkább, mert ott x órát kellett látogatnom és elemeznem és az ott töltött három év markánsan befolyásolta a tanításom. Ott ráadásul az én óráimat is látogatják miután alaposan megbeszéljük, hogy ott i történt.

Kriszti: Sok minden, nagyon sok minden, egy nagyon jó általános iskolai tanárom 3-tól 8-ig. Ő nagymértékben meghatározta az én pedagógiai munkámat. A középiskola nem, egyetem után pedig egy nagyon nehéz iskolába kerültem, bedobtak a mélyvízbe, hogy ússzál. Az ottani körülmények, hogy miként lehet a gyerekeket motiválni, az nagy iskola és kihívás volt. A hosszú évek során persze sok minden alakítja az embert, a külső és belső elvárások, így együtt.

Kincső: Hasonlóan a Krisztihez, ugyanahhoz az emberhez kerültem a féléves gyakorlatra, sok óráját láttam, sokat konzultáltunk, nagyon sok jó tanácsot adott nekem. Aztán befolyásolt az, amikor ide kerültem sok évvel ezelőtt a kollégák és az egyetemen tanultak is.

Appendix E – Items constituting the various factors in the teachers' questionnaire

Beliefs/attitude: (the exam is important, useful, reliable)

15. Preparing students for the following language exams is part of my current work as a language teacher.

16. The following exam is a good source of motivation for my students. (You can indicate more.)

17. The following exam is able to assess the proficiency of my students in a reliable way.

23. I suggest that my students take the following exam.

24. The following exam provides both teachers and students with useful feedback.

25. The results of the following exam provide useful feedback on the work I do.

28. I believe a language lesson is for learning a foreign language and not for preparing for the exam.

29. It is not the certificate which is important but language proficiency.

30. I believe it is a realistic requirement to make the possession of a language certificate an obligatory requirement to enter higher education.

Feelings (anxiety)

37. The expectation that my students must pass the following exam often makes me anxious.

42. The participation of my students at the following exam(s) makes me worry.

43. The chance that only a small number of my students will pass a language exam often worries me.

Knowledge of the test/exam

12. I know the composition and the various parts of the following exam well.

13. I know the task types of the following exam well.

14. I know the assessment criteria of the following exam well.

Ways of assessment

19. I discuss the requirements of the following exam with my students.

20. I discuss the assessment criteria of the following exam with my students.

21. When assessing the written performance of my students I apply the assessment criteria of the following exam.

22. When assessing the spoken performance of my students I apply the assessment criteria of the following exam

Independent item

26. The level of difficulty of the following exams is compatible with one another.

Open items (FOR QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS)

18. Please list three things you change if your student fail to pass a language exam….

27. Please, briefly describe how the above mentioned exams affect your work as a language teacher....................................

31. Some state that if they finish the required course book before the end of the school year they start preparing for the language exam only. Please, share your opinion regarding this statement.

32. Please list the three most important aspects on the basis of which you select the course book to use......

33. Please, finish the following sentence. The most important thing in language teaching is that my students...

Expectations of students

34. Students expect us to prepare them for the following exams in a targeted way.

38. Because of the extra credits they get in relation to entering higher education students expect their teachers to make them able to pass the following exam(s).

39. Students are not interested in the following exam(s).

Expectations of parents

35. The parents expect my students to pass the following exam successfully.

40. Parents are not interested in the following exam(s).

Expectations of school

36. The management of the school expect my students to pass the following exam(s) successfully.

41. The results my students achieve at the following exam(s) influences the way my colleagues judge me.

Teacher autonomy

44. I believe the following exam narrows my scope as a teacher.

45. The following exam influences WHAT I teach.

46. The following exam influences HOW I teach.

47. The following exam influences WHAT I teach FROM.

48. I believe I can do a lot to make my students successful at the following exam(s).

49. We use a greater part of language classes to prepare for the following exam(s).

Open item:

50. The language exam, as such, affects my everyday teaching practice in the following way... (please, write down what comes to your mind first);

Motivation:

intrinsic

51. The best thing in teaching is that I can see the development of my students.

52. I make a lot of effort to make my classes interesting.

53. It is important to constantly improve my professionalism.

54. I often feel that my everyday work does not make sense.

55. When I teach I have a feeling that I can realize myself.

Extrinsic

56. My principals and superiors have (always) been satisfied with my work.

57. I believe teachers should be paid in proportion to the number of years they serve as teachers.

58. My salary is in proportion to the work I do.

59. I am satisfied with my salary.

Classroom practice (self-reported)

1: never / 2: rarely / 3: often/ 4: very often

T – more traditional approach in the respondent's practice

C – more communicative approach in the respondent's practice

W – the appearance of concrete washback effect – exam-focused teaching practice

During language classes how often …

59. do you speak Hungarian? <mark style="background-color:red">T</mark>

60. do you make your students work in pairs? <mark style="background-color:lime">C</mark>

61. do you make your students practice grammar rules? <mark style="background-color:red">T</mark>

62. do your students translate sentences or texts? <mark style="background-color:red">T</mark>

63. are there tasks that are interesting for your students?

64. do you prepare especially for the school leaving/language exam? <mark style="background-color:yellow">W</mark>

65. do your students have a feeling of success?

66. do you make your students work in groups? <mark style="background-color:lime">C</mark>

67. do your students speak in the target language? <mark style="background-color:lime">C</mark>

68. do your students play games? <mark style="background-color:lime">C</mark>

69. do your students read authentic texts in the target language (e.g. newspaper article, brochure, novel)?

70. do your students listen to authentic recordings in the target language?

71. do your students watch films/videos in the target language?

72. do your students role-play everyday situation (e.g. shopping)? <mark style="background-color:lime">C</mark>

73. do your students specifically practice listening comprehension tasks?

74. do your students complete writing tasks similar to those of the school leaving/external language exams? <mark style="background-color:yellow">W</mark>

75. do you use ICT tools (smart board, projector, internet)?

76. do you motivate your students by referring to the school leaving/language exam? <mark style="background-color:yellow">W</mark>

77. are your students worried because of the school leaving/language exam?

78. Please indicate to what extent the following factors influence the way you teach

Factors affecting teacher cognition

79. Please indicate to what extent the following factors influence the way you teach

strongly affected	affected	somewhat affected	did not affect

- the way I was taught   **EARLY EXPERIENCE**

- teaching methodology courses at the university   **TEACHER EDUCATION**

- the way my colleagues teach.

- the atmosphere in the school   **CONTEXT**

- the expectations of society.

- further training courses.   **FURTHER TRAINING COURSES**

- teaching practise of my mentor teacher **TEACHER EDUCATION**

- my students' expectations   **STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS**

- new technology (ICT, tablet, smart board, etc.)

- my teaching experience   **TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

- the available course books.   **RESOURCES / MATERIALS**

- language exams   **WASHBACK EFFECT**

Appendix F - Items constituting the various factors in the students' questionnaire

I.

Intrinsic motivation

21. I like using this language.

24. I am interested in the culture of this language.

25. I like the sound of this language.

Use of language

12. I regularly read in this language.

13. I have not used the language since my language exam. (In case you have taken an exam.)

15. I understand the films in this language well.

17. I regularly watch films in this language

18. I regularly listen to music in this language.

19. I frequently talk in this language.

20. I almost never speak in this language.

Self-confidence

14. I am not afraid to use this language.

16. I worry when I have to speak in this language.

22. I feel confident when I have to use this language.

23. I do not like talking in a foreign language.

What students know about the test

36. I know the requirements of the following exams well.

37. I know the task types applied in the following exam.

45. I have enough knowledge about the following exams.

What students think about the test

40. I believe the following exams assess the language command of students appropriately.

48. I believe the school leaving language exam is able to assess my language proficiency adequately.

57. As far as I know the assessment criteria of the following exams are fair.

60. I believe the following exams provide me with useful feedback regarding my language proficiency.

Expectations towards assessment

41. During the language classes in school we discuss the requirements of the following exam.
42. The language teachers in my school give his grades according to the assessment criteria of the following exam.
58. It is good if the teacher gives grades according to the assessment criteria of the following exams.

Student related expectations

50. My parents expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.
51. My teachers expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.
52. My friends expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.
53. I expect myself to pass a language exam at the following level.
54. I do not make any effort to pass the following exams.

Anxiety

55. Preparing for the following exams makes me anxious.
56. The importance of the following exams makes me anxious.
59. I am not worried at all because of the following exams.
61. I often worry whether I can pass a language exam.

Attitude towards learning

38. When preparing for the following exam I complete many test tasks.
39. The language lessons in my school prepare us for the following exam effectively.
43. My language teacher in school effectively assists my preparation for the following exam.
44. I believe that we should learn a language and not prepare for an exam during the language lessons in school
46. The course books we use in school are suitable for preparing us for the following exams.
49. I believe a language lesson is not for exam preparation.

Independent item

47. We are preparing for the external language exam and for the school leaving exam in the
    same way.

**In this section we are asking you to judge how often the following activities take place in
your language classes.**

1: never / 2: usually / 3: often / 4: very often

T – more traditional approach in the respondent's experience

C – more communicative approach in the respondent's experience

W – the appearance of concrete washback effect – exam-focused teaching practice

During language classes how often …

62. does your teacher speak in Hungarian? T

63. do you work in pairs? C

64. does you teacher make you practice grammar rules? T

65. do you translate sentences or texts?

66. are there tasks that are interesting for you?

67. do you prepare especially for the school leaving/language exam? W

68. do you have a feeling of success?

69. do you work in groups? C

70. do you speak in the target language? C

71. do you play games? C

72. do you read authentic texts in the target language?

73. do you role-play everyday situation (e.g. shopping)? C

74. do you specifically practice listening comprehension tasks?

75. does the teacher use written task types similar to those of the various language exams? W

76. does the teacher apply spoken task types similar to those of the various language exams?

77. does the teacher motivate you by referring to the language exams? W

78. does the reference to the language exams generate anxiety in you?

Nyelvi vizsgák és nyelvtanítás

Kedves Kolléga! A kutatások szerint a nyelvvizsgák befolyásolják azt, ahogy és amit a tanárok tanítanak. Hogy a teszthatás valódi természetét pontosabban megértsük, kérjük, válaszoljon az alábbi kérdésekre.

1. Neme: férfi   nő
2. Életkora: 23-30   / 31-40 / 40+ helyett 23 -27 / 27 – 40 / 41 – 50 / 51+
3. Legmagasabb nyelvtanári végzettsége: egyszakos főiskolai tanári / kétszakos főiskolai tanári / egyszakos egyetemi, tanári diploma / kétszakos egyetemi tanári diploma / nyelvtanári MA (egyszakos) / nyelvtanári MA (kétszakos)
4. Kérjük, adja meg hol tanít idegen nyelvet! (többet is megjelölhet)
   általános iskola,/ szakiskola/szakközépiskola/ szakgimnázium/ gimnázium/nyelviskola/tanoda/magántanár
5. Melyik idegen nyelvet tanítja? (többet is megjelölhet)
   angol / német / magyar / olasz, francia, lengyel, szlovák, spanyol, szerb, román, bolgár, orosz, cseh, horvát, héber
6. Mire készíti fel diákjait az ön által tanított nyelv(ek)ből.
   középszintű érettségi/emelt érettségi/alapfokú/középfokú/felsőfokú nyelvvizsga/külföldi munkavállalás
7. Hány éve tanít?
    1-3 / 4-9 / 10-20/ 20-30 / 30+
8. Hol tanít?   falu / vidéki város / megyeszékhely / Budapest
9. Vizsgáztató-e valamelyik nyelvvizsgarendszeren belül?   Igen   nem
10. Amennyiben az előző kérdésre igennel felet, kérjük írja meg, hol.:........................
11. Milyen szinten érettségiztet?   emelt   közép

I.
Kérjük, jelölje meg, hogy Önre nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások! Figyelem: a nyelvvizsga szó alatt az ön által preferált nyelvvizsgá(ka)t értjük.
(4) teljesen igaz   (3) általában igaz   (2) általában nem igaz (1) egyáltalán nem igaz

12. Jól ismerem az alábbi vizsgák összetételét, a vizsga részeit.

13. Jól ismerem az alábbi vizsgák feladattípusait.

14. Jól ismerem az alábbi vizsgák értékelési kritériumait.

15. Jelenleg nyelvtanári munkám részét képezi az alábbi vizsgákra való felkészítés.

16. Az alábbi vizsga fontos motiváló tényező a diákjaim számára. (többet is megjelölhet)

17. Az alábbi vizsgák megbízhatóan mérik diákjaim nyelvtudását.

18. Soroljon fel három dolgot, amin változtat ha diákjai nyelvvizsgája nem sikerül ....

19. Diákjaimmal megbeszélem az alábbi vizsgák követelményeit.

20. Diákjaimmal megbeszélem az alábbi vizsgák értékelési kritériumait.

21. A diákok írásbeli teljesítményének mérésekor az alábbi vizsgák értékelési kritériumait alkalmazom.

22. A diákok szóbeli teljesítményének mérésekor a az alábbi vizsgák értékelési kritériumait alkalmazom.

23. Azt javaslom diákjaimnak, hogy az alábbi vizsgá(ka)t válasszák.

24. Az alábbi vizsgák hasznos visszajelzést adnak a tanárnak a diákok nyelvtudásáról.

25. Az alábbi vizsgák eredménye hasznos visszajelzést ad az általam végzett munkáról.

26. Az alábbi vizsgák nehézségi szintje megfeleltethető egymásnak.

27. Kérjük, röviden fejtse ki, hogy a fenti vizsgák milyen hatással vannak nyelvtanári munkájára.....................................

28. Szerintem a tanóra arra való, hogy nyelvet tanuljunk nem pedig arra, hogy nyelvvizsgára készüljünk.

29. Nem a vizsgabizonyítvány megszerzése a fontos, hanem a nyelvtudás.

30. Szerintem reális követelmény a nyelvvizsga kötelezővé tétele az egyetemi felvételihez.

31. Vannak, akik azt állítják, hogy ha a tanév során korábban fejezik be a tananyagot, akkor kizárólag a nyelvvizsgára készülnek. Kérjük fejtse ki véleményét néhány sorban........

32. Sorolja fel a három legfontosabb szempontot, amelyek alapján tankönyvet választ......

33. Kérjük fejezze be az alábbi mondatot. A nyelvtanításban szerintem az a legfontosabb, hogy diákjaim...

II.

A következő részben az Ön munkáját körülvevő környezetről kérdezzük. Kérjük, jelölje meg, hogy Önre nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások! Figyelem: a nyelvvizsga szó alatt az ön által preferált nyelvvizsgá(ka)t értjük.

(4) teljesen igaz   (3) általában igaz   (2) általában nem igaz (1) egyáltalán nem igaz

34. A diákok elvárják, hogy célzottan készüljünk az alábbi vizsgákra.

35. A szülők elvárják, hogy diákjaim sikeresen teljesítsék az alábbi vizsgá(ka)t.

36. Az iskolavezetés elvárja, hogy diákjaim sikeresen teljesítsék az alábbi vizsgá(ka)t.

37. Gyakran nyomaszt az az elvárás, hogy diákjaimnak az alábbi vizsgákat teljesíteniük kell.

38. A diákok a felvételi pluszpontok miatt elvárják, hogy iskolai tanáraik juttassák el őket az alábbi vizsgák sikeres teljesítéséig.

39. A diákokat nem érdeklik az alábbi vizsgák.

40. A szülőket nem foglalkoztatják az alábbi vizsgák.

41. A diákjaim alábbi vizsgákon elért eredménye hatással van szakmai (szakos kollégáim általi) megítélésemre.

42. Szorongással tölt el, ha tanítványaim az alábbi vizsgákon részt vesznek.

43. Gyakran aggaszt, hogy esetleg kevés diákomnak lesz nyelvvizsgája.

III.

A következő részben nyelvvizsga és a tanári autonómia összefüggéseire vagyunk kíváncsiak. Kérjük, jelölje meg, hogy Önre nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások! Figyelem: a nyelvvizsga szó alatt az ön által preferált nyelvvizsgá(ka)t értjük.

 (4) teljesen igaz   (3) általában igaz   (2) általában nem igaz (1) egyáltalán nem igaz

44. Úgy érzem az alábbi vizsgák szűkítik tanári mozgásteremet.

45. Az alábbi vizsgák hatással vannak arra, AMIT tanítok..

46. Az alábbi vizsgák hatással vannak arra AHOGY tanítok.

47. Az alábbi vizsgák hatással vannak arra, AMIBŐL tanítok..

48. Úgy érzem sokat tehetek azért, hogy diákjaim sikeresek legyenek az alábbi vizsgákon.

49. A tanórák nagyobb részében az alábbi vizsgákra készülünk.

50. A nyelvvizsga, mint tényező úgy befolyásolja a mindennapi tanítási gyakorlatom, hogy ...., (kérjük írja ide ami először eszébe jut)

IV.

Ez a rész a motivációval foglalkozik. Kérjük, jelölje meg, hogy Önre nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások! Figyelem: a nyelvvizsga szó alatt az ön által preferált nyelvvizsgá(ka)t értjük.

