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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STUDIES

**Test Washback on Teaching Practices Used in EFL
Multi-exam Preparation Classes in Greece**

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IRINI PAPAKAMMENOU

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**Test Washback on Teaching Practices Used in EFL
Multi-exam Preparation Classes in Greece**

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The present doctoral dissertation was submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Cyprus. It is a product of original work of my own, unless otherwise mentioned through references, notes, or any other statements.

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ABSTRACT (in Greek)

Η παρούσα ερευνά το φαινόμενο του test washback (αναδραστική επίδραση αξιολογικών κριτηρίων). Συγκεκριμένα επικεντρώνεται στην διδακτική μεθοδολογία που χρησιμοποιούν οι καθηγητές σε τάξεις στις οποίες προετοιμάζουν μαθητές για την απόκτηση πιστοποίησης γλωσσομάθειας. Η μελέτη των παραγόντων που επηρεάζει τους καθηγητές στην διδακτική τους μεθοδολογία, δείχνει ότι η αναδραστική επίδραση αξιολογικών κριτηρίων είναι ένα πολύπλοκο φαινόμενο με πολλούς παράγοντες που αλληλεπιδρούν. Η μελέτη περίπτωσης που ερευνήθηκε είναι τάξεις προετοιμασίας για την απόκτηση πιστοποίησης γλωσσομάθειας στην Ελλάδα, οι οποίες παρουσιάζουν μεγάλο ενδιαφέρον, όσον αφορά στην προετοιμασία εξετάσεων για την απόκτηση πιστοποίησης.

Στην παρούσα διατριβή χρησιμοποιείται η ορολογία multi-exam classes (τάξεις πολλαπλών εξετάσεων). Η συγκεκριμένη ορολογία προσδιορίζει τις τάξεις προετοιμασίας για την απόκτηση πολλών και διαφορετικών πιστοποιητικών στην ίδια τάξη εφόσον οι μαθητές λαμβάνουν μέρος σε πάνω από μια πιστοποίηση στην ίδια εξεταστική περίοδο. Επομένως, οι καθηγητές στις τάξεις προετοιμασίας πολλών εξετάσεων (multi-exam) αναγκάζονται να προετοιμάσουν και να διδάξουν σε μαθητές για δυο ή ακόμα τρεις ή και τέσσερις πιστοποιήσεις στην ίδια τάξη με διαφορετική μορφή εξέτασης.

Η κύρια ερευνητική ερώτηση είναι πως το πλαίσιο πολλών εξετάσεων (multi-exam) επηρεάζει την διδακτική μεθοδολογία που χρησιμοποιούν οι καθηγητές. Η απάντηση στην ερώτηση είναι αποτέλεσμα δυο διαφορετικών μεθόδων της μελέτης περίπτωσης και του ενός ερωτηματολογίου. Οι μελέτες περίπτωσης περιελάμβαναν καθηγητές Αγγλικών σε ένα φροντιστήριο στην Ελλάδα, ενώ το ερωτηματολόγιο διανεμήθηκε σε καθηγητές Αγγλικών από όλη την Ελλάδα. Διενεργήθηκαν ποιοτικές και ποσοτικές ερευνητικές διαδικασίες για την συγκέντρωση των αποτελεσμάτων. Η διδακτική μεθοδολογία δύο καθηγητών που προετοιμάζουν μαθητές για πιστοποιήσεις ερευνήθηκε στην μελέτη περίπτωσης (case-study) μέσω συνεντεύξεων, παρατηρήσεων των μαθημάτων (classroom observation) και συμπληρωματικών συνεντεύξεων (follow-up interviews). Η μελέτη περίπτωσης εστιάζει όχι μόνο σε τάξεις πολλών εξετάσεων (multi-exam) αλλά και σε τάξεις προετοιμασίας για ένα μόνο πιστοποιητικό (one-exam). Συγκεκριμένα η παρούσα έρευνα μελετά σε ποιο βαθμό επηρεάζεται η διδακτική μεθοδολογία των καθηγητών από τη φύση και τις απαιτήσεις των πολλαπλών εξετάσεων τάξεων. Το ερωτηματολόγιο παρέχει πληροφορίες

για τους παράγοντες που επηρεάζουν τους καθηγητές να επιλέξουν συγκεκριμένες παιδαγωγικές μεθόδους στις τάξεις προετοιμασίας εξετάσεων.