 (4) teljesen igaz   (3) általában igaz   (2) általában nem igaz (1) egyáltalán nem igaz

51. A tanításban az a legjobb, hogy látom a diákjaim fejlődését.

52. Sok energiát fordítok arra, hogy óráim érdekesek legyenek.

53. Fontos, hogy szakmailag állandóan képezzem magam.

54. Gyakran érzem úgy, hogy értelmetlen a napi munkám.

55. Amikor tanítok, úgy érzem sikerül megvalósítani önmagam.

56. Az eddigi igazgatóim, mk-vezetőim (mindig)elégedettek voltak a munkámmal.

57. Szerintem a tanároknak az eltöltött évek arányában kellene fizetést kapniuk.

58. Fizetésem arányban áll az általam végzett munkával.

59. Meg vagyok elégedve a fizetésemmel.

V. Tanítási módszerekre vonatkozó információk

A következő részben arról kérdezünk, hogy az Ön óráin milyen gyakran fordulnak elő az alább felsorolt tevékenységek.

                         1: soha / 2: ritkán / 3: gyakran / 4: nagyon gyakran

A nyelvórákon milyen gyakran…

60. beszél Ön magyarul?

61. dolgoztatja a diákjait párban

62. gyakoroltatja a nyelvtani szabályokat?

63. fordítanak a diákjai mondatokat vagy szövegeket?

64. vannak a diákok számára érdekes feladatok?

65. készülnek kifejezetten az érettségire/nyelvvizsgára?

66. van a diákjainak sikerélménye?

67. dolgoztatja diákjait csoportmunkában?

68. beszélnek a diákok az adott idegen nyelven?

69. végeznek játékos feladatokat a diákjai?

70. olvasnak a diákok autentikus szöveget az adott nyelven (pl.: újságcikk, brosúra, könyvrészlet)?

71. hallgatnak a diákok autentikus szöveget az adott nyelven?

72. néznek a diákok filmeket/videókat az adott nyelven?

73. játszanak el diákjai mindennapi szituációkat (pl. bevásárlás)?

74. gyakorolnak kifejezetten hallásértés teszteket?

75. oldanak meg a diákok az érettségi/nyelvvizsga feladatokhoz hasonló írásbeli
   feladattípusokat?

76. használnak IKT eszközöket (okostábla, projektor, internet)?

77. motiválja diákjait a nyelvvizsga/érettségi megemlítésével?

78. tölti el szorongással a diákjait a nyelvvizsga/nyelvi érettségi?

79. Kérjük ítélje meg, hogy az alábbi tényezők milyen erős hatással voltak arra, ahogy Ön
   tanít. (1 – 4)

(1) egyáltalán nem igaz   / (2) általában nem igaz /   (3) általában igaz   / (4) teljesen igaz

- ahogy annak idején engem tanítottak

- Az egyetemi tanítás-módszertan órákon tanultak.

- Ahogy kollégáim tanítanak.

- Az iskola légköre.

- A társadalom elvárásai.

- A módszertani továbbképzésen hallottak.

- Mentor tanárom a tanítási gyakorlat során.

- Diákjaim elvárásai.

- Új technológiák (IKT, tablet, okostábla, interaktív tábla).

- A tanítás során szerzett tapasztalataim.

- A rendelkezésemre álló tankönyvek.

- A nyelvtudást mérő vizsgák.

80. Ön szerint milyen formában lehet a jól felkészülni egy nyelvvizsgára:

az iskolai órákon / nyelviskolai kurzuson / magántanár / egyénileg / internet / külföldi
   tartózkodás? **(többet is megjelölhet)**

81. E kérdőívet megpróbáltuk a lehető legalaposabb módon elkészíteni. Van-e még valami,
   amit e témával kapcsolatban megemlítene?

Appendix H – Questionnaire for teachers (translated into English)

LANGUAGE EXAMS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Dear Colleague. According to research language exams have an influence on what and how teachers teach. In order to understand the true nature of washback, please complete the following questionnaire.

1. Your gender: ☐ male ☐ female

2. Age: ☐ 23 -27 ☐ 27 – 40 ☐ 41 – 50 ☐ 51+

3. Your qualification as a language teacher:

☐ college degree, one major

☐ college degree, two majors

☐ University degree, one major

☐ University degree, two majors

☐ Language teacher MA (one major)

☐ Language teacher MA (two majors)

4. Please indicate where you teach foreign language.

☐ primary school

☐ vocational school

☐ trade school

☐ grammar school

☐ language school

☐ private school

☐ private teacher

5. What foreign languages(s) do you teach? (You can indicate more than one.)

☐ English

☐ German

☐ French

☐ Spanish

☐ Italian

☐ Russian

☐ Other

6. What do you prepare your students for?

☐ intermediate level school leaving exam

☐ advanced level school leaving exam

☐ elementary language exam

☐ intermediate language exam

☐ advanced language exam

☐ Other…

7. How many years have you been teaching?

☐ 1-3   ☐ 4-9 ☐ 10-20   ☐ 20-30   ☐ 30+

8. Where do you teach?   ☐ village   ☐ town in the country   ☐ county town/ ☐ ☐

☐ Budapest

9. Are you an examiner?   ☐ yes   ☐ no

10. If you answered yes for the previous question, please give us the name of the examination system:...

11. On what level are you and examiner at regarding the school leaving exams?

☐ advanced level   ☐ intermediate level

I.

In this section we are asking you about the connection between language exams (school leaning and external) and teaching. Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case. Please note: the term language exam refers to the external language exam(s) you prefer.

(1) not true at all   (7) completely true

12. I know the composition and the various parts of the following exam well.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intermediate level school leaving exam (ISLE)							
Advance level school leaving exam (ASLE)							
Elementary language exam (ELE)							
Intermediate language exam (ELE)							
Advanced language exam (ALE)							

13. I know the task types of the following exam well.

14. I know the assessment criteria of the following exam well.

15. Preparing students for the following language exams is part of my current work as a language teacher.

16. The following exam is a good source of motivation for my students. (You can indicate more.)

17. The following exams are able to assess the proficiency of my students in a reliable way.

18. Please list three things you change if your student fail to pass a language exam….

19. I discuss the requirements of the following exam with my students.

20. I discuss the assessment criteria of the following exam with my students.

21. When assessing the written performance of my students I apply the assessment criteria of the following exam.

22. When assessing the spoken performance of my students I apply the assessment criteria of the following exam

23. I suggest that my students take the following exam.

24. The following exam provides both teachers and students with useful feedback.

25. The results of the following exam provide useful feedback on the work I do.

26. The level of difficulty of the following exams is compatible with one another.

27. Please, briefly describe how the above mentioned exams affect your work as a language teacher...................................

28. I believe a language lesson is for learning a foreign language and not for preparing for the exam.

29. It is not the certificate which is important but language proficiency.

30. I believe it is a realistic requirement to make the possession of a language certificate an obligatory requirement to enter higher education.

31. Some state that if they finish the required course book before the end of the school year they start preparing for the language exam only. Please, share your opinion regarding this statement.

32. Please list the three most important aspects on the basis of which you select the course book to use......

33. Please, finish the following sentence. The most important thing in language teaching is that my students...

II.
In this section we are asking about the environment surrounding you. Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case. Please note: the term language exam refers to the external language exam(s) you prefer.

 (1) not true at all   **(7) completely true**

NOTE: Wherever the expression 'following exam(s)' is used the table below Item 34 is applied throughout the questionnaire.

34. Students expect us to prepare them for the following exams in a targeted way.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intermediate level school leaving exam (ISLE)							
Advance level school leaving exam (ASLE)							
Elementary language exam (ELE)							
Intermediate language exam (ELE)							
Advanced language exam (ALE)							

35. The parents expect my students to pass the following exam successfully.

36. The management of the school expect my students to pass the following exam(s) successfully.

37. The expectation that my students must pass the following exam often makes me anxious.

38. Because of the extra credits they get in relation to entering higher education students expect their teachers to make them able to pass the following exam(s).

39. Students are not interested in the following exam(s).

40. Parents are not interested in the following exam(s).

41. The results my students achieve at the following exam(s) influences the way my colleagues judge me.

42. The participation of my students at the following exam(s) makes me worry.

43. The chance that only a small number of my students will pass a language exam often worries me.

III.

In this section we are interested in the relationship between language exam(s) and teacher autonomy. Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case. Please note: the term language exam refers to the external language exam(s) you prefer.

 (1) *not true at all*   **(7) completely true**

44. I believe the following exam narrows my scope as a teacher.
45. The following exam influences WHAT I teach.
46. The following exam influences HOW I teach.
47. The following exam influences WHAT I teach FROM.
48. I believe I can do a lot to make my students successful at the following exam(s).
49. We use a greater part of language classes to prepare for the following exam(s).
50. The language exam, as such, affects my everyday teaching practice in the following way... (please, write down what comes to your mind first);

IV.

This section is on motivation. Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case. Please note: the term language exam refers to the external language exam(s) you prefer.

 (1) *not true at all*   **(7) completely true**

51. The best thing in teaching is that I can see the development of my students.
52. I make a lot of effort to make my classes interesting.
53. It is important to constantly improve my professionalism.
54. I often feel that my everyday work does not make sense.
55. When I teach I have a feeling that I can realize myself.
56. My principals and superiors have (always) been satisfied with my work.
57. I believe teachers should be paid in proportion to the number of years they serve as teachers.
58. My salary is in proportion to the work I do.
59. I am satisfied with my salary.

V.

In this section we are asking you to judge how often the following activities take place in your language classes.

1: never / 2: usually / 3: often / 4: very often

During language classes how often …

60. do you speak Hungarian?
61. do you make your students work in pairs?
62. do you make your students practice grammar rules?
63. do your students translate sentences or texts?
64. are there tasks that are interesting for your students?
65. do you prepare especially for the school leaving/language exam?
66. do your students have a feeling of success?
67. do you make your students work in groups?
68. do your students speak in the target language?
69. do your students play games?
70. do your students read authentic text in the target language (e.g. newspaper article, brochure, novel)?
71. do your students listen to authentic recordings in the target language?
72. do your students watch films/videos in the target language?
73. do your students role-play everyday situation (e.g. shopping)?
74. do your students specifically practice listening comprehension tasks?
75. do your students complete writing tasks similar to those of the school leaving/external language exams?
76. do you use ICT tools (smart board, projector, internet)?
77. do you motivate your students by referring to the school leaving/language exam?
78. are your students worried because of the school leaving/language exam?

79. Please indicate to what extent the following factors have influenced the way you teach.

	strongly affected	affected	somewhat affected	did not affect
The way I was taught.				
The teaching methodology courses at university.				
The way my colleagues teach.				
The atmosphere in the school.				
The expectations of society.				
Further training courses.				
The teaching practise of my mentor teacher.				
The expectations of my students.				
New technology (ICT, smart board, etc.)				
My teaching experience.				
The available course books.				
Language exams.				

80. What do you think the best way is to prepare for a language exam?

☐ language classes in school

☐ course in a language school

☐ private teacher

☐ on your own

☐ with the help of the internet

☐ staying in the target language country

81. We tried to prepare this survey the best we can. Is there anything you would like to add?

Appendix I – Original questionnaire for students (in Hungarian)

Kedves nyelvtanuló!

E kérdőívvel azt szeretnénk kideríteni, hogy milyen összefüggés van a nyelvvizsgák és az iskolai nyelvtanulás között. Hogy ezt pontosabban megértsük, arra kérünk töltsd ki az alábbi kérdőívet.

A kitöltés körülbelül 20-25 percet vesz igénybe.

Most kérjük válaszolj az alábbi kérdésekre.

1. Nemed: férfi nő
2. Életkorod: 14-18 / 19-23 / 23 –
3. Ha középiskolába jársz, kérük add meg hányadikos vagy:
4. Legmagasabb iskolai végzettséged: 8 általános / szakiskola, szakközépiskola/ gimnázium / főiskola / egyetem /
5. Lakhelyed: falu / vidéki város / Budapest/ megyeszékhely
6. Kérjük add meg, hogy az alábbi nyelvek közül melyiken milyen szinten tudsz. Nem kell mindenhova pöttyöt tenni.

Nyelv	Alapfok (B1)	Középfok (B2)	Felsőfok (C1)
angol			
német			
francia			
spanyol			
orosz			
egyéb:...........			

7. Van-e olyan nyelv a magyaron kívül, amelyen anyanyelvi szinten tudsz?
8. Kérjük add meg, hogy édesanyád az alábbi nyelvek közül melyiken milyen szinten tud. .
Nem kell mindenhova pöttyöt tenni.
9. Kérjük add meg, hogy édesapád az alábbi nyelvek közül melyiken milyen szinten tud. .
Nem kell mindenhova pöttyöt tenni.

I.

Ebben a részben arról kérdezünk, hogy milyen gyakran és mire használod azt az idegen nyelvet, amelyen a legjobban tudsz.

Kérjük, jelöld meg, hogy rád nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások!

(1) egyáltalán nem igaz   (2) általában nem igaz   (3) általában igaz (4) teljesen igaz

10. Add meg azt az idegen nyelvet, amelyen a legjobban tudsz és jelöld meg milyen bírod ezt a nyelvet. Csak egyet jelölj meg.

Nyelv	Alapfok (B1)	Középfok (B2)	Felsőfok (C1)
angol			
német			
francia			
spanyol			
orosz			
egyéb:...........			

11. Kérjük jelöld meg, hogy melyik kategóriába tartozol!

még nincs nyelvvizsgám / nyelvvizsgáztam és sikerült / nyelvvizsgáztam, de nem sikerült

12. Rendszeresen olvasok ezen a nyelven.

13. A nyelvvizsga óta nem használtam ezt a nyelvet. (Amennyiben van nyelvvizsgád.)

14. Bátran beszélek ezen a nyelven.

15. Jól értem a filmeket ezen a nyelven.

16. Félek, ha e nyelven kell beszélnem.

17. Rendszeresen nézek filmeket ezen a nyelven.

18. Rendszeresen hallgatok zenét ezen a nyelven.

19. Gyakran beszélgetek ezen a nyelven

20. Szinte soha nem beszélek ezen a nyelven.

21. Szeretem használni ezt a nyelvet.

22. Magabiztosnak érzem magam, ha használnom kell ezt a nyelvet.

23. Nem szívesen szólalok meg idegen nyelven.

24. Érdekel az e nyelvhez tartozó kultúra.

25. Szeretem ennek a nyelvnek a hangzását.

II

A következő részben arra vagyunk kíváncsiak, hogy mennyit tudsz a nyelvi érettségiről és a nyelvvizsgákról.

26. Kérjük jelöld meg, hogy melyik kategóriába tartozol! Csak akkor ugord át e részt, ha még nem nyelvvizsgáztál.

27. Melyik nyelvből és milyen szinten vizsgáztál le?

28. Milyen célból vizsgáztál? Sorold fel a három legfontosabb célt......

29. Hogyan készültél fel a nyelvvizsgára: **Többet is megjelölhetsz**

Csak az iskolában	magánúton	magántanárhoz jártam	nyelviskolai tanfolyam	külföldi munka	Egyéb

30. Ha a vizsga elsőre sikerült, hogyan folytattad az adott a nyelv tanulását? ....

31. A sikeres vizsgát követően belekezdtél-e egy új nyelv tanulásába? ....

32. A sikertelen vizsga után kértél-e betekintést az írásbeli tesztekbe?   igen   nem

33. Ha igen, írd le hogyan használtad fel az ott szerzett információkat?...........................

34. Kivel beszélted meg a vizsgán elért eredményed? (többet is megjelölhetsz)

senkivel	iskolai tanárommal	nyelviskolai tanárommal	magántanárommal	szüleimmel	barátaimmal

35. Írj három olyan dolgot, amiken változtattál a felkészülésedet illetően a vizsga után.........

III.

Ebben a részben a nyelvtudást mérő vizsgákról azaz a nyelvi érettségiről és a nyelvvizsgáról lesz szó.

Kérjük, jelöld meg, hogy rád nézve mennyire igazak az alábbi állítások!

(1) egyáltalán nem igaz   *(7) teljesen igaz*

36. Jól ismerem az alábbi vizsgák követelményeit.

37. Ismerem az alábbi vizsgákon alkalmazott feladattípusokat.

38. Az alábbi vizsgákra való felkészülés során sok tesztfeladatot oldok meg.

39. Az iskolai nyelvórákon hatékonyan készülünk az alábbi vizsgákra.

40. Szerintem az alábbi vizsgák jól mérik a diákok nyelvtudását.

41. Az iskolai nyelvórákon megbeszéljük az alábbi vizsgák követelményeit.

42. Az én iskolámban a nyelvtanár az alábbi vizsgák értékelési szempontjai szerint osztályoz.

43. Iskolai nyelvtanárom hatékonyan segíti felkészülésemet az alábbi vizsgákra.

44. Szerintem a tanórán nyelvet kell tanulni nem pedig nyelvvizsgára készülni.

45. Eleget tudok az alábbi vizsgákról.

46. Az iskolában használt tankönyvek alkalmasak az alábbi vizsgákra való felkészülésre.

47. A nyelvvizsgára és a nyelvi érettségi vizsgára ugyanúgy készülünk.

48. Szerintem a nyelvi érettségi vizsga jól le tudja méri nyelvtudásom.

49. Szerintem a nyelvóra nem vizsgafelkészítő foglalkozás.

50. Szüleim elvárják, hogy az alábbi szinten legyen rendelkezzek nyelvvizsgával

51. Tanáraim elvárják, hogy az alábbi szinten legyen rendelkezzek nyelvvizsgával

52. A barátaim fontosnak tartják, hogy az alábbi szinten legyen rendelkezzek nyelvvizsgával.

53. Elvárom magamtól, hogy legyen az alábbi szinten nyelvvizsgám.

54. Nem erőlködöm azon, hogy sikeres legyek az alábbi vizsgákon.

55. Az alábbi vizsgákra való felkészülés szorongással tölt el.

56. Az alábbi vizsgák fontossága szorongással tölt el.

57. Ismereteim szerint az alábbi nyelvvizsgák értékelési szempontjai igazságosak.

58. Jó, ha a tanár az alábbi vizsgák értékelési szempontjai szerint osztályoz.

59. Egyáltalán nem izgulok az alábbi vizsgák miatt.

60. Szerintem az alábbi vizsgák hasznos visszajelzést adnak a nyelvtudásomról.

61. Gyakran aggódóm, hogy lesz-e nyelvvizsgám.

IV.

A következő részben arról kérdezünk, hogy a tanórákon milyen gyakran fordulnak elő az alább felsorolt tevékenységek.

1: soha / 2: általában / 3: gyakran / 4: nagyon gyakran

A nyelvórákon milyen gyakran…

62. beszél a tanár magyarul?

63. dolgoztok párban

64. gyakoroltok nyelvtani szabályokat?

65.fordítotok mondatokat vagy szövegeket?

66. vannak számotokra érdekes feladatok?

67. készültök kifejezetten az érettségire/nyelvvizsgára?

68. van sikerélményed?

69. dolgoztok csoportmunkában

70. beszélnek a diákok az adott idegen nyelven?

71. játszotok nyelvi játékokat?

72. olvastok eredeti szöveget ezen a nyelven?

73. játszotok el mindennapi szituációkat (pl. bevásárlás)?

74. gyakoroltok kifejezetten hallásértés teszteket?

75. alkalmaz a tanár az érettségi/nyelvvizsga feladatokhoz hasonló írásbeli feladattípusokat?

76. alkalmaz a tanár az érettségi/nyelvvizsga feladatokhoz hasonló szóbeli feladattípusokat?

77. motivál benneteket a tanár a tanár a nyelvvizsgára/érettségire való hivatkozással?

78. tölt el szorongással a nyelvvizsgára/érettségire való hivatkozás?

Appendix J – Questionnaire for students (translated into English)

Language exams and language proficiency

Dear student. Using this questionnaire we would like to reveal what connection exists between language exams and language learning in school. To get a deeper understanding on this topic we would like to ask you to fill in the following questionnaire. It takes about 20-25 minutes. Please answer the following questions.

1. Your gender: ☐ male ☐ female

2. You age: ☐14-18 ☐ 19-23 ☐ 23 –

3. If you are a secondary school student, please indicate the year you are in:

☐ Language preparatory year

☐ ninth

☐ tenth

☐ eleventh

☐ twelfth

4. Your qualification:

☐ primary school

☐ secondary school

☐ secondary vocational school

☐ college

☐ university

5. Place of residence: ☐ village ☐ town in the country ☐ Budapest/

☐ county town

6. Please indicate what level of proficiency you have regarding the following languages.

Language	Elementary (B1)	Intermediate (B2)	Advanced (C1)
English			
German			
French			
Spanish			
Russian			
Other:..........			

7. Besides Hungarian is there a language that you speak as your mother tongue?

☐ yes   ☐ no

8. Please, indicate what level of proficiency your mother has regarding the following languages.

Language	Elementary (B1)	Intermediate (B2)	Advanced (C1)
English			
German			
French			
Spanish			
Italian			
Russian			
Does not speak any languages			

9. Please, indicate what level of proficiency your father has regarding the following languages.

Language	Elementary (B1)	Intermediate (B2)	Advanced (C1)
English			
German			
French			
Spanish			
Italian			
Russian			
Does not speak any languages			

I.

In this section we are asking you about how often and for what you use the foreign language can speak the best.

Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case.

 (1) not true at all   (2) generally not true (3) generally true (4) completely true

10. Indicate the language you know the best and the level of your proficiency. Tick one language only.

Language	Elementary (B1)	Intermediate (B2)	Advanced (C1)
English			
German			

French			
Spanish			
Italian			
Russian			
Other….			

11. Please indicate the category you belong to.

☐ no language exam

☐ took a language exam and failed

☐ took a language exam and passed

12. I regularly read in this language.

13. I have not used the language since my language exam. (In case you have taken an exam.)

14. I am not afraid to use this language.

15. I understand the films in this language well.

16. I worry when I have to speak in this language.

17. I regularly watch films in this language

18. I regularly listen to music in this language.

19. I frequently talk in this language.

20. I almost never speak in this language.

21. I like using this language.

22. I feel confident when I have to use this language.

23. I do not like talking in a foreign language.

24. I am interested in the culture of this language.

25. I like the sound of this language.

II.
In the next section we would like to know how much you know the school leaving and the external language exams.

26. Please indicate the category you belong to.

☐ no language exam

☐ took a language exam and failed

☐ took a language exam and passed

27. What language and what level did you take an exam?

Language	Early ISLE	ISLE	Early ASLE	ASLE	ELE	ILE	ALE
English							
German							
French							
Spanish							
Italian							
Russian							
Other….							

28. Why did you take the exam? Please , list the three most important aims….

29. How did you prepare for the language exam? You can indicate more options.

☐ in school   ☐ on my own ☐ with a private teacher   ☐ language school   ☐ working

abroad   ☐ being an exchange student

30. If you passed the exam, how did you continue studying that language? ....

31. What language did you start to learn after your successful exam? ....

32. After a failed exam, did you ask for a chance to have a look at your written tests?

☐ yes   ☐ no

33. If yes, please write down how you used the information you gained there!.......

34. Who did you discuss your exam results with? You can indicate more options.

☐ nobody   ☐ my school teacher ☐ my language school teacher   ☐ my private teacher

☐ my parents ☐ my friends

35. Please indicate three things you changed regarding your preparation after the unsuccessful

exam…..

III.

This section is about language exams including the school leaving and the external exams.

Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true in your case.

 (1) not true at all   (7) completely true

NOTE: Wherever the expression 'following exam(s)' is used the table below Item 34 is

applied throughout the questionnaire.

36. I know the requirements of the following exams well.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intermediate level school leaving exam (ISLE)							
Advance level school leaving exam (ASLE)							
Elementary language exam (ELE)							

Intermediate language exam (ELE)							
Advanced language exam (ALE)							

37. I know the task types applied in the following exam.

38. When preparing for the following exam I complete many test tasks.

39. The language lessons in my school prepare us for the following exam effectively.

40. I believe the following exams assess the language command of students appropriately.

41. During the language classes in school we discuss the requirements of the following exam.

42. The language teachers in my school give his grades according to the assessment criteria of the following exam.

43. My language teacher in school effectively assists my preparation for the following exam.

44. I believe that we should learn a language and not prepare for an exam during the language lessons in school

45. I have enough knowledge about the following exams.

46. The course books we use in school are suitable for preparing us for the following exams.

47. We are preparing for the external language exam and for the school leaving exam in the same way.

48. I believe the school leaving language exam is able to assess my language proficiency adequately.

49. I believe a language lesson is not for exam preparation.

50. My parents expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.

51. My teachers expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.

52. My friends expect me to pass a language exam at the following level.

53. I expect myself to pass a language exam at the following level.

54. I do not make any effort to pass the following exams.

55. Preparing for the following exams makes me anxious.

56. The importance of the following exams makes me anxious.

57. As far as I know the assessment criteria of the following exams are fair.

58. It is good if the teacher gives grades according to the assessment criteria of the following exams.

59. I am not worried at all because of the following exams.

60. I believe the following exams provide me with useful feedback regarding my language proficiency.

61. I often worry whether I can pass a language exam.

IV.

In this section we are asking you to judge how often the following activities take place in your language classes.

1: never /   2: usually /   3: often /   4: very often

During language classes how often …

62. does your teacher speak in Hungarian?

63. do you work in pairs?

64. does you teacher make you practice grammar rules?

65. do you translate sentences or texts?

66. are there tasks that are interesting for you?

67. do you prepare especially for the school leaving/language exam?

68. do you have a feeling of success?

69. do you work in groups?

70. do you speak in the target language?

71. do you play games?

72. do you read authentic texts in the target language?

73. do you role-play everyday situation (e.g. shopping)?

74. do you specifically practice listening comprehension tasks?

75. does the teacher apply written task types similar to those of the various language exams?

76. does the teacher apply spoken task types similar to those of the various language exams?

77. does the teacher motivate you by referring to the language exams?

78. does the reference to the language exams generate anxiety in you?

Appendix K

Descriptive statistics of washback factors as assessed by teachers

		Beliefs_ISLE	Beliefs_ASLE	Beliefs_ELE	Beliefs_ILE	Beliefs_ALE
N	Valid	172	172	172	172	172
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		,7317	,6916	,4303	,7463	,6615
Median		,7302	,7143	,4127	,7619	,6825
Mode		,71	,75	,41	,78	,78
Std. Deviation		,11196	,13203	,15804	,11054	,15922
Variance		,013	,017	,025	,012	,025
Range		,62	,68	,76	,57	,73
		Anxiety_ISLE	Anxiety_ASLE	Anxiety_ELE	Anxiety_ILE	Anxiety_ALE
N	Valid	172	172	172	172	172
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		,3762	,3895	,2746	,4097	,3757
Median		,2857	,3333	,2381	,3571	,3333
Mode		,14	,14	,14	,14	,14
Std. Deviation		,22838	,22664	,14804	,24626	,21761
Variance		,052	,051	,022	,061	,047
Range		,86	,86	,81	,86	,86
		Knowledge_of_test_ISLE	Knowledge_of_test_ASLE	Knowledge_of_test_ELE	Knowledge_of_test_ILE	Knowledge_of_test_ALE
N	Valid	172	172	172	172	172
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		,9834	,9266	,6866	,9266	,8441
Median		1,0000	1,0000	,7619	1,0000	,9524
Mode		1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation		,05973	,13531	,30757	,12223	,19919
Variance		,004	,018	,095	,015	,040
Range		,57	,76	,86	,62	,86
		Ways_of_assessment_ISLE	Ways_of_assessment_ASLE	Ways_of_assessment_ELE	Ways_of_assessment_ILE	Ways_of_assessment_ALE
N	Valid	172	172	172	172	172
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		,9252	,8090	,3924	,8590	,6645
Median		1,0000	,8929	,1786	,8929	,7143
Mode		1,00	1,00	,14	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation		,12019	,22803	,31073	,16956	,29563
Variance		,014	,052	,097	,029	,087
Range		,86	,86	,86	,75	,86
		Exp_of_students_ISLE	Exp_of_students_ASLE	Exp_of_students_ELE	Exp_of_students_ILE	Exp_of_students_ALE
N	Valid	172	172	172	172	172

Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	,8499	,7705	,3173	,8480	,6251
Median	,9048	,8095	,1905	,9048	,6190
Mode	1,00	1,00	,14	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation	,16278	,22582	,21796	,17106	,25301
Variance	,026	,051	,048	,029	,064
Range	,67	,86	,86	,76	,86

	Exp_of_parents_ISLE	Exp_of_parents_ASLE	Exp_of_parents_ELE	Exp_of_parents_ILE	Exp_of_parents_ALE
N Valid	172	172	172	172	172
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	,9419	,8023	,3713	,8883	,6723
Median	1,0000	,8571	,2143	1,0000	,7143
Mode	1,00	1,00	,14	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation	,11741	,20661	,26441	,17635	,25607
Variance	,014	,043	,070	,031	,066
Range	,57	,86	,86	,86	,86

	Exp_of_school_ASLE	Exp_of_school_ISLE	Exp_of_school_ELE	Exp_of_school_ILE	Exp_of_school_ALE
N Valid	172	172	172	172	172
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	,7944	,8754	,2994	,8335	,6732
Median	,8571	,9286	,1429	,8571	,7143
Mode	1,00	1,00	,14	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation	,23611	,15418	,24904	,20886	,26793
Variance	,056	,024	,062	,044	,072
Range	,86	,71	,86	,86	,86

	Teacher autonomy_ISLE	Teacher autonomy_ASLE	Teacher autonomy_ELE	Teacher autonomy_ILE	Teacher autonomy_ALE
N Valid	172	172	172	172	172
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	,7540	,6599	,3387	,7064	,5714
Median	,7857	,6905	,2857	,7381	,6190
Mode	,86	,76	,14	,71	,14[a]
Std. Deviation	,15236	,17869	,20085	,15806	,21313
Variance	,023	,032	,040	,025	,045
Range	,86	,86	,86	,86	,83

Appendix L

Paired Samples T-test regarding the differences in the teachers' answers with respect to the exam types

	Beliefs / attitudes								
Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Beliefs_ISLE - Beliefs_ASLE	2,52907	7,93720	0,60521	1,33443	3,72371	4,179	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Beliefs_ASLE - Beliefs_ILE	-3,44767	6,70451	0,51121	-4,45678	-2,43857	-6,744	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Beliefs_ILE - Beliefs_ISLE	0,91860	6,19321	0,47223	-0,01354	1,85075	1,945	171	0,053
	Anxiety								
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Feelings_ISLE - Feelings_ASLE	-0,27907	2,75575	0,21012	-0,69384	0,13570	-1,328	171	0,186
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Feelings_ISLE - Feelings_ILE	-0,70349	2,71004	0,20664	-1,11138	-0,29560	-3,404	171	0,001
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Feelings_ASLE - Feelings_ILE	-0,42442	2,05767	0,15690	-0,73412	-0,11472	-2,705	171	0,008
	Test knowledge								
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Knowledge_of_test_ISLE - Knowledge_of_test_ASLE	1,19186	2,54856	0,19433	0,80827	1,57545	6,133	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Knowledge_of_test_ISLE - Knowledge_of_test_ILE	1,19186	2,49288	0,19008	0,81665	1,56707	6,270	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Knowledge_of_test_ASLE - Knowledge_of_test_ILE	0,00000	3,10065	0,23642	-0,46668	0,46668	0,000	171	1,000
Assessment									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Ways_of_assessment_ISLE - Ways_of_assessment_ASLE	3,25581	6,46029	0,49259	2,28347	4,22816	6,610	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Ways_of_assessment_ISLE - Ways_of_assessment_ILE	1,85465	4,94849	0,37732	1,10985	2,59945	4,915	171	0,000
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Ways_of_assessment_ASLE - Ways_of_assessment_ILE	-1,40116	6,43879	0,49095	-2,37027	-0,43205	-2,854	171	0,005
Teacher autonomy									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			

Pair		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Teacher autonomy_ISLE - Teacher autonomy_ASLE	3,95349	7,92274	0,60410	2,76103	5,14595	6,544	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Teacher autonomy_ISLE - Teacher autonomy_ILE	2,00000	5,99903	0,45742	1,09708	2,90292	4,372	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Teacher autonomy_ASLE - Teacher autonomy_ILE	-1,95349	7,39671	0,56399	-3,06677	-0,84020	-3,464	171	0,001

Student expectations									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_students_ISLE - Exp_of_students_ASLE	1,66860	4,86310	0,37081	0,93665	2,40056	4,500	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_students_ISLE - Exp_of_students_ILE	0,04070	3,55961	0,27142	-0,49506	0,57646	0,150	171	0,881

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_students_ISLE - Exp_of_students_ASLE	1,66860	4,86310	0,37081	0,93665	2,40056	4,500	171	0,000

Parent expectations									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_parents_ISLE - Exp_of_parents_ASLE	1,95349	2,85480	0,21768	1,52381	2,38317	8,974	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_parents_ISLE - Exp_of_parents_ILE	0,75000	2,03227	0,15496	0,44412	1,05588	4,840	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_parents_ASLE - Exp_of_parents_ILE	-1,20349	2,57732	0,19652	-1,59140	-0,81557	-6,124	171	0,000

School expectations									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_school_ISLE - Exp_of_school_ASLE	1,13372	2,83661	0,21629	0,70678	1,56066	5,242	171	0,000

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_school_ISLE - Exp_of_school_ILE	0,58721	2,29376	0,17490	0,24197	0,93245	3,357	171	0,001

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Exp_of_school_ASLE - Exp_of_school_ILE	-0,54651	2,56224	0,19537	-0,93216	-0,16087	-2,797	171	0,006

Results of the ANOVA analysis for the connection between exam types and languages taught

ISLE - Intermediate level school leaving exam									
Report									
Languages		Belief s_ISL E	Feelin gs_IS LE	Ways_of_a ssessment _ISLE	Knowledge _of_test_IS LE	Exp_of_st udents_I SLE	Exp_of_p arents_IS LE	Exp_of_s chool_IS LE	Ways_of_ teaching_I SLE
English	Mean	#### #	7,524 3	25,7573	20,5340	18,0583	13,1942	12,2816	31,3204
	N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103
	Std. Deviation	#### #	##### #	3,65542	1,54549	3,46361	1,63334	2,04085	6,59354
German	Mean	#### #	8,655 2	26,6207	20,7931	18,5172	13,3448	12,4138	33,1034
	N	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
	Std. Deviation	#### #	##### #	2,30549	0,61987	2,78543	1,67494	2,06185	5,97223
Other languages	Mean	#### #	8,325 0	25,7750	20,8500	16,8250	13,0500	12,0750	31,5250
	N	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
	Std. Deviation	#### #	##### #	3,23036	0,53349	3,57260	1,67867	2,53577	6,19341
Total	Mean	#### #	7,901 2	25,9070	20,6512	17,8488	13,1860	12,2558	31,6686
	N	172	172	172	172	172	172	172	172
	Std. Deviation	#### #	##### #	3,36521	1,25440	3,41828	1,64378	2,15855	6,39906

ANOVA Table			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
Beliefs_ISL E * Languages	Between Groups	(Combine d)	41,395	2	20,698	0,413	0,662		
	Within Groups		######	169	50,094				
	Total		######	171					
Feelings_I SLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combine d)	38,304	2	19,152	0,831	0,437		
	Within Groups		######	169	23,047				
	Total		######	171					
Ways_of_a ssessment _ISLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combine d)	17,777	2	8,889	0,783	0,459		
	Within Groups		######	169	11,353				
	Total		######	171					
Knowledge _of_test_IS	Between Groups	(Combine d)	3,580	2	1,790	1,139	0,322		