Η ανάλυση των δεδομένων δείχνει ότι ο βαθμός και το είδος της αναδραστικής επίδρασης των εξετάσεων (washback) επηρεάζεται από την μορφή (format) της εξέτασης, τον αριθμό των εξετάσεων μέσα στην τάξη, την σχολική περίοδο (το τρίμηνο) και άλλους παράγοντες άμεσα (teacher-direct factors) και έμμεσα συνδεδεμένους (teacher-indirect factors) με τον καθηγητή. Το γεγονός ότι υπάρχει ποικιλία εξετάσεων με διαφορετική μορφή και διαφορετικές απαιτήσεις και η δυνατότητα των μαθητών να παίρνουν μέρος σε περισσότερες από μια μορφή εξέτασης μπορεί να μειώσει την αναδραστική επίδραση (washback) και να προάγει την μάθηση της γλώσσας. Με αυτόν τον τρόπο οι καθηγητές μπορούν να έχουν περισσότερες ευκαιρίες να χρησιμοποιήσουν διαφορετικές διδακτικές μεθόδους. Ωστόσο, ο καθηγητής παραμένει ένας καθοριστικός παράγοντας που καταδεικνύει πόσο σημαντικό είναι για τους καθηγητές να συμμετέχουν στην αξιολόγηση των μαθητών. Τα ευρήματα της μελέτης αυτής προφέρουν στους καθηγητές γλωσσών, στους εξεταστικούς οργανισμούς, εκπαιδευτές καθηγητών, συγγραφείς βιβλίων και εκδότες, ιδέες άμεσα σχετιζόμενες με τις ανάγκες τους.

ABSTRACT (in English)

This research offers new insights into the phenomenon of test washback by focusing on the teaching practices in exam preparation classes. An exploration of the factors influencing teachers how to teach shows that washback is a complex phenomenon with several intervening factors. The case study examined exam preparation classes in Greece which present an interesting pedagogical ecology regarding exam preparation. The term *multi-exam class* will be used in the current thesis. It is defined as the exam preparation classes where a variety of exams are taught since students often participate in more than one exam in the same exam period. Thus, teachers in multi-exam preparation classes are forced to teach and prepare students for two or even three or four exams in the same class.

The main research question is how the multi-exam context influences the teaching practices that teacher use. A distinction is made among ‘methods’, ‘activities’ and ‘tasks’ when studying teachers’ methodology. Two different methods are used to address the question: a case study and a questionnaire, which employed teachers of English teaching in a frontistirio and/or privately. Both qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures were followed. In the case study, interviews, classroom observations and follow-up interviews of two teachers teaching exam preparation classes in the same school are used to elicit information on the nature and type of teaching practices the teachers use to prepare students for exams. The case study compares one exam and multi-exam classes and looks into the extent to which the teachers’ approaches are influenced by the nature and requirements of multi-exam classes. The questionnaire provides information about the factors that influence teachers to choose specific teaching practices in exam preparation classes.

Findings show that degrees and kinds of washback seem to be influenced by the type of the exam, the number of exams in preparation classes, the school term and other teacher-direct and teacher-indirect factors. Preparing students for a range of exam options with different formats can reduce washback and promote language learning. In this way, teachers can have more opportunities to use different teaching practices. The teacher remains a significant and influential agent, showing how important it is for teachers to get involved in assessment and develop their language assessment literacy.

This study contributes by incorporating a teacher’s voice which, so far, has been absent from the local and national levels, providing valuable information regarding the role of teachers

in reforming testing and enhancing classroom practices. The study offers language teachers, teacher trainers, examination bodies and material writers and publishers, insights directly relevant to their needs. The study finally indicates that by investigating not only the roles of stakeholders but also the broad sociocultural and educational context the washback issue can be fully accounted for.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Language examinations and the possession of language certificates in English are an integral part of language learning in Greece, a country which saw the operation of 9,000 private language institutions in 2006 (Batziokas, 2006). In a paper which playfully addresses in its title a foreign language certificate as “the much-wanted paper”, shrewdly capturing the mentality of language learners in Greece and the ‘certificate-oriented culture’ (Gass and Reed, 2011) that has developed, Angouri et. al. (2010) estimate that 80% of Greek school children attend private language institutions, with the ultimate goal of gaining a valid certificate in a foreign language. This tendency could be seen to have contributed to the industrialization of English language testing, at which this thesis will be looking within the context of Greece.