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
LE * Languages	Within Groups		######	169	1,571				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_students_ISLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	59,403	2	29,701	2,589	0,078		
	Within Groups		######	169	11,471				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_parents_ISLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	1,478	2	0,739	0,271	0,763		
	Within Groups		######	169	2,725				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_school_ISLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	2,100	2	1,050	0,223	0,800		
	Within Groups		######	169	4,702				
	Total		######	171					
Ways_of_teaching_ISLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	73,019	2	36,509	0,890	0,412		
	Within Groups		######	169	41,001				
	Total		######	171					

ASLE - Advanced level school leaving exam

Report

Languages		Beliefs_ASLE	Feelings_ASLE	Knowledge_of_test_ASLE	Ways_of_assessment_ASLE	Exp_of_students_ASLE	Exp_of_parents_ASLE	Exp_of_school_ASLE	Ways_of_teaching_ASLE
English	Mean	#####	8,0874	19,4757	22,8738	16,4466	11,2718	11,4951	28,1553
	N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103
	Std. Deviation	#####	#####	2,77893	6,21775	4,39413	2,66861	2,85215	7,03459
German	Mean	#####	7,9310	19,1724	20,7931	15,7931	10,7931	10,5862	27,7931
	N	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
	Std. Deviation	#####	#####	2,70012	7,16828	4,76879	3,05169	3,87775	7,36487
Other languages	Mean	#####	8,6000	19,6250	23,4250	15,7750	11,4500	10,5500	26,5250
	N	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
	Std. Deviation	#####	#####	3,14347	6,11802	5,59527	3,34319	3,86271	8,75298
Total	Mean	#####	8,1802	19,4593	22,6512	16,1802	11,2326	11,1221	27,7151
	N	172	172	172	172	172	172	172	172
	Std. Deviation	#####	#####	2,84154	6,38486	4,74213	2,89252	3,30553	7,50479

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Beliefs_ASLE * Languag	Between Groups	(Combined)	15,409	2	7,705	0,110	0,896	
	Within Groups		######	169	69,910			

es	Total			######	171				
Feelings_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	9,737	2	4,869	0,213	0,808		
	Within Groups		######	169	22,862				
	Total		######	171					
Knowledge_of_test_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	3,513	2	1,756	0,216	0,806		
	Within Groups		######	169	8,149				
	Total		######	171					
Ways_of_assessment_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	######	2	64,588	1,595	0,206		
	Within Groups		######	169	40,485				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_students_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	18,223	2	9,111	0,402	0,669		
	Within Groups		######	169	22,646				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_parents_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	7,651	2	3,825	0,454	0,636		
	Within Groups		######	169	8,420				
	Total		######	171					
Exp_of_school_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	35,754	2	17,877	1,649	0,195		
	Within Groups		######	169	10,844				
	Total		######	171					
Ways_of_teaching_ASLE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	76,793	2	38,396	0,679	0,508		
	Within Groups		######	169	56,534				
	Total		######	171					

Report

Languages		Beliefs_ILE	Feelings_ILE	Knowledge_of_test_ILE	Ways_of_assessment_ILE	Exp_of_students_ILE	Exp_of_parents_ILE	Exp_of_school_ILE	Ways_of_teaching_ILE
English	Mean	####	8,4369	19,6699	24,5728	18,0388	12,5534	12,0485	29,9126
	N	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	103
	Std. Deviation	####	#####	2,48284	4,26017	3,25974	2,30400	2,41879	6,22945
German	Mean	####	9,1724	19,8276	23,3793	18,2069	12,3448	11,9655	31,0690
	N	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
	Std. Deviation	####	#####	1,96521	4,83598	3,48855	2,55337	2,83452	5,49630
Other languages	Mean	####	8,6250	18,6500	23,2000	16,9250	12,2000	10,4750	28,0250
	N	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40

	Std. Deviation	#####	######	3,01747	5,72534	4,35824	2,83928	3,80949	8,10346
Total	Mean	#####	8,6047	19,4593	24,0523	17,8081	12,4360	11,6686	29,6686
	N	172	172	172	172	172	172	172	172
	Std. Deviation	#####	######	2,56690	4,74775	3,59228	2,46887	2,92410	6,63859

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Beliefs_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	######	2	81,409	1,692	0,187	
	Within Groups		######	169	48,107			
	Total		######	171				
Feelings_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	12,264	2	6,132	0,227	0,797	
	Within Groups		######	169	26,987			
	Total		######	171				
Knowledge_of_test_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	34,700	2	17,350	2,685	0,071	
	Within Groups		######	169	6,462			
	Total		######	171				
Ways_of_assessment_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	70,098	2	35,049	1,565	0,212	
	Within Groups		######	169	22,393			
	Total		######	171				
Exp_of_students_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	41,290	2	20,645	1,611	0,203	
	Within Groups		######	169	12,813			
	Total		######	171				
Exp_of_parents_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	3,888	2	1,944	0,316	0,729	
	Within Groups		######	169	6,144			
	Total		######	171				
Exp_of_school_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	74,413	2	37,206	4,531	0,012	
	Within Groups		######	169	8,211			
	Total		######	171				
Ways_of_teaching_ILE * Languages	Between Groups	(Combined)	######	2	85,530	1,963	0,144	
	Within Groups		######	169	43,580			
	Total		######	171				

Appendix N

Regression analysis for classroom practice (dependent variable) and washback factors (predictors)

Dependent variable: traditional language teaching approach

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7">ISLE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td></td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>Sig.</td><td colspan="3">Correlations</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td>Zero-order</td><td>VIF</td><td>Beta*r*100</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>(Constant)</td><td></td><td>0,000</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Anxiety_ISLE</td><td>0,332</td><td>0,000</td><td>0,345</td><td>1,006</td><td>11,4591383</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>RESOURCES_MATERIALS</td><td>0,173</td><td>0,016</td><td>0,199</td><td>1,006</td><td>3,42649052</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>14,8856288</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">ASLE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td></td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>Sig.</td><td colspan="3">Correlations</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td>Zero-order</td><td>VIF</td><td>Beta*r*100</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>(Constant)</td><td></td><td>0,000</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Ways_of_assessment_ASLE</td><td>-0,279</td><td>0,000</td><td>-0,313</td><td>1,027</td><td>8,73677818</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Anxiety_ASLE</td><td>0,191</td><td>0,008</td><td>0,247</td><td>1,030</td><td>4,70850448</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>RESOURCES_MATERIALS</td><td>0,183</td><td>0,010</td><td>0,199</td><td>1,003</td><td>3,63315571</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>17,0784384</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">ILE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Model</td><td></td><td>Standardized Coefficients</td><td>Sig.</td><td colspan="3">Correlations</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>Beta</td><td></td><td>Zero-order</td><td>VIF</td><td>Beta*r*100</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>(Constant)</td><td></td><td>0,000</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Knowledge_of_test_ILE</td><td>-0,265</td><td>0,000</td><td>-0,315</td><td>1,042</td><td>8,34381059</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Anxiety_ILE</td><td>0,246</td><td>0,001</td><td>0,272</td><td>1,009</td><td>6,71180718</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>RESOURCES_MATERIALS</td><td>0,150</td><td>0,036</td><td>0,199</td><td>1,033</td><td>2,97780363</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>18,0334214</td></tr>
</table>

Dependent variable: Communicative language teaching approach

ISLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
1	(Constant)		,000			
	Anxiety_ISLE	-,314	,000	-,314	1,000	9,86856779

ASLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
2	(Constant)		,000			
	Beliefs_ASLE	,224	,003	,244	1,016	5,48230649
	Anxiety_ASLE	-,158	,034	-,187	1,016	2,95631075
						8,43861724

ILE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		,000			
	Ways_of_assessment_ILE	,143	,066	,213	1,115	3,050238
	Anxiety_ILE	-,194	,009	-,209	1,024	4,06012876
	Exp_of_parents_ILE	,153	,047	,188	1,096	2,88230492
						9,99267168

Dependent variable: Exam-focused language teaching approach

ISLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		0,000			
	Exp_of_school_ISLE	0,309	0,000	0,267	1,076	8,24836641
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	0,216	0,003	0,211	1,006	4,56782113
	Anxiety_ISLE	-0,184	0,014	-0,085	1,081	1,55797252
						14,3741601

ASLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		0,000			
	Beliefs_EE	0,300	0,000	0,395	1,383	11,857
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	0,209	0,002	0,211	1,010	4,404
	Teacher autonomy_EE	0,195	0,015	0,365	1,387	7,118
						23,378

ILE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		0,000			
	Exp_of_students_ILE	0,296	0,000	0,384	1,299	11,3573107
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	0,212	0,002	0,211	1,002	4,47518376
	Teacher autonomy_ILE	0,179	0,023	0,314	1,299	5,62161473
						21,4541092

Appendix O

Regression analysis for classroom practice (dependent variable) and washback factors and ID variables (predictors)

Dependent variable: traditional language teaching approach

ISLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
6	(Constant)		,029			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,271	,000	,372	1,206	10,078455
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,268	,000	,266	1,189	7,1097133
	Anxiety_ISLE	-,199	,006	-,314	1,203	6,2652684
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,158	,028	-,063	1,225	0,9898557
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,173	,009	,202	1,033	3,4937791
	Budapest_ref_county	,136	,047	,228	1,102	3,0925336
a. Dependent Variable: CP_communicative						31,029605
ASLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
6	(Constant)		,358			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,300	,000	,372	1,141	11,154905
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,229	,002	,266	1,200	6,0743414
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,171	,018	-,063	1,216	1,0710145
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,181	,007	,202	1,038	3,6473518
	Budapest_ref_county	,182	,008	,228	1,070	4,1413941
	Beliefs_ASLE	,150	,031	,244	1,109	3,6585274
						29,747534
ILE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
6	(Constant)		,392			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,300	,000	,372	1,124	11,135876
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,253	,000	,266	1,180	6,7295811
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,168	,020	-,063	1,218	1,0514412
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,172	,010	,202	1,032	3,462957
	Budapest_ref_county	,192	,005	,228	1,082	4,3858722
	Ways_of_assessment_ILE	,167	,014	,213	1,073	3,558374
						30,324102

Dependent variable: communicative language teaching approach

ISLE Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		Beta*r*100
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	
6	(Constant)		,029			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,271	,000	,372	1,206	10,078455
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,268	,000	,266	1,189	7,1097133
	Anxiety_ISLE	-,199	,006	-,314	1,203	6,2652684
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,158	,028	-,063	1,225	0,9898557
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,173	,009	,202	1,033	3,4937791
	Budapest_ref_country	,136	,047	,228	1,102	3,0925336
a						31,029605

ASLE Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		Beta*r*100
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	
6	(Constant)		,358			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,300	,000	,372	1,141	11,154905
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,229	,002	,266	1,200	6,0743414
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,171	,018	-,063	1,216	1,0710145
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,181	,007	,202	1,038	3,6473518
	Budapest_ref_country	,182	,008	,228	1,070	4,1413941
	Beliefs_ASLE	,150	,031	,244	1,109	3,6585274
						29,747534

ILE Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		Beta*r*100
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	
6	(Constant)		,392			
	Intrinsic_motivation	,300	,000	,372	1,124	11,135876
	FURTHER_TRAINING_COURSES	,253	,000	,266	1,180	6,7295811
	Extrinsic_motivation	-,168	,020	-,063	1,218	1,0514412
	TEACHING_EXPERIENCE	,172	,010	,202	1,032	3,462957
	Budapest_ref_country	,192	,005	,228	1,082	4,3858722
	Ways_of_assessment_ILE	,167	,014	,213	1,073	3,558374
						30,324102

Dependent variable: exam-focused language teaching approach

ISLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		,000			
	Exp_of_school_ISLE	,309	,000	,267	1,076	8,2483664
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	,216	,003	,211	1,006	4,5678211
	Feelings_ISLE	-,184	,014	-,085	1,081	1,5579725
a. Dependent Variable: CP_exam_focused						14,37416

ASLE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		,000			
	Beliefs_ASLE	,300	,000	,395	1,383	11,856592
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	,209	,002	,211	1,010	4,4040589
	Teacher autonomy_ASLE	,195	,015	,365	1,387	7,1177852
a. Dependent Variable: CP_exam_focused						23,378436

ILE						
Model		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Correlations		
		Beta		Zero-order	VIF	Beta*r*100
3	(Constant)		,000			
	Exp_of_students_ILE	,296	,000	,384	1,299	11,357311
	RESOURCES_MATERIALS	,212	,002	,211	1,002	4,4751838
	Teacher autonomy_ILE	,179	,023	,314	1,299	5,6216147
a. Dependent Variable: CP_exam_focused						21,454109

Appendix P

Descriptive statistics of washback factors as assessed by students

Statistics		Knowledge_about_test_ISLE	Knowledge_about_test_A SLE	Knowledge_about_test_ILE
N	Valid	423	423	423
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		0,8185	0,6980	0,8795
Median		0,9048	0,7619	1,0000
Mode		1,00	1,00	1,00
Std. Deviation		0.23005	0,2679	0,18914
Variance		0,053	0,072	0,036
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Statistics		Think_about_test_ISLE	Think_about_test_ASLE	Think_about_test_ILE
N	Valid	423	423	423
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		0,6851	0,7128	0,7276
Median		0,6786	0,7500	0,7500
Mode		0,64	0,86	0,86
Std. Deviation		0,20326	0,19890	0,18958
Variance		0,041	0,040	0,036
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Statistics		Exp_towards_assessment_IS LE	Exp_towards_assessment _ASLE	Exp_towards_assessment_I LE
N	Valid	423	423	423
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		0,7373	0,6064	0,6341
Median		0,8095	0,6190	0,6190
Mode		1,00	,43a	0,43
Std. Deviation		0,23728	0,25027	0,24485
Variance		0,056	0,063	0,060
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Statistics		Student_rel_exp_ISLE	Student_rel_exp_ASLE	Student_rel_exp_ILE
N	Valid	423	423	423
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		0,7473	0,5944	0,7631

Median		0,8286	0,6000	0,8286
Mode		1,00	0,31	0,83
Std. Deviation		0,22146	0,23685	0,19795
Variance		0,049	0,056	0,039
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Statistics				
		Anxiety_ISLE	Anxiety_ASLE	Anxiety_ILE
N	Valid	407	407	407
	Missing	16	16	16
Mean		0,4750	0,5140	0,4903
Median		0,4643	0,5000	0,4643
Mode		0,14	0,14	0,14
Std. Deviation		0,25431	0,25873	0,25418
Variance		0,065	0,067	0,065
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Statistics				
		Att_tow_learning_ISLE	Att_tow_learning_ASLE	Att_tow_learning_ILE
N	Valid	423	423	423
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		0,6774	0,6774	0,6774
Median		0,7143	0,7143	0,7143
Mode		0,76	0,76	0,76
Std. Deviation		0,17607	0,17607	0,17607
Variance		0,031	0,031	0,031
Range		0,86	0,86	0,86

Appendix Q

Paired Samples T-test regarding the differences in the students' answers with respect to the exam types

	what students think about the test								
		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Think_about_test_ISLE - Think_about_test_ASLE	-0,77541	2,90761	0,14137	-1,05330	-0,49753	-5,485	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Think_about_test_ISLE - Think_about_test_ILE	-1,19149	2,99664	0,14570	-1,47788	-0,90510	-8,178	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Think_about_test_ASLE - Think_about_test_ILE	-0,41608	3,12032	0,15172	-0,71429	-0,11786	-2,742	422	0,006

	What students know about the test								
		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Knowledge_about_test_ISLE - Knowledge_about_test_ASLE	2,53191	4,02284	0,19560	2,14745	2,91638	12,945	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Knowledge_about_test_ISLE - Knowledge_about_test_ILE	-1,28132	3,75920	0,18278	-1,64059	-0,92205	-7,010	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	

Pair		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Knowledge_about_test_ASLE - Knowledge_about_test_ILE	-3,81324	4,90967	0,23872	-4,28246	-3,34402	-15,974	422	0,000

Expectations towards assessment

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Exp_towards_assessment_ISLE - Exp_towards_assessment_ASLE	2,74704	4,53630	0,22056	2,31351	3,18058	12,455	422	0,000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Exp_towards_assessment_ISLE - Exp_towards_assessment_ILE	2,16548	4,53904	0,22070	1,73168	2,59928	9,812	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Exp_towards_assessment_ASLE - Exp_towards_assessment_ILE	-0,58156	4,73390	0,23017	-1,03398	-0,12914	-2,527	422	0,012

Studenst related expectation

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Student_rel_exp_ISLE - Student_rel_exp_ASLE	5,35225	10,12955	0,49252	4,38416	6,32034	10,867	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Student_rel_exp_ISLE - Student_rel_exp_ILE	-0,55083	5,85299	0,28458	-1,11020	0,00855	-1,936	422	0,054

		Paired Differences							
			Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean			Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Student_rel_exp_ASLE - Student_rel_exp_ILE	-5,90307	8,27991	0,40258	-6,69439	-5,11176	-14,663	422	0,000

Anxiety

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	(2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Anxiety_ISLE - Anxiety_ASLE	-1,09091	5,12783	0,25418	-1,59058	-0,59124	-4,292	406	0,000

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Anxiety_ISLE - Anxiety_ILE	-0,42998	3,76062	0,18641	-0,79642	-0,06353	-2,307	406	0,022

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Anxiety_ASLE - Anxiety_ILE	0,66093	5,18695	0,25711	0,15551	1,16636	2,571	406	0,011

Attitude towards learning

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Att_tow_learning_ISLE - Anxiety_ASLE	14,06143	9,44878	0,46836	13,14071	14,98214	30,023	406	0,000

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Att_tow_learning_ISLE - Att_tow_learning_ILE	1,01418	4,25656	0,20696	0,60738	1,42099	4,900	422	0,000

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Att_tow_learning_ASLE - Att_tow_learning_ILE	-2,52246	5,54720	0,26971	-3,05261	-1,99231	-9,352	422	0,000

Appendix R

Paired Samples T-test regarding the differences in the students' and teachers' answers with respect classroom practice

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
...does the teacher speak Hungarian?	Equal variances assumed	90,647	0,000	-7,012	593	0,000	-0,505	0,072	-0,647	-0,364
	Equal variances not assumed			-8,263	468,475	0,000	-0,505	0,061	-0,626	-0,385
...do you work in pairs?	Equal variances assumed	1,091	0,297	5,184	593	0,000	0,380	0,073	0,236	0,524
	Equal variances not assumed			5,661	388,334	0,000	0,380	0,067	0,248	0,512
...does you teacher make you practice grammar rules?	Equal variances assumed	2,222	0,137	-4,030	593	0,000	-0,274	0,068	-0,408	-0,141
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,109	330,839	0,000	-0,274	0,067	-0,406	-0,143
...do you translate sentences or texts?	Equal variances assumed	47,103	0,000	-5,608	593	0,000	-0,454	0,081	-0,614	-0,295
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,353	425,137	0,000	-0,454	0,072	-0,595	-0,314
...are there tasks that are interesting for you?	Equal variances assumed	44,036	0,000	6,607	593	0,000	0,488	0,074	0,343	0,633
	Equal variances not assumed			8,024	503,105	0,000	0,488	0,061	0,368	0,607
...do you prepare especially for the school leaving/language exam?	Equal variances assumed	0,502	0,479	-9,050	593	0,000	-0,696	0,077	-0,847	-0,545
	Equal variances not assumed			-8,870	303,989	0,000	-0,696	0,078	-0,850	-0,542
...do you have a feeling of success?	Equal variances assumed	37,202	0,000	0,735	593	0,463	0,049	0,067	-0,082	0,180
	Equal variances			0,876	481,106	0,382	0,049	0,056	-0,061	0,159

	not assumed									
...do you work in groups?	Equal variances assumed	34,894	0,000	3,055	593	0,002	0,260	0,085	0,093	0,427
	Equal variances not assumed			3,383	401,865	0,001	0,260	0,077	0,109	0,411
...do you speak in the target language?	Equal variances assumed	14,367	0,000	3,868	593	0,000	0,270	0,070	0,133	0,408
	Equal variances not assumed			4,409	431,584	0,000	0,270	0,061	0,150	0,391
... do you play games?	Equal variances assumed	24,507	0,000	9,019	593	0,000	0,727	0,081	0,568	0,885
	Equal variances not assumed			10,156	418,828	0,000	0,727	0,072	0,586	0,867
...do you read authentic texts in the target language?	Equal variances assumed	18,400	0,000	-1,932	593	0,054	-0,156	0,081	-0,315	0,003
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,127	396,207	0,034	-0,156	0,073	-0,300	-0,012
...do you role-play everyday situation (e.g. shopping)?	Equal variances assumed	63,509	0,000	7,990	593	0,000	0,656	0,082	0,495	0,817
	Equal variances not assumed			9,353	460,939	0,000	0,656	0,070	0,518	0,794
...do you specifically practice listening comprehension tasks?	Equal variances assumed	1,692	0,194	1,822	593	0,069	0,119	0,065	-0,009	0,248
	Equal variances not assumed			1,927	359,753	0,055	0,119	0,062	-0,002	0,241
...does the teacher apply written task types similar to those of the various language exams?	Equal variances assumed	18,033	0,000	1,903	593	0,058	0,134	0,071	-0,004	0,273
	Equal variances not assumed			2,159	427,003	0,031	0,134	0,062	0,012	0,256
...does the teacher motivate you by referring to the language exams?	Equal variances assumed	6,890	0,009	2,563	593	0,011	0,206	0,080	0,048	0,364
	Equal variances not assumed			2,857	408,461	0,004	0,206	0,072	0,064	0,348
...does the reference to the language exams generate anxiety in you?	Equal variances assumed	12,541	0,000	4,097	593	0,000	0,349	0,085	0,182	0,517
	Equal variances not assumed			4,672	432,030	0,000	0,349	0,075	0,202	0,496

Appendix S

Teachers' answers to open-ended items

Item 18

Soroljon fel három dolgot, amin változtat ha diákjai nyelvvizsgája nem sikerül

tanulás-módszertani váltást javaslok
tanulás-módszertani váltást javaslok
attól függ, hogy melyik része nem sikerül
több gyakorlás, több fogalmazás írás, azok megbeszélése
tempó, részletesebb magyarázat, több gyakorlás
felkészülőanyagok
sikertelen vizsgarészre nagyobb hangsúly; nem komplexre megy, csak szóbelire v. írásbelire egy időben, gyakrabb kontaktórák
sikertelen vizsgarész függvénye
többet beszélgetünk, többet magnózunk, többet írunk
tanulónként változik
ÍRÁSBELI- SZÓBELI TANANYAG ARÁNYA
módszerek, több gyakorlás, több feladat
feladattípus, ismétlés, több gyakorlás
csak akkor küldöm el vizsgázni, ha látom, hogy menni fog neki. Volt már, hogy a tanácsom ellenére (vagy mert már közel volt a felvételi) elmentek, nem is sikerült sajnos a középfokú, nem volt elég idő a felkészülésre. Később több ideje volt, egyetem alatt meg tudta csinálni.
több gyakorlás, esetleg újból magyarázat, szókincs elmélyítése
több gyakorló feladat, szókincs, szóbeli gyakorlás
Több beszéd, több levél írás, több hallás utáni szövegértés
szókincs, beszédfordulatok, nyelvtan ismétlése és megerősítése
további gyakorlás
Minden diàkom nyelvvizsgàja elsőre sikerült
másik vizsgát keresünk, ami illik a személyiségéhez, ha dolgozatba betekintéskor kiderül, hol volt több gond, azt gyakoroljuk, még több bátorságot és önbizalmat öntök beléjük, mert ,ha ez sérül egy sikertelen vizsga kapcsán, az is hátraveti később. (a kudarc többeket nem motivál)
több gyakorlás, nyelvtani részek részletesebb átismétlése,
motiváció, egyetemre bejutás, pontszámok
nyelvtani kérdések tisztázása, és azok alkalmazása, beszédkészség fejlesztés (diktafonnal rögzítés, majd a beszélgetés kielemzése, javaslatok és alternatívák megbeszélése), a Strategic Interaction módszer alkalmazása (csoporttal)
levélírás, szövegértés, nyelvhelyesség
nem szoktam, nem rajtam múlik
Egyéni konzultáció száma, más feladatsorok, szóbeli témák
módszer, feladattípusok, hangsúlyok
gyakorlási módszerek, számonkérések, beszédkészség fejlesztése

a tanítás módszere, a számonkérés módja, a házi feladatok mennyisége

gyakorlás mennyisége, számonkérés gyakorisága, egyéni foglalkozás

Szókincs bővítés, több típusfeladat, levél írás gyakorlás

Magyar nyelvű fogalmazási készségfejlesztése, töltelékszavak ismerete, érdekes társalgásicordulatok begyakorlása

megnézem melyik feladat nem sikerült és miért, s azt gyakoroljuk többet

nem küldöm el vizsgázni, ha nem vagyok meggyőződve arról, hogy sikeres vizsgát fog tenni

A gyenge eredményű készségek fejlesztése.

íráskészség javítása, szókincsbővítés, beszédkészség javítása

szókincset bővítek

Attól függ melyik komponense, azt többet gyakoroljuk

Ismetetlen szerkezetek tanulása, több segítsèg, nyomonkövetès

Esetleg másfajta nyelvvizsga rendszert javaslok, vagy a gyenge pontokat erősítjük, vagy a vizsgatechnikát fejleszjük.

Önértékelés realitása, több sajtó, internetes tartalmak olvasása, hallgatása .

Más módszerrel próbálkozok; más típusú nyelvvizsgával próbálkozok

gyakoroltatás, diákok motiválása, feladattípusok

a legkevesebb pontot elért vizsgarészre nagyobb hangsúly, jól sikerültre kevesebb hangsúly, további gyakorlás

exam skill, a sikertelen készség kielemzése, és még több gyakorlás

szóbeli gyakorlás mennyisége, íráskészség fejlesztése, hallás utáni értés fejlesztése

másik nyelvvizsga típus választása, óraszám emelése, módszerek

több szövegalkotás, hallott szövegértés fejlesztése, tematikus ismétlés

több feladat, ismétlés, több szóbeli gyakorlás

feladat tipusok gyakorlása - nem jellemző, hogy nem sikerül nekik

jobban, alaposabban felkészülök, többet gyakoroljuk a gyenge készséget, pszichésen is felkészítem a tanulót a vizsgahelyzetre

Még több hallás-értés feladat beiktatása.

gyakorlás mennyisége, több hallásértés, több olvasásértés feladat

Bár nem túl nagy minta, de eddig mindig sikerült (1/1).

nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetek arra a készségre, amin "elbukott" a diák, több időt szánok rá, még nagyobb figyelemmel fordulok felé, hogy érezze fontos, és másodjára sikerülni fog

Egyéntől függ, azt a részterületet gyakoroltatnám többet, amelyből alacsonyabb pontszámot ért el.

Beszédértés, szövegértés, levélírás - többet mindegyikből

feladatok összetétele, mennyisége

feladattípusok, módszer,

nyelvtan újraátbeszélése,,írásbeli- és szóbeli kompetenciák erősítése, szókincsfejlesztés

Ahol hiányosság van, azt még gyakoroljuk

attól függ, hogy a vizsga mely része nem sikerült szükség szint nyelvi "alapozás" ill. a vizsga- feladattípusok jobb megismerése van, akinél "csak" önbizalomnövelés, vizsgázási technika fejlesztése

egyes feladattípusok nagyobb számú gyakorlása

tanmenet, differenciálás, óramenet

szigorúság, házi feladatok mennyisége, motiváció

adott feladattípusok gyakorlása, szókincsfejlesztés, feladattípusok tudatosítása

Szókincs bővítése, további szövegértési és nyelvtani gyakorlatok

Több ír ásbeli gyakkorlás pl levél

általában sikerül, mert csak akkor "küldöm" őket, ha úgy érzem kellően felkészültek; ha mégsem, maradunk a kiválasztott nyelvvizsgánál és tovább gyakoroljuk az adott feladattípusokat:-)

feladattípusok gyakorlásra szánt idő ellenőrzés

Elmélyedés a vizsgakövetelményekben, Felkészítő szakirodalom cseréje/keresése, Több kontakt óra.

semmin, tovább gyakorolnak

Több egyéni konzultáció, a sikertelenség okainak feltárása, célirányos gyakorlás (típusfeladatok)

szókincs, nyelvtan, kommunikáció

Felkészülés menete, vizsga típusa, pluszórák

feladatok mennyisége, gyakorlás időtartama, feladattípusok gyakorisága

több szóbeli, több hangzóanyag, több szókincsfejlesztés

Hallásértés feladatok, szókincs tanítása, több olvasott szöveg

A szövegalkotási feladatok, a hallásértés feladatok és a nyelvtani feladatok számát növelem.

Nem jellemző, hogy sikertelenül vizsgáznak. Mivel vizsgáztató tanárként jól ismerem az elvárásokat, akkor javaslom a vizsgát diákjaimnak, ha kellő számú próbavizsgát sikeresen teljesítettek.

több writing gyakorlás, több szóbeli gyakorlás, több pszichológia és vizsgatrükk

egyéni gyakorlásra több időt fordítunk, a gyengébb készségre nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetünk, online gyakorló oldalakat javaslok nekik

Magyarázat, gyakoroltatás, számonkérés

Hozzáállás, ösztönző erő, munkamorál

1. célzottan azt a vizsgarészt erősítem, ami sikertelen volt, 2. önbizalmat növelek, 3. szókincsfejlesztés

Többet olvasunk,hallgatunk ,beszélgetünk.(minden eset más)

tankönyv, feladattípus, problémás területek átvizsgálása

tempó

Még több gyakorlás szükséges, nem változtatok semmin.

Azt a részt gyakoroljuk ,ami nem sikerült.

Tapasztalatom alapján maga a sikertelenség ad egy új motivációt a diáknak, a siekertelenség oka többnyire a gyakorlás hiánya

óraszám, motiváltság, tanári felkészültség

Nos, attól függ, melyik rész nem megy. DE: nem engedem el kölyköt vizsgázni, ha esély van arra, hogy nem sikerül, azaz ha a megfelelő szint alatt van.

anyag mennyisége, feladattípusok száma, saját tematika revizionálása - esetleges korrekciója

Nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetek az íráskészség, a kommunikációs készség fejlesztésére, illetve a hallott szöveg értését mérő feladatokra.

Motiváltabbak lesznek, tudatosabban készülnek, vizsgarutinjuk lesz

Módszer,tartalom,gyakorlás

Készségeket erősítem, más feladatokkal próbálkozok, egyénre szabott feladatokkal

Gyakorló feladatok összetétele, gyakorlásra szánt idő, feladatok mennyisége

(vizsgarésztől függ) lexikai bővítés, további nyelvtani gyakorlat, további hallás és írás

Item 27.

Kérjük, röviden fejtse ki, hogy a fenti vizsgák milyen hatással vannak nyelvtanári munkájára.

motiváló
motiváló
motiváló
motiváló
nincsenek hatással
nincsenek hatással
A tanítási módszereim állandó fejlesztését igényli a felkészítés.
A tanítási módszereim állandó fejlesztését igényli a felkészítés.
pozitív
Sikerélményt ad és motivál, ha sikerül a tanítványaimnak a nyelvvizsga.
külső kényszer
nyelvtanítás helyett vizsgázni tanítom őket
célzott órai munka
ösztönző
nem mindig segítik
Befolyásolják a feladatválasztást.
irányelvet adnak
Az előző kérdésekben azért írtam 4-est mindenhova, mert teljesen attól függ az értékelés, hogy milyen vizsgára készülünk éppen, aszerint pontozom a diákok munkáját. Az angol nyelvtagozatos diákokkal néhány hónapot szánunk 9-ben hogy közösen készüljünk a B2-es nyelvvizsgára, 11-ben pedig a C1-es nyelvvizsgára, illetve emelt szintű érettségire. 12-ben már nem tanulnak angolt. A franciás csoportokban 11-től mindig olyan dolgozatokat íratok, aminek az egyik része előző évi érettségik hallgatós és írásbeli feladataiból áll, hogy szokják a vizsga felépítését.
több felkészülés, több számonkérés
A diák az érettségit gyakran túlélni kívánja, a nyelvvizsgát viszont megszerezni. Ezért akinél motiváció az állami nyelvvizsga, annál nagyon jól lehet célként alkalmazni. Aki ettől távol van, de érettségit szeretne, annál annak a kritériumait használom motiválásra.
szisztematikus felkészítést igényelnek
Emelt szintű én részt veszek
a vizsgák változásával (kevesebb nagyon mélyreható nyelvtani ismeretre van szükség) a hangsúly áttevődik a szöveg- és hallásértésre, beszédre és íráskészségre. Az előzőekhez: ez a központi, hivatalos besorolás. Szerintem az emelt érettségi kicsivel nehezebb, mint a közép nyelvvizsga, és még a százalék sem mindegy. valamint, hogy mely vizsgát javaslom, függ a gyerektől!!!!
Igyekszem az állandóan változó követelményeknek megfelelni, de ilyen körülmények között ez elég nehéz (idei érettségi változásokról még mindig nem tudjuk az összes konkrétumot, így hogy vár el bárki tőlünk minőségi, eredményes munkát???)
Legfőképpen az érettségi követelményei meghatározóak, hiszen a diákok továbbtanulása a legfontosabb.
Mint korábban jeleztem, nem végzek nyelvi érettségire történő felkészítést
Ezek követelményeihez igazítom a munkámban használt anyagokat.

267

egy-egy csoportomban 2-3-4 felé differenciáltan dolgozom, amikor szükséges.

Egyre inkább nagy a nyomás arra, hogy nyelvvizsgára készítsünk.

Hasznos támpontot adnak az értékeléshez és a tanítandó képességek, a tananyag mennyisége és minősége terén

Sajnos sok esetben csak a kimenetel (vizsga számít), kevés idő jut a tudatos nyelvfejlesztésre

A középszintű nyelvi érettségi feladattípusait begyakoroltatom a diákokkal, a középfokú nyelvvizsga feladataival megismertetem a diákjaimat.

Az érettségire mindig könyvön kívüli érdekes feladatokat próbálok gyakorlásnak adni, új anyagokkal ismerkedem-net (segítségével)

A tematikát követem, a tanulótól függ, melyik vizsgát javaslom.

Egyetemi hallgatókat a szak követelményeinek megfelelő nyelvvizsgára kell készítenem

A kimeneti követelményeket szem előtt tartom.

A várható írásbeli és szóbeli feladattípusokat és értékelési szempontokat használom fel a gyakorlásban és számonkérésben. A normál tanórákon ez a középszintű érettségi, az emelt érettségi előkészítőn az emelt szintű érettségi, illetve a diákjaim által kiválasztott középfokú nyelvvizsga.