As would be expected, the road to language certification is not monopolized by one specific certifying body. On the contrary, as Gass and Reed (2011) observe, “commercial and university based tests vie for a market share” (p. 32). In order to meet the market needs for language certification and get a ‘share’ in said market, a variety of higher educational institutions (e.g. the University of Cambridge, first launched in 1913 and renamed Cambridge English Language Assessment in 2013) have developed and regularly administer their own language examinations in the English language worldwide, issuing the relevant qualifications upon successful completion of said exams. The fact that Greece appeared to hold first place in participation in Cambridge EFL exams in 1995 (Tocalli-Beller, 2007, p. 113) is only but indicative of the prominent place such examinations hold in the context of language learning in Greece. This emergent market prompted the need for the establishment of relevant educational institutions, known in Greece as frontistiria (foreign language learning private institutes) (see section 1.3), which offer the necessary preparation courses for a variety of these exams. Moreover, a network of people has emerged around these exams, including administrators, teachers, students and publishers, all of which play a significant role in the success of this examination process. As a result, the teaching context has been substantially enhanced and has gradually become more intricate and based on a network of various actors. When pursuing to delineate such teaching contexts, the influence of English language exams in their construction cannot be ignored. In other words, the investigation of the effect of such English exams in the teaching context is pivotal to

understanding how educational practices and procedures are shaped and adopted by foreign language teachers worldwide.

Briefly, the phenomenon whereby “testing influences teaching” is called ‘washback effect’ (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 115). A variety of studies have been conducted on the washback effect of language testing in the classroom, highlighting its importance, yet current studies have not been able to lay out a definitive relationship between high-stakes exams (Chapman and Snyder, 2000) and the teaching context. In fact, washback seems to be highly complex, to differ substantially amongst different contexts and to affect teachers diversely (see e.g. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Shohamy et al, 1996). Alderson and Wall (1993), for example, articulate fifteen different washback hypotheses taking into account the content and methods teachers employ to teach and learners adopt in their learning, the rate and sequence of teaching as well as the degree and depth of teaching. On the other hand, Hughes (1993) proposes a trichotomy of what ESL researchers should examine when investigating the washback effect (in Bailey, 1996). Glover highlights the importance of considering “societal influences such as the wider role of education, examination and so on” on teaching and learning when investigating washback (2006, p. 56). Within the Greek context, Tsigari (2009) has presented valuable findings in an in-depth study of the washback effect of the FCE examination on teaching and learning, with an emphasis on negative washback, highlighting that teaching becomes highly teacher-centered and stressful, while there is an overemphasis on grammar teaching and on enhancing exam-specific techniques and skills. These research studies, however, have not focused sufficiently on pinning down the precise washback effect of high-stakes exams on teachers’ practices. The main aim of this thesis is to provide, as far as it is possible, a holistic account of how washback effect manifests in concrete teaching practices, focusing on multi-exam teaching and learning contexts.

1.2 Research Context

This section will offer a brief historical overview of education in Greece with emphasis placed on information that is relevant to this thesis and will move on to discuss the educational context of foreign language teaching and, more specifically, English.

1.2.1 Education in Greece

Upon gaining its independence in 1832, Greece began to set up its educational system which was modelled after the German tradition with heavy influences from French administrative and educational practices (Kallen 1996). The most important legacy of this development which still informs Greek education is the strong centralization of educational policy and administration (see Dimaras, 1978; Eliou, 1988; Andreou and Papakonstantinou, 1994). Since then, education has been offered free of charge and by 1834 a four-year compulsory education was introduced. This is thought to have facilitated social and geographical mobility within and without national borders. However, at that stage and for a long period, education in Greece was not geared towards the needs of the industry.

It took Venizelos to modernize the educational system when the duration of compulsory education was extended to six years; to establish secondary education; and to introduce secondary technical education. Further modernizing changes were implemented in the 1960s by Papandreou (Kallen, 1996, p. 10). It is also worth mentioning that during the 1960s an effort was made to bring about a conservative decentralization of policy and administration (Kallen), although the educational system remains to date highly centralized. Notably, compulsory education was extended to nine years and new laws were passed for primary, secondary and higher education as part of the reform of 1964 (Themelis). Since then, compulsory education includes six years of primary school and three years of lower secondary education (*gymnasium*). While upper secondary education (*Lyceum*) is not compulsory in Greece, it is considered obligatory for individuals to be able to access tertiary education. Access to tertiary education is determined by students' performance in the final examinations at the end of *Lyceum*. Those exams are regulated and administered by the Ministry of Education on a national level. Finally, the duration of tertiary education varies between four to six years depending on field of study (Figure 1.1).