Naprakésznek kell lenni, a változásokat ismerni kell

Diákjaim a nyelvvzsgákat rèszesítik előnyben a továbbtanulás miatt. Megszerzèse után sokan leállnak a tanulással, nehezen motiválhatók az eredmènyes èrettsègire.

A feladattípusok pontos megismertetése illetve azok gyakorlására sor kerül a 12 évfolyam során, de minden előzetes munka a korábbi években összeadva tulajdonképpen az érettségit/nyelvvizsgát készíti elő.

Nagy mértékben meghatározzák, főleg mikor már elértek a diákok egy olyan szintet, hogy vizsgára készülhetnek.

Meghatározza a mindennapi tanítást 10-11.évfolyamtól, hiszen alapvetően a középszintű érettségire készítünk. Ennek feladat típusait innentől rendszeresen gyakoroljuk.

A középiskola érettségivel zárul , tehát nekem a feladatom erre felkészíteni a tanulót középszinten. Emelt szinten akinek szüksége van rá. Nálunk a két tannyelvű osztályokban nagy általánossággal emelteznek.

Mivel diákjaim továbbtanulásra készülnek, a vizsgafelkészülés egy ponttól kezdve napi munkám része. Ez elvárás a szülők felől is, és diákjaim egyetemre jutási esélyeit is növeli 2020-tól pedig kötelező előírás a felvételihez a B2 szintű nyelvvizsga.

rendszeres, tudatos munka

Mindig inspiráló, jó visszajelzés, jó tapasztalat.

Mindenképpen pozitív. Visszajelzést kapok az eredményekkel.

alapvetően meghatározza, noha nem elsősorban vizsgára készítek fel, hanem a kreatív nyelvhasználat megtanítására törekszem

nagy motiváló hatással vannak és többen a nyelvvizsgát váltják ki az emelt szintű érettségivel

Ha van olyan diákom, akinek kifejezetten a nyelvvizsga a célja, akkor arra készítem fel. Egyébként pedig az érettségi ad támpontot a követelményekhez és szívesen használom a feladatait gyakorlásra.

nagy az elvárás a diákok oldaláról felém, hogy a lehető legjobb felkészítést kapják: nagy precíz munkát kell végeznem, hogy "viszonylag" nyugodtan tudjanak majd a megmérettetés elé álni

A nyelvvizsgázás plusz motivációt jelent tanítványaim számára.

Nem tartom igazságosnak, hogy pl a német nyelvű érettségi írásbeli része sokkal hosszabb és nehezebb. Emiatt születnek írásban gyengébb jegyek. Nem értem, miért nem egységesek a nyelvi érettségik,ha nyelvvizsgák nagyjából azok.

A gimnáziumban az elsődleges cél a középszintű nyelvi érettségire való felkészítés. Aki nyelvvizsgázni, emelt szinten érettségizni szeretne, azok plusz órában ill. plusz feladatokkal tudnak erre felkészülni.Természetesen ez a tanárnak is plusz feladat.

Motivál, a tanóra és a tanmenetben az érettségi fontos cél, de minden diák érje el a középfokú nyelvvizsgát. Az emelt szint mint felvételi tantárgy is fontos.

Folyamatosan követem a változásokat. Új könyveket szerzek be a felkészítéshez.

Elsősorban mint kimeneti vizsga, a középszintű érettségi a meghatározó esetemben. Ezt mindenkinek le kel tennie (kivétel: felmentéssel rendelkezők). A sikeres vizsga letételéhez igazítom nyelvtanári tevékenységemet (német). Emelt szintű vizsgát iskolánkban nem tesznek a diákok.

Használom a korábbi feladatsorokat és gyakoroltatom az rgyes tipusfeladatokat

egy adott szint elérése után differenciálni kell, annak megfelelően, kinek milyen igénye van

Folyamatosan készítem tanulóimat a középszintű érettségire. Enelt szint érettségire pedig a magántanítványaimat. Így naprakész ismeretekkel kell rendelkeznem a feladattípusokról választható tankönyvekről, segédanyagokról.

A felkészítés fókuszában a feladattípusok gyakorlását hamar bevezetem, természetesen a tanulók nyelvi szintjéhez igazítva. Fontosnak tartom, hogy minden egyes vizsgatípus feladataiban kellő jártasságot és magabiztosságot szerezzenek. Emellett, természetesen, a tananyag figyelembe vételével más módokon, más feladattípusokon keresztül is fejlesztem tanulóim nyelvtudását.

hogy az érettséginek megfelelő feladatokat gyakoroljuk, akkor is ha én nem feltétlenül tartom némelyik típust fontosnak

A középszintű érettségire felkészítés határozza meg munkám legnagyobb részét. Az emelt szintű érettségire való felkészítés fakultációs és egyéni felkészülés keretében történik. Ez jóval kevesebb óraszámot, de intenzívebb munkát jelent.

Mivel a diákok célja ezen vizsgák teljesítése, ezért fontos motiváló tényező a nyelvtanulás folyamatában.

inspirálnak, kutatok új feladatok, módszerek után

Kompetenciák fejlesztése a fő célom

A középszintű érettségi követelményeire építem a napi működésemet, az emelt szintű érettségi igénye általában csak germanisztikát választó diák esetében kerül elő.

A középszintű érettségi semennyire nem befolyásol, az emelt szint előrehozott érettséginél okzhat jelentősebb többletmunkát, mivel egy évet be kell hoznunk.

A vizsgák követelményei határozzák meg a tantervem kimenetelét.

Alapvetően jó hatással, mert ösztönzik diákjainkat a tanulásra

Típusfeladatokat oldunk meg, illetve az órákra való felkészülésben is a diákok célját tartom szem előtt.

A motivált tanulókkal öröm dolgozni,ha tudják,mi a cél;,homogén csoporttal kellemes a munka,de iskolai tanórán a "szimultán szórakoztatás"nehezebb.

motiválóak, kihívást jelentők

Az előírt témaköröket dolgozzuk ki a tanulókkal,és gyakoroljuk a szituációkat, érvelést.

Ahhoz, hogy diákom felkészüljön egy vizsgára, ismernie kell a vizsga feladattípusait, a vizsga követelményeit és a vizsga értékelési rendszerét. Nyelvvizsgák esetében mindig hangsúlyozom, hogy a választásnak az alapján kell történnie, hogy a vizsga feladatai testhez állóak-e a vizsgázó számára. Mivel a vizsgák a beszélt nyelvet mérik (írásban és szóban is) nyelvtanári munkámat annyiban befolyásolják, hogy a vizsga előtt pár hónappal célzott vizsgafeladatokat oldunk meg. Az érettségi esetében pedig természetesen már az elejétől kezdve tudatosítjuk, hogy a tankönyv tesztjei, hasonlítanak az érettségi feladattípusokra.

Motiválhatnak; külső értékelési szempont szerint, objektíven kapok visszajelzést a diákjaimról

Nos, a közös (tanár - diák) munka elején NEM a vizsga a fő profil, hanem konkrétan nyelvtanítás, a diák által óhajtott szint elérése. Persze a témaköröket szem előtt tartjuk, de a jó nyelvvizsga lefedi a világról szerzett ismereteket. Mikor megvan a szint, akkor kezdünk el az általa választott vizsgatípusra gyakorlolni. Amíg tanuló nem birtokolja az áhított szintet, teljesen értelmetlen dolog vizsgára drillezni.

jelenleg semmilyen, szakiskolásaim és technikusaim vannak

Visszajelzést adnak

A feladattípusoknál meghatározóak főleg.

A hétköznapi nyelvtanítás része a vizsgákra való felkészítés. Sajnos állandó versenyfutás az idővel és a végtelen tananyaggal. Nagyon kevés az idő az elmélyítésre, az ismeretek élményszerű alkalmazására. Ehhez a diákoktól nagyon sok önálló munkára van szükség.

Az érettségi írásbelik, amiket én javítok, vagy látom a teljesítményt, a szóbeli középszintű érettségi, ahol én vizsgáztatok.

A végzős diákjaim 80 %-a rendelkezik középfokú nyelvvizsgával, 20 %-a pedig felsőfokúval. Ez cél, tehát ezt szeretnénk elérni.

Nyelvet tanítok, a vizsgafelkészítés csak az utolsó szakasz

célirányosabbá teszik

feladatiposok gyakorlása; témakörök ismétlése.

Alapvetően vizsgafelkészítésből áll a tanári munkám....

motiválnak a felkészítésben

Megadja a konkrét szintet, amihez viszonyítva tudok számonkérni, osztályozni.

A vizsga tételeit szem előtt tartva tanítom a nyelvet, folyton kihangsúlyozva a vizsgán elvárt tudásszintet és pontozást.

a vizsgára fel kell készíteni a tanulókat, nagy előny, ha a vizsga típusfeladatait ismeri a tanuló. ezeket kell gyakoroltatni. Az itt előforduló nyelvtanra és szókincsre kerül a hangsúly.

értékeli a munkánkat, jelzi, hogy mit fejlesszek többet

Motiválnak és sikerélményhez juttatnak.

Emelt szintű érettségit csak alapos tudással rendelkező diáknak ajánlom. Emelt szintű érettségire való felkészítés nagyobb félkészülést igényel számomra és nagyobb megterhelést a diákok számára. Mivel mindkettő vizsgában az írásbeli rész ér több pontot, így erre - sajnos - nagyobb hangsúlyt kell fektetni.

Minden csoportommal gyakoroljuk a szóbeli témaköröket és a nyelvvizsga típusfeladatait, minden héten gyakorolunk. Sokat beszélünk angolul, az adott témákról. Megtanuljuk a kifejtés és kérdés módszereit. A tankönyv szerinti tananyag mellett heti két órában gyakran érettségi típusfeladatokat oldunk meg.

Mivel az említett vizsgákra (nálam elsődleges a minél magasabb szintű nyelvvizsga elérése (max. C1 szintű)) készítem a diákjaimat, a vizsgákon előforduló feladattípusokat gyakoroljuk szóban és írásban egyaránt. A sikeres nyelvvizsga után pedig az a cél, hogy minél magasabb százalékot érjenek el a választott szinten az érettségi vizsgán. Minden vizsgatípus feladataival találkoznak többször is. A fénymásolatok mellett olyan tankönyveket választunk, amelyek segítik a felkészülést, s amellett, hogy feladatokat gyakorlunk, bővül a szókincsük, és az íráskészségük is.

Már a tankönyv kiválasztásnál a nyelvvizsgákra és ezzel átfedésben levő érettségi követelményekre felkészítő könyvek preferálása, a feladatok összeállításánál, használatánál a később elvárt készségek fejlesztése

ösztönöznek az új típusú és sokrétű feladatok felkutatására, sokszínű feladatok használatára

Befolyásolják a felkészítésem, visszahatnak a tanítási folyamatra, attól függően, hogy milyen céljai vannak a diákjaimnak. Ahogy haladunk a tanulási folyamatban egyre fontosabbá válnak, de az első években nem igazán, inkább csak differenciáltan.

Motivációs cél.

Tudom, hogy ha egy diák emelt szintű érettségire vagy bármilyen szintű nyelvvizsgára készül, akkor az iskolai nyelvoktatás mellett különórára is jár. Éppen ezért nehéz megítélni, ki mennyit tesz hozzá a sikerhez. Ha felsőfokú nyelvvizsgára készítek diákokat, akkor tudom, hogy az én dolgom a témakörök és a feladattípusok begyakoroltatása, mert az alapozást már elvégezték mások. Ilyen értelemben a siker több kolléga munkájának a gyümölcse, én mint (magán)tanár a csak a koronát teszem fel a műre. A magántanár azért szükséges, hogy személyre szabott segítséget nyújtson.

Kevésbé hatnak, emrt kevés tanítványom jut el idáig vidéki ált. iskolában.

A középszintű nyelvi érettségivel érkező hallgatók között vannak igen jó felkészültségűek, de sajnos olyanok is, akik még a B1 szintet sem ütik meg. Szintfelmérést követően osztjuk őket csoportokba, ahol a jobb szintű csoportokat biztosan elvezetjük a B2 szintű nyelvvizsgáig. A gyengébbek sajnos a rendelkezésre álló 4 ingyenes nyelvi félév (4 óra/hét) alatt nem biztos hogy elérik a kívánt szintet.

Meghatározzák az órákon használt feladatok típusát és nehézségi szintjét.

Item 50

A nyelvvizsga, mint tényező úgy befolyásolja a mindennapi tanítási gyakorlatom, hogy ......, (kérjük írja ide ami először eszébe jut)

nem befolyásolja
nem befolyásolja
nem befolyásolja
sehogy
sehogy
sehogy
célirányosan specialis feladatsorokat kell megoldanunk, arra készülök.
célirányosan specialis feladatsorokat kell megoldanunk, arra készülök.
igyekszem egyensúlyban tartani a szóbeliséget és az írásbeliséget
Célirányosan tanítom nekik az idegen nyelvet, figyelembe véve, hogy valamikor nyelvvizsgázni fognak.
szem előtt tartom a követelményeket és afelé orientálódom.
ebből élek
naprakésznek kell lennem a leggyakoribb vizsgatípusokból
elvárás aminek meg kell felelni
hogy társalgáskor hasonló kérdéseket teszek fel, mint amelyek a nyelvvizsgán is előfordulnak
fontos, hogy sikerekhez jussanak a tanítványaim
a tematika kapcsolódik a nyelvvizsga követelményeihez.
elérendő cél lehet.
igyekszem azok a témák mentén kommunikálni velük
vannak időszakok, amikor ezekre készülünk.
többet gyakorolunk
olyan feladatokat csinálunk
Igyekszem hasonló jellegű feladatokat is adni.
Gyakran utalok egy feladat jellegénél, tartalmánál arra, hogy ez sűrűn előfordulhat kérdésként
igyekszem ezekre is felkészíteni a diákokat
Sajnos a vezetés ezt a magàntanàrok feladatànak tekinti,nem az iskolàénak.
változatos munkaformában változatos feladattípusokat végzünk
azok alapján választom ki a feladattípusokat
igyekszem vizsgákra felkészítő feladatokat is válogatni.
egy olyan követelményrendszer, aminek végül is a tanításom kimeneti eredményének meg kell felelni.
fel kell készítenem rá a diákokat.
tanórán és pluszfoglalkozásokon készítem föl rá a gyerekeket.
A feladattípusokat figyelembeveszem.
a tehetséges diákoknak külön nyelvvizsga felkészítő foglalkozást tartok.
elérjem azt, hogy minél több diák teljesítse a követelményeket.
bemutatom a tanulóknak, hogy milyen követelményeket támaszt velük szemben ez a vizsga.
bizonyos szókészletet emiatt tanítok meg.
mindennap felkészült legyek
Rendkívül rendszerezetten készüljek az órákra.
az arra jellemző feladat típusokat használok zömmel

látom a célt, motivál

az emelt szintű előkészítés keretei között tudok célzottan is foglalkozni vele.

a gyerekek folyamatosan napra készek legyenek.

sok plusz feladatot hozok.

Hasonló típusú feladatokat gyakorolunk, ezeket a nyelvvizsga követelmények szerint értékelem.

Követem a változásokat, ötvözöm a követelmènyeknek való megfelelèst

nem jellemző az hogy a mindennapi munkámban dominálna.

Motivációként említem

Olyan típusú feladatokat viszek be az órákra, amik segítik a felkészülést.

sokat és miden feladattípust gyakorolunk

muszáj a nyelvtanban erőteljesebben elmélyülni, és a beszédet is B1 szintnél erősebb szókinccsel, részletesebben gyakorolni

az érettségi mellett diákjaimnak nyelvvizsga papírt is kell szerezniük a továbbtanuláshoz!

megfelelő időpontban előtérbe kerül a célzott felkészülés.

igyekszem mindent erre építeni

észben tartom a követelményeit, néha figyelmeztetem rá a diákokat, de nem határozza meg az óráim menetét.

a követelményeik figyelembevételével igyekszem helyes kommunikációra tanítani diákjaimat.

meghatározza a célt, ami meghatározza a felhasznált tanítási módszereket

foglalkozunk olyan feladatokkal, melyek a nyelvvizsgán előfordulnak.

eljuttassam a diákokat B2 szintre és vizsgarutint szerezhessenek

egy jó cél, amire lehet készíteni azt, aki igényli.

bizonyos témákat a nyelvvizsga elvárásainak megfelelően veszek át a diákokkal.

arra próbálok törekedni, hogy tanítványaim minél sikeresebbek legyenek a számukra megfelelő nyelvvizsga szinteken.

igyekszem a legtöbbet kihozni magamból.

sehogyan sem

folyamatosan motiválom a tanulókat a kommunikációra

olyan praktikákat próbálok megmutatni, amelyekkel sikeresebben nyelvizsgázhatnak a tanulók, illetve olyan témaköröket is érintünk, amelyekkel a szóbeli résznél találkozhatnak.

plusz feladatokkal készülök

igyekszem jobban motiválni a gyerekeket, valamint összeszedettebb tanulásra szoktatni.

mindegyik nyelvi kompetenciát fejlesztem A1 szinttől kezdve

motivál engem és a diákomat

szem előtt tartom a különböző követelményeket.

a feladattípusokat a kimeneti vizsgák követelményei szerint válogatom össze.

minél többet adjak át tudásomból, tapasztalataimból

Extra feladatokat viszek be

a nyelvvizsga előtti utolsó 1-2 hónapban már inkább csak célirányosan, az adott (írásbeli, szóbeli) feladattípusokat gyakoroljuk

megpróbálom kiszűrni a tehetségesebb diákokat akiknek célja a nyelvvizsga megszerzése és differenciáltan foglalkozom velük.

a megfelelő szintű nyelvtudás elsajátítása mellet a tanulók fokozatosan megismerkedhetjenek a vizsgák követelményeivel és feladattípusaival.

beiktatok nyelvvizsga mintafeladatokat a tanításomba

A diákokat megismertetem az egyes nyelvvizsgák jellemzőivel és időnként megoldunk nyelvvizsgafeladatokat is.

célirányosabban készülök az órákra

Nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetek a nyelvvizsgán előforduló témákra.

figyelembe veszem a feladattípusokat, és hogy hány diák készül a vizsgára.

céltudatosan,rendszeresen azt is gyakoroljuk.

Kompetenciákban gondolkodok

bizonyos csoportjaimban teljesítménykényszer jelentkezik.

egyre inkább egyértelművé válik, hogy az óraszámok emelésére lenne szükség ahhoz, hogy ne csak az emelt óraszámban tanulók tudjanak nyelvvizsgát szerezni.

mindig felhívom a figyelmet olyan részletekre, ami nyelvvizsgákon fordul elő.

tudom, hogy a diákok és szülők többsége ezt várja el tőlem

Több megfelelő feladatot végeztetek

mennyire viszek be differenciált feladatokat

jobban koncentrálok a szókincs fejlesztésére, igyekszem azt jobban is számonkérni.

Megpróbálok még több kommunikációs (nyelvvizsgaszerű) feladatot órán megoldani.

Célt ad.

a mai beszélt nyelvre motivál az irodalmi helyett

nagyon sok gyakorló feladatot használok az órán

azt végső célnak tekintem.

az órákon mind írásban, mind szóban használok nyelvvizsga feladatokat

alapos felkészülésre, tervezésre sarkall.

megemlítem, hogy az adott témakör is része a vizsgának, legyen az nyelvvizsga vagy érettségi.

nem befolyásolja, nem készülünk semmilyen vizsgára

a szerintem jó képességű tanulókat megpróbálom arra terelni, hogy olaszból mint második élő idegen nyelvből is törekedjenek megszerezni a nyelvvizsga bizonyítványt.

meghatározza a követelményszintemet

részét képezi de nem csak a vizsgára koncentrálok

Hasonló feladattípusokat választok.

fel kell készülnöm a továbbtanulni szándékozó illetve nem szándékozó diákok oktatására, ami komoly elvárást jelent.

Megpróbálom a napi gyakorlatom során a fél szememet az ottani vizsgakövetelményeken tartani.

Appendix T

Students' answers to open-ended items

Item 35

Írj három olyan dolgot, amiken változtattál a felkészülésedet illetően a sikertelen vizsga után.

Jobban figyeltem a szövegre.

Olvasás értés gyakorlása , nyelvtan újra tanulása , levelek írása

Tobb kommunikacios keszseg, tobb szokincs, tobb hallgatasos feladat

Több gyakorlás, rendszeresebb nyelvhasználat, több nyelvtan

több gyakorlás

-a felkészülés módján -a hozzáállásomon Máson nem.

jobban fókuszáltam az adott részekre

Időbeosztás; koncentráció; tanulási módszer

egyéni felkészülés

Pontosság, koncentráció, több listening gyakorlás.

több beszéd, több magnóhallgatás

Nem görcsösen tanulok, hanem addig, amíg élvezem; Filmek csak eredeti nyelven; Tanulás digitális felületeken

Batrabban allnek a szobeli vizsgahoz, felelem levett a teljesimenyembol

Több könyvet és cikket kezdtem el olvasni, hogy az élő nyelvet beszélhessem.

több feladatsor és levél megoldása

többet hallgattam német híreket, olvastam, rengeteget gyakoroltam

Kevesebbet gyakoroltam típus feladatokat, többet beszéltem az adott nyelven tágabb körökben, elkezdtem szlenget tanulni

több angol nyelvű videó megtekintése, több angolul beszélgetés, több angol nyelvű szöveg olvasása

Több idegennyelvű filmet néztem, magam készültem a vizsgára, több feladatot csináltam meg többször beszéltem tematikusan angolul; nem izgultam rosszullétig a vizsga előtt; elengedtem a kényszerű "kell"-t

Nyelvtan gyakorlása, szövegek hallgatása, filmnézés

vittem magammal órát, így kevésbé hatott rám az időnyomás; másik nyelvvizsgatípust

választottam; a vizsgát megelőző napon már nem tanultam olyan sokat, inkább pihentem

több szót tanulnék, többet olvasnék idegen nyelven, több idegen nyelvű szöveget hallgatnék

Még több nyelvtan, még több magánóra, sémák bemagolása

Más nyelvvizsgát választottam, Bejártam egy nyelvsulis tanárhoz (igaz nem volt jobb a

nyelvből mint én) A magántanártól többet tanultam, Megpróbáltam filmeket hallgatni.

Igyekeztem több hallás utáni szövegértést megoldani és a szóbeli tételekre is több időt

szántam.

többet beszéltem angolul

igyekeztem megtanulni az adott nyelven gondolkodni

Több hallgatás,több írás,több film nézés

Sokkal többet készültem a nyelvtani részekre

Jobban átnéztem, azt amit nem tudtam Elkezdtem sorozatokat nézni angolul Zenéknek a

szövegét megpróbáltam kitalálni, majd elolvastam

Több tesztet töltöttem ki, minden nap angol nyelvű csatornát hallgatok legalább 2 órán át,

beszédben is keresem a helyzeteket, illetve fordítok munkahelyi kiadványokat külföldi

vendégeink számára.

Több filmet néztem az adott nyelven. Beszélgető partnert kerestem.

Még nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetnék a szókincs bővítésére, több emberrel beszélnénk angolul, és

angol nyelvű könyveket olvasnék, olyan témában,ami nagyon érdekel engem.

Soha többet tanfolyam (teljesen idő és pénz pocsekolás volt)

Több időt fordítok rá

Több gyakorlás

Aktívabb készülés, magabiztosság fejlesztése, élő beszéd gyakorlása

A nehezebb feladatokra többet gyakoroltam, többet beszéltem szóban, valamint a lakás több

pontján is kihelyeztem szavakat, amiket meg kellett jegyeznem.

Ujra átnéztem alaposabban a témákat, bövitettem ismereteimet a témákban

Beszédet, leveleket többet gyakoroltam

Lazábban vettem azt a nyelvet, másikra fókuszáltam, többet beszéltem a nyelven.

többet gyakoroltam a levélírást, több szöveget olvastam a szókincsem gyarapításához

Nagyobb odafigyelés, több szótárazás, többször is meghallgattam a szöveget (a feladat

megírása után még egyszer meghallgattam úgy, hogy figyeltem a szöveget).

többet hallgattam a nyelvet, többet olvastam, több tesztet csináltam hogy rutinosabb legyek a tesztek kitöltésében

Jobban odafigyeltem a kiejtésre. Átnéztem a nyelvtant. Bővítettem a szókincsemet.

Több olvasás

tanulási motiváltság

Hozzáállás, több tanulás, magabiztosság fejlesztése

Többet gyakoroltam, többet jártam tanárhoz, csak a vizsgára koncentráltam

Szókártyák használata Hangoskönyv

audiovizuális nyelvtanulás és külföldi tapasztalat

Szókártyák, Olvasási folyamat, Duolingo

Több idegen nyelvi kommunikáció, hangoskönyv hallgatás, idegen nyelvű filmek megismerése

Próbavizsákat csináltam volna.

Azt mondtam amit hallani akartak. Többet tanultam. Máshogy tanultam.

Több időt fordítok a felkészülésre.

vizsgatípust váltottam illetve több tesztet oldottam meg

tökéletesen csináltam mindent

több időm van a tanulásra, így még jobban tudok készülni rá, barátaimtól kérek segítséget, nagyon sok angol szöveget hallgatok még többet, mint akkor

szavak tanulása, idegennyelvű regények olvasása, több filmet eredeti nyelven való nézése

semmit nem változtattam

nem jártam magántanárhoz az első sikertelen viszag után, és felsőfoknál is ez volt, sokkal többet ér kimenni külföldre egy félévre cserediákként mint bármilyen nyelvtanár vagy nyelvtanfolyam

vizsgaközpontot váltottam. (euroexam borzalmas volt. ECL korrekt)

Többet hallgattam magnót és több idegennyelvű filmet néztem, többet jártam tanárhoz

Külalak

többet tanultam rá; komolyabban vettem; hosszabb ideig jártam nyelvtanárhoz

Jobban begyakoroltam a feladat típusokat.

több időt fordítani rá munka mellett

A magnó megértése miatt amikor csak tudtam német nyelvű műsorokat néztem.

megfelelő referenciákkal rendelkező tanár keresése, anyagi finanszírozás tekintetében túlóra vállalása a munkahelyen, tanulási módszerek megváltoztatása

rászánt idő, kidolgozott tételek, kevesebb idegeskedés

Időre oldottam meg a feladatot, többet gyakoroltam, többet találkoztam a tanárommal.

Több angol nyelvű sorozatot néztem

többet tanulnék, az írásbeli és szóbeli vizsgafeladatok nehézsége, több idő legyen a feladatok megoldására

több listening, több writing gyakorlása, több tanulás

Több szóbeli feladat, több hallásértési feladat gyakorlása, szókincs fejlesztés

Többet jártam nyelvtanárhoz

Hozzáállásom

Kevesebb nyelvtani teszt, több olvasott szöveg értés és több film eredeti nyelven

Több időt fordítottam a hallott szövegre..

Ráfordított időn,belefektetett energián, célorientáltságon

Több filmet/sorozatot néztem angolul, hallásértés feladatot végeztem (azon buktam el), és többet használtam a nyelvet (szinte állandóan, amit lehetett azt angol nyelven olvastam/hallgattam)

Szorgalmasabban tanultam

mégtöbb videót néztem, kevesebb hangsúlyt fektettem az irányított témák "magolására"

Tesztfeladatok intenzívebb gyakorlása, szókincs fejlesztése, idegennyelvű filmek nézése

Hozzáállás, tanulas mennyisége, levelek gyakorlása

másik vizsgára való felkészülés

több vizsgaspecifikus feladat begyakorlása szinte nyelvtől függetlenül. radíros toll, vizsgaspecifikus feladat.

Többet olvastam angolul

új szakkönyvek, tanár váltás, más rendszer szerint építettem fel a felkészülést, új kurzus keresése

Az értekezés tézisei

Az értekezés témája és kutatási feladatai

A tanárok mindennapi tanítási gyakorlatát számos, egymást is alakító tényező befolyásolja. Hatással van rá az adott tanár tudása, a nézetei, az attitűdje, a motivációs mintázata, illetve az őt szűkebb és tágabb értelemben körülvevő környezet. Szakmai tudását saját, tanulóként átélt tapasztalatai, a tanárképzés, majd a későbbi továbbképzések során tanultak, illetve a tanárként átélt tapasztalatok alakítják (pl. Borg, 2003; Clark and Yinger 1977; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011; Elbaz, 1983; Grossman, 1990; Meijer, Verloop, and Beijard, 1999; Nisbett and Ross 1980)

A történelem folyamán a vizsgák mindig is hatással voltak a tanári gyakorlatra. Hol a diákok szűrését, szelektálását vagy motiválását voltak hivatottak elősegíteni, hol pedig a tanárokat kívánták az oktatásügy irányítói egy kötelezővé tett vizsga révén rávenni arra, hogy változtassanak az általuk addig alkalmazott gyakorlaton (Cheng, Watanabe & Curtis, 2004). A vizsgák tehát fontos szerepet töltenek be az oktatáspolitikában. A vizsgahatást legegyszerűbben a vizsgák tanításra és tanulásra kifejtett hatásaként írhatjuk le (pl. Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Hughes, 1989). E meglehetősen bonyolult jelenség közvetve és közvetlenül is befolyással van a tanítás-tanulás folyamatára, valódi természetét azonban nehéz pontosan meghatározni, mivel arra számos egyéb tényező is hatással van, melyek elsődlegesen a tanítást végző tanárhoz kötődnek. A téma kutatói, többek között Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Green (2006), Li (1990) Qi (2004, 2005), Turner (2006), Wang (2011) és Watanabe (1996) mind azt találták, elsősorban a tanáron múlik az, hogy milyen minőségben és erővel jelenik meg a vizsgahatás a tanítás és tanulás folyamán. A

tanár központi szerepének hangsúlyozása mellett a vizsgahatást leíró modellek (Bailey, 1996; Burrows, 2004; Saif, 1999; Tsagari, 2009; Vígh, 2007) arra is felhívják a figyelmet, hogy az befolyással lehet a vizsgahatás megjelenésére.

A nyelvvizsgáknak ma Magyarországon kiemelt fontosságuk van. 2020-tól kezdődően csak középfokú nyelvvizsgával rendelkező diákok léphetnek be abba a felsőoktatásba, ahol jelenleg ez kimeneti követelmény. Ez a helyzet alapvető hatással van a nyelvtanárok mindennapi munkájára. A fennálló keretek között ma Magyarországon kétféle módon lehetséges a nyelvvizsga-bizonyítvány megszerzése: ha a diák nyelvvizsgát tesz valamelyik akkreditált nyelvvizsgarendszerben, illetve ha emelt szinten érettségizik, és legalább 60%-os eredményt ér el. E kontextusban tehát nem 'a' nyelvvizsga, hanem a különböző – külsőleg akkreditált és a középfokú oktatást lezáró – nyelvvizsgák tanári gyakorlatra kifejtett és vélhetően nem ugyanolyan minőségű hatásáról kell beszélnünk.

Kutatásomban azt az általános célt tűztem ki, hogy feltárjam, e nyelvvizsgák milyen hatással vannak a nyelvtanítás gyakorlatára. Ehhez szorosan kapcsolódóan kíváncsi voltam arra is, hogy a különböző (külsőleg akkreditált és középiskolát lezáró) nyelvvizsgatípusok azonos vagy eltérő módon hat-e a nyelvtanárok oktatási gyakorlatára. Továbbá kísérletet tettem arra, hogy feltárjam a nyelvvizsgák hatása, illetve a tanárok szakmai gyakorlatát befolyásoló egyéb más (egyéni) tényezők közötti összefüggéseket. Célom mindezzel nemcsak az volt, hogy bővítsem a rendelkezésre álló irodalmat, hanem az is, hogy megtaláljam azokat a beavatkozási pontokat, melyek módosításával hatékonyabbá lehet tenni a nyelvtanárok munkáját.

A kutatás ismertetése és a disszertáció felépítése

A disszertációm két fő részre és azon belül hat fejezetre oszlik (lásd 1 sz. táblázat). Az első részben a kutatáshoz kapcsolódó elméleti hátteret vázolom fel, amely az első három fejezetet foglalja magában. Az első fejezet betekintést nyújt a komplex dinamikai rendszerek világába és működésébe, illetve tárgyalja az oktatásügy területén történő innováció és változás kérdéseit. A második fejezet a vizsgahatás elméleti hátterét és modelljeit, valamint az ezekhez kapcsolódó empirikus kutatások eredményeit veszi górcső alá. A harmadik fejezet a tanári gondolkodás és motiváció témájában született tanulmányokról nyújt elemző áttekintést.

A disszertáció második része öt fejezetből áll. A negyedik fejezet a kutatást helyezi el a kontextusban, információt nyújt a résztvevőkről, és ismerteti a kutatásmódszertant. Az ötödik fejezet a kutatás eredményeit részletezi. A téma összetettsége miatt kevert kutatási módszertant alkalmaztam (Creswell, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). A kiinduló probléma – a tanári gyakorlatra ható tényezők – feltárásához kvalitatív módszert, fókuszcsoportos interjút alkalmaztam. Annak érdekében azonban, hogy a mintából nyert adatokat definiálni tudjam, az eredményeket pedig általánosítani lehessen, két kvantitatív – nagymintás, kérdőíves – kutatást is elvégeztem. A kutatás eredményeit az ötödik fejezet részletezi, és a hatodik fejezet tárgyalja. A hetedik fejezetben a kutatás összegzése, annak korlátai és a pedagógiai vonatkozások olvashatóak.