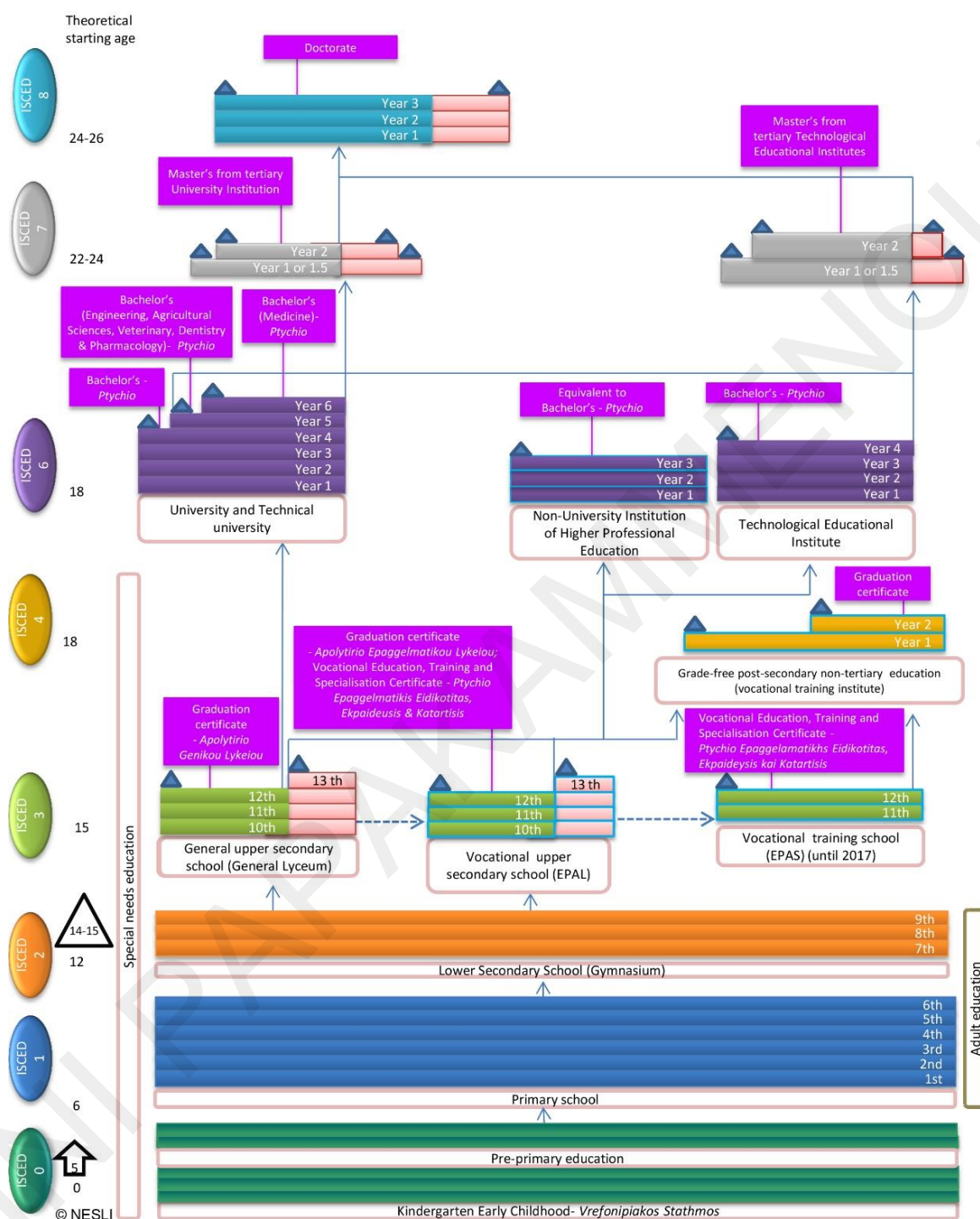


Figure 1.1. Overview of the educational cycle in Greece.¹

In the 1980s, the educational agenda of the centrist-Left PASOK party, which was in power, continued to inform the educational landscape of Greece. The end of the 1980s saw a

¹ <http://gpseducation.oecd.org/CountryProfile?primaryCountry=GRC&treshold=10&topic=EO> [last accessed 3 July 2016].

rejection of previously set objectives in favour of a new educational system. A former proclamation which saw the annulment of private schools and the absorption of private language institutes by state-run educational centres was rejected. Furthermore, the finance of education remained low despite former commitments to raise funding (Grollios and Kaskaris, 2003). In 1993, when PASOK came back into power, it sought to further modernize the educational system. Efforts to boost attendance to higher education were implemented through the reform of 1997. As of then, all the preexisting types of upper secondary schools (general, technical-vocational and integrated lycea) were abolished and a new general school of academic orientation (Unified Lyceum) was instituted and a new type of downgraded technical-vocational schools - classified as "post-compulsory"- was introduced. At that stage, tuition hours were increased and the school curriculum was enriched to meet the demands of a growing "knowledge economy" (Themelis). This was an attempt to align education with the labour market. The focus of the educational system on 'knowledge economy' and market needs, does not necessarily entail that those needs are met by the public educational system. In fact, what has shaped the Greek educational space to date is the strong drive towards education that developed amongst Greek families since the 1970s and which has not been fully matched by the state in terms of support (Themelis).

The mid-1990s saw 6.5 per cent of Greek GDP spent on private and public education, which according to Themelis paradoxically suggests that private investment in education might as well have been higher than public investment. While this private funding takes many forms, there are two main ones that are relevant to this study: (i) private 'evening' schools known as *frontistiria* and one-to-one tuition (*idiaitera*), which is usually home-based. According to Themelis, *frontistiria* can be classified under two main categories: firstly, there are those that are auxiliary to the state and which facilitate the learning of a foreign language or the acquisition of computer skills and knowledge, at the same time preparing students for the relevant certificates; and, secondly, there are preparatory evening classes that assist students with their school subjects and help students succeed in the national exams. *Frontistiria* are so prominent in Greece that despite their status, they form a type of schooling, parallel to that offered by state or private schools (Themelis). As will be seen throughout this thesis, *frontistiria* play a leading role in the learning of English, amongst other foreign languages, in the Greek social context.

1.2.2 English Language Learning in Greek State Schools

The gradual market-driven liberalization of education that Greece saw in the late 20th century (Section 1.2.1) puts into perspective the role the English language could play in Greek education. First of all, Greece belongs to the European Union, one of whose official language is English. Moreover, according to a study conducted by *The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development* (OECD), 33,500 Greeks studied abroad in 2011 and 34,000 the year before that. Although numbers are gradually falling purportedly due to the economic crisis in Greece, 5.8 percent of the country's entire student body completes its tertiary education in foreign universities annually. 36.1 percent of those opt for studying in English-speaking universities, mainly in the UK.² Additionally, a recent study (2012) conducted by the Greek office of recruitment specialists Adecco concluded that 49 percent of working-age Greeks were seeking employment abroad.³ In fact, Gogonas sees English as “serv[ing] as a form of cultural capital in Greece” with the majority of students claiming to be learning English because “it will help them get a job in the future” (2010, p. 143).

In this context, knowledge of English can be seen to be an indispensable skill for potential students and job-seekers, amongst others. Although English is not an official language in Greece and bears the status of a foreign language, knowledge of English is considered crucial in virtually any professional context. English has been taught in Greek state schools for over sixty years, with the first curriculum for state high schools published in 1953 (Sifakis, 2013). However, it was only introduced in primary schools in 1987 (Mattheoudakis and Alexiou, 2009). By 2004 96.9 per cent of state schools pupils of all levels were learning English, which testifies to the status of English in the Greek context (Sifakis 2009. p. 233). Until recently, English was introduced in Greece in the third grade of primary school (i.e. ages 8-9), (Table1.1).

² see <http://www.ekathimerini.com/145000/article/ekathimerini/news/big-drop-in-number-of-greeks-studying-abroad-oecd-finds> [last accessed 2 July 2016].

³ See <http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2012-12-20/almost-half-of-greeks-are-looking-for-work-abroad-survey-shows> [last accessed 2 July 2016].

Table 1.1 Weekly Curriculum in Greek Primary Schools

		A/O	Subjects	Weekly teaching hours per grade in: Primary School					
				GRADES					
				1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th
LL-DAY PROGRAMME	REGULAR PROGRAMME	1.	Religious Education	-	-	2	2	2	2
		2.	Language	9	9	8	8	7	7
		3.	Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4
		4.	History	-	-	2	2	2	2
		5.	Study of the Environment	4	4	3	3	-	-
		6.	Geography	-	-	-	-	2	2
		7.	Natural Sciences	-	-	-	-	3	3
		8.	Civil and Social Studies	-	-	-	-	1	1
		9.	Arts Education *1	3	3	3	3	2	2
		10.	Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
		11.	English language	-	-	3	3	3	3
		12.	Interdisciplinary & Creative Activities Flexible Zone	3	3	3	3	2	2
		13.	Second Foreign Language (French or German) Total of compulsory hours *2	25	25	30	30	32	32
		14.	Study-Preperation	10	10	7	7	7	7
		15.	New Technologies - Computer Science	2	2	2	2	2	2
		16.	Elective Subjects	4	4	4	4	2	2
	Total of all-day school hours	45	45	45	45	45	45		

However, within the context of a project which was introduced in 2010 entitled “New Foreign Language Education Policy in Schools: English for Young Learners (EYL), 40% of

first and second graders across 961 schools in the country are now learning