1 sz. táblázat: A disszertáció felépítése

I. Komplex rendszerek, innováció és változás, vizsgahatás

1. fejezet. Komplex dinamikai rendszerek
- Rendszerelméletek
- A komplex dinamikai rendszerek jellemzői
- Innováció és változás az oktatásügy területén

2. fejezet. A vizsgahatás
- Elméleti háttér
- A vizsgahatás modelljei
- Kutatási eredmények

3. fejezet. A tanári gondolkodás és motiváció
- A tanári gondolkodásra ható tényezők
- Motiváció

II. Empirikus tanulmány a nyelvvizsgák tanári gyakorlatra kifejtett hatásáról

4. fejezet. A kutatás háttere
- A kutatás logikai alapjai és kontextusa
- A résztvevők ismertetése
- A kutatás módszertani ismertetése

5. fejezet. A kutatás eredményei
- A tanárok nézetei a vizsgahatásról – interjú
- A tanári kérdőív eredményei
- A diák kérdőív eredményei

6. fejezet. A kutatás eredményeinek tárgyalása
- A tanárok nézetei a nyelvvizsgák hatásáról Magyarországon
- A magyarországi nyelvvizsgák hatása a tanárokra
- A vizsgahatás és a tanári gyakorlat összefüggései
- A vizsgahatás, az egyéni változók és a tanári gyakorlat összefüggései
- A magyarországi nyelvvizsgák hatása a diákokra
- Az osztálytermi gyakorlat a tanárok és diákok szemével
- A vizsgák hatása a tanárok és diákok mindennapjaira

7. Fejezet: Konklúzió és jövőbeni kutatási irányok
- A kutatás összegzése
- A vizsgálatok korlátai
- Pedagógiai vonatkozások

Annak érdekében, hogy összetettebb statisztikai elemzést tudjak végezni, kevert kutatási módszertant alkalmaztam. Kiindulópontként fókuszcsoportos interjút készítettem öt középiskolai tanárral, hogy feltárjam, a nyelvvizsgák miként befolyásolják mindennapi tanári gyakorlatukat. Az interjú kvalitatív elemzése és a téma szakirodalma alapján kérdőívet

készítettem tanárok és diákok részére. Mindkét kérdőív elsődlegesen a vizsgák tanárokra, illetve tanulókra kifejtett hatását célozta meg feltárni. Mindkét kérdőív tartalmazott nyílt végű kérdéseket, melyek a helyzet további kvalitatív elemzését segítették elő. A vizsgálat legfőbb célja az volt, hogy kiderítse, a különböző (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) nyelvvizsgák miként hatnak a tanári gyakorlatra. Mivel a nyelvvizsga-kényszer elsődlegesen a középiskolás korosztályt érinti, a kutatás résztvevőit leszűkítettem a középiskolás diákokra (n=423) és a középiskolákban tanító tanárokra (n=172). Szintén korlátoztam a vizsgálódásba bevont nyelvvizsgák számát. A Magyarországon letehető öt különböző nyelvvizsga (közép és emelt szintű érettségi; alap-, közép- és felsőfokú nyelvvizsga) közül azt a hármat választottam, amelyek a leginkább érintik a középiskolás korosztályt, a két érettségit és a középfokú nyelvvizsgát.

A vizsgálatok kutatási kérdései, adatgyűjtő eszközei és az adatok elemzésének módszerei a 2 sz. táblázatban találhatók. A következőkben a kutatás lényeges eredményeit ismertetem részletesebben.

2 sz. táblázat: A disszertáció kutatási kérdései, adatgyűjtő eszközei és a kutatás módszertana

	Kutatási kérdések	Adatgyűjtő eszközök	Az adatok elemzésének módszere
1. rész	- A különböző típusú (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) nyelvvizsgák miként hatnak a tanárokra és diákokra ma Magyarországon?	fókuszcsoportos interjú	tartalom-elemzés
2. rész	**TANÁROK** - Milyen különbségek tárhatóak fel a különböző típusú nyelvvizsgák (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) vizsgahatása között? - Milyen összefüggések tárhatóak fel a különböző típusú nyelvvizsgák (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) vizsgahatásának megjelenése, a tanárok egyéni jellemzői és a középiskolai nyelvtanárok osztálytermi gyakorlata között? **DIÁKOK** - Milyen különbségek tárhatóak fel a különböző típusú nyelvvizsgák (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) vizsgahatása között a diákok esetében?	online kérdőív	leíró statisztika, többszörös lineáris regresszió-elemzés, ANOVA, egymintás T-próba, kétmintás T-próba, tartalom-elemzés

A kutatási eredményei

Az interjú

Vizsgálódásom kezdeti lépéseként fókuszcsoportos interjút készítettem öt középiskolai nyelvtanárral. Az interjú célja az volt, hogy az érintettek szemén keresztül kapjak képet arról, a vizsgák milyen hatással vannak mindennapi munkájukra. Az interjú leiratának tartalomelemzése után megállapítható, hogy a nyelvvizsgák tanítási-tanulási folyamatra kifejtett hatása az alábbi területeken nyilvánul meg: a tankönyv kiválasztása; a diákok hozzáállása (külső kényszer és motiváció); az értékelés módja és készségfejlesztés; illetve a szülők és diákok elvárásai. Nagyfokú szubjektivitás jelent meg a tanárok véleményében a tekintetben, ahogy a különböző nyelvvizsgák nehézségi szintjeit megítélték. Mivel e szinteket

a Közös Európai Referenciakeret szintleírásaihoz kell illeszteni, az emelt szintű érettségi vizsga és a középfokú nyelvvizsga nehézségi szintjének elvileg azonosnak kell lennie. A tanárok azonban egyöntetűen azon a véleményen voltak, hogy az emelt szintű érettségi vizsga jóval nehezebb, mint a középfokú nyelvvizsga.

A kérdőíves felmérés

Tanárok

A kutatás e szakasza azt kívánta feltárni, hogy a léteznek-e különbségek, és ha igen, milyen természetű különbségek tárhatóak fel a különböző típusú (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) nyelvvizsgák által kiváltott hatás között. Ezen felül kíváncsi voltam a különböző típusú nyelvvizsgák vizsgahatásának megjelenése, a tanárok egyéni jellemzői és a középiskolai nyelvtanárok osztálytermi gyakorlata közötti összefüggésekre.

Az eredmények alapján szignifikáns különbség mutatkozik a középszintű érettségi és az emelt szintű érettségi által kifejtett hatás között. A kapott adatok alapján a középszintű érettségi hatása jelenik meg a legerőteljesebben a tanárok mindennapi munkájában. Ezt a vizsgát tartják a tanárok a leginkább hasznosnak és megbízhatónak, ezt ismerik a legjobban, ennek az értékelési kritériumait alkalmazzák a legtöbben, és úgy érzik, ez befolyásolja legerőteljesebben tanári autonómiájukat. A tanárok munkájára a középfokú nyelvvizsga fejti ki a második legerőteljesebb befolyást, és csak harmadsorban jelenik meg az emelt szintű érettségi hatása. Ez alól egy terület kivétel, a vizsgák szorongást kiváltó hatása. Itt ugyanis a külsőleg akkreditált középfokú nyelvvizsga szerepel az első helyen, bár azt hozzá kell tenni, hogy a megjelenő szorongás erőssége viszonylag alacsony (40%).

Második elemzésünk a vizsgahatást megjelenítő tényezők és az osztálytermi gyakorlat összefüggésit kívánta feltárni. A regresszió elemzési eredménye azt mutatja, hogy a vizsgahatást megjelenítő tényezők közül vannak olyanok, amelyek kizárólag egy bizonyos

vizsgatípushoz kapcsolódnak. A vizsga hasznosságára és megbízhatóságára vonatkozó, illetve az iskola elvárásaihoz kötődő nézetekben kizárólag az érettségi vizsgák hatása mutatkozik meg, míg a diákok és szüleik elvárásaihoz kapcsolódó nézetekben csak a külső nyelvvizsgák hatása jelentkezik. Amennyiben a vizsgahatást megjelenítő tényezők és a tanári gyakorlat összefüggéseit vesszük górcső alá, a következő mintázat bontakozik ki. Azon tanárok, akikben erőteljesebb szorongást generál a vizsga, akik nem ismerik a vizsgát jól, nem tartják hasznosnak és megbízhatónak, és nem alkalmazzák annak értékelési kritériumait, elsősorban a hagyományos nyelvtanítási módszereket alkalmazzák (nyelvtanozás, fordítás, gyakorló feladatok megoldása). Azok a tanárok viszont, akik nem szoronganak, hasznosnak és megbízhatónak tartják a vizsgát, a diákjaikkal megbeszélik és alkalmazzák annak értékelési kritériumait, illetve figyelembe veszik a diákok és szüleik elvárásait, inkább kommunikatív módon tanítanak.

A harmadik elemzés célja a vizsgahatást megjelenítő tényezők, a tanárok egyéni jellemzői és a középiskolai nyelvtanárok osztálytermi gyakorlata közötti összefüggések feltárása volt. A kapott adatok itt is azt mutatják, hogy bizonyos tényezők és jellemzők kizárólag az érettségihez, illetve a nyelvvizsgához kötődnek. A szorongás mértékében, a vizsga hasznosságára és megbízhatóságára vonatkozó nézetekben és az iskola elvárásaiban megjelenő vizsgahatás kizárólag az érettségi vizsgákhoz kapcsolódik. A tanulóként tapasztalt korai élmények, illetve a nemek szerinti különbségek mint egyéni jellemzők szintén kizárólag az érettségi vizsgákhoz kapcsolódnak. Az értékelési kritériumok megbeszélésében és alkalmazásában, a diákok elvárásaiban és a vizsgára vonatkozó ismeretekben megjelenő vizsgahatás pedig kizárólag a középfokú nyelvvizsgával áll összefüggésben. Amennyiben a vizsgahatást megjelenítő tényezők, a tanárok egyéni jellemzői és tanítási módszereik közötti összefüggéseket vizsgáljuk, az alábbi mintát kapjuk: azon tanárok alkalmaznak hagyományos nyelvtanítási módszereket, akik szoronganak, akiket erőteljesen befolyásolnak diákként átélt

tapasztalataik, akik nem ismerik a vizsgát, nem beszélik meg és alkalmazzák annak értékelési kritériumait a diákjaikkal, vidéken élnek, nem dolgoznak vizsgáztatóként, és elsősorban külsőleg motiváltak. Az inkább kommunikatív nyelvtanítási gyakorlatot folytató tanárok jellemzői a következők: nem szoronganak, magas szintű belső motivációval rendelkeznek, tanítási gyakorlatukat a továbbképzéseken tanultak és saját tanítási tapasztalataik formálják, nagyobb városokban laknak, ismerik a vizsgát, hasznosnak és megbízhatónak tartják azt, és a tanítás során annak értékelési kritériumait alkalmazzák.

Diákok

A diákok részére készített kérdőíves felmérés célja annak megismerése volt, hogy milyen különbségek tárhatóak fel a különböző típusú nyelvvizsgák (érettségi és külsőleg akkreditált) vizsgahatása között. Az adatok azt mutatják, hogy a diákok esetében a középfokú nyelvvizsga hatása jelenik meg a legerőteljesebben. Ez az a vizsgatípus, amelyet a legjobban ismernek, és amelyről úgy gondolják, hogy leghatékonyabb és leginkább korrekt módon képes megmérni a nyelvtudásukat. A tanáraiktól ugyanakkor azt várják el, hogy elsődlegesen a középszintű érettségi értékelési kritériumait alkalmazzák a tanórák keretében. Ami a diákok felé irányuló elvárásokban megjelenő vizsgahatást illeti, a középszintű érettségi és a középfokú nyelvvizsga hatása megegyezik. A legnagyobb fokú szorongást az emelt szintű érettségi váltja ki a diákokból, akik szerint tanáraik elsősorban a középszintű érettségire készítik fel őket. A diákok válaszai alapján határozott különbség mutatkozik az érettségi vizsgák és a külső nyelvvizsga által kiváltott hatás között. A külső nyelvvizsga felszíni validitása egyértelműen jobb, mint az érettségi vizsgáé. A nyelvvizsga fogalmát a diákok elsősorban a külső nyelvvizsgákhoz kapcsolják, ennek van a legnagyobb tétje, ezt tartják a legjobbnak, erről tudnak a legtöbbet, és mivel megismételhető, kevesebb szorongást generál. A jelenlegi

jogszabályok alapján egy idegen nyelvből mindenkinek kötelező érettségizni, ennek köszönhetően e vizsga nagyobb fokú szorongást vált ki a diákokból.

A tanárok és a diákok nézetei közötti különbségek

Kutatásunk adatai egyértelmű különbséget mutatnak a tekintetben, hogy a tanárokra, illetve diákokra mely nyelvvizsgák hatnak a legerőteljesebben. A nagymintás kutatás öt olyan faktort tartalmazott, amely mindkét kérdőívben megtalálható volt: a vizsgára vonatkozó nézetek, a vizsga tartalmának ismerete, a vizsgához kapcsolódó elvárások, az általa kiváltott szorongás, illetve az, hogy tanórán miként jelenik meg az adott vizsga értékelési módszere. Az azonos tényezőkre adott válaszok összehasonlítása alapján megállapítható, hogy a diákok esetében a külső nyelvvizsga, a tanárok esetében pedig a középfokú érettségi hatása az erősebb (2. sz. táblázat).

3. sz. táblázat: A különböző vizsgatípusok hatása közötti különbségek a diákok és tanárok esetében

TANÁROK	VIZSGA TÍPUS	DIÁKOK	VIZSGA TÍPUS
mit gondolnak a vizsgáról	KÉ / KN	mit gondolnak a vizsgáról	KN
mit tudnak a vizsgáról	KÉ	mit tudnak a vizsgáról	KN
diákok / szülők / iskola elvárásai	KÉ / KN	a diákok felé irányuló elvárások	KÉ / KN
szorongás	KN	szorongás	EÉ
értékelési módszerek	KÉ	a diákok elvárásai az értékelési módszerek iránt	KÉ

Középszintű érettségi = KÉ, emelt szintű érettségi EÉ, Középfokú nyelvvizsga = KN

A tantermi gyakorlatra vonatkozó állítások szintén mindkét kérdőívben fellelhetők voltak. A válaszokat összehasonlítva szintén jelentős nézetkülönbséget tapasztalhatunk: a tanárok azt állítják, hogy ők inkább kommunikatív módszereket alkalmazva tanítanak, a diákok pedig azt, hogy e gyakorlat inkább a hagyományos módszerekhez áll közelebb. A16 azonos állítás közül

14 esetében a véleménykülönbség foka szignifikáns. Két esetben van egyetértés: mindkét fél úgy gondolja, hogy a nyelvórákon a diákoknak gyakran van sikerélménye, illetve hogy sokat gyakorolnak kifejezetten a beszédértést fejlesztő feladatokat. Az első állítás örömteli, és bizakodásra ad okot. A második állítás esetében megjelenő egyetértés egyértelműen a 2005-ben bevezetett új nyelvi érettségi vizsga hatásának tudható be, ugyanis a beszédértés vizsgarészt e reform vezette be a nyelvi érettségi vizsga további részévé.

A kvalitatív vizsgálat eredményei

Mindkét kérdőív tartalmazott nyílt végű kérdéseket. A tanárok esetében három kérdés vonatkozott kifejezetten a vizsgahatásra. Két nyílt végű item firtatta azt, hogy a vizsga miként van hatással a tanárok mindennapi gyakorlatára, egy harmadik pedig arra irányult, hogy diákjaik sikertelen vizsgáját követően miként változtatnak munkájukon. Az első két kérdésre adott válaszok tartalomelemzését követően megállapíthatjuk, hogy a különböző vizsgák hatása elsősorban az adott vizsga követelményeinek megismertetésében, feladattípusinak gyakoroltatásában, a tankönyv kiválasztásában és motivációs forrásként való felhasználásában jelentkezik. A hangsúly a feladatok gyakoroltatásán, illetve ezek gyakoriságán van. A harmadik kérdés is hasonló képet mutat: a tanárok elsődleges reakciója a sikertelen vizsgára a gyakorlás mennyiségének növelése. Ezt követően azonban megjelenik a készségek (beszédértés, szövegértés, szóbeli és írásbeli produkció) fejlesztésének előtérbe kerülése. Ez pedig szintén a 2005-ben bevezetett új típusú érettségi vizsga hatását jelezheti. E vizsga ugyanis a korábbi nyelvi érettségihez képest sokkal nagyobb hangsúlyt fektet a készségek mérésére.

A diákoknak feltett hasonló kérdésre adott válaszok elemzése is hasonló képet mutat. A sikertelen vizsga után a diákok első reakciója is a gyakorlás mennyiségének növelése, melyet azonnal követ a négy készség fejlesztésére helyezett nagyobb hangsúly.

A kutatás korlátai

A kutatás gyengesége, hogy nem volt mód a véletlenszerű mintavétel alkalmazására. Ezt azonban ellensúlyozza a válaszadók magas száma és az, hogy a tanárok esetében a válaszadók összetétele nagyban hasonlít az országos minta összetételére.

A kutatás eredményeinek egy része önbevalláson alapul, amely felveti annak problémáját, hogy a választ adó személy a kutató által elvárt válaszokat adja. Ez elsődlegesen a tantermi gyakorlatra (hagyományos vs. kommunikatív módszerek) vonatkozó állításokat illeti. A kérdőíven szereplő állítások azonban úgy lettek megfogalmazva, hogy az azokra adott válaszok nem kizárólagosak.

A kutatás eredményeit gazdagíthatta volna, ha sor került volna osztálytermi megfigyelésekre is. Mivel csak egy iskolatípust vizsgáltam, további kutatás lenne szükséges nagyobb populácó és az érintettek szélesebb körének bevonásával ahhoz, hogy az eredmények jobban általánosíthatóak legyenek.

A kutatás pedagógiai vonatkozásai

Korlátai ellenére az eredmények mind a gyakorló tanárok, mind pedig a tanárképzésben részt vevő oktatók számára fontosak lehetnek. Kutatásunk rámutatott arra, mekkora jelentősége van annak, hogy a tanárok tisztában legyenek az adott vizsga tartalmával és követelményeivel. Az eredmények azt mutatják, hogy a vizsga jelentős szorongást generál azokban a tanárokban, akik nem ismerik az adott vizsgát jól, akik nem rendelkeznek vizsgáztatói tapasztalatokkal, és nem alkalmazzák a vizsga értékelési kritériumait. A kutatás arra is rámutatott, hogy kommunikatív tanítási módszerek alkalmazásával szorosan összefügg a tanárok belső motivációja, a továbbképzéseken tanultak és a vizsgáztatóként szerzett tapasztalatok. Világosnak tűnik tehát, hogy ha a tanárok több információval rendelkeznének a szóban forgó

vizsgákról, megfelelő továbbképzésben részesülnének (ahol e tudást megszerezhetnék) és vizsgáztatói tapasztalatokra is szert tehetnének, nagyobb lenne az esély arra, hogy tanítási módszereik a hagyományostól a kommunikatív irányba mozduljanak el.

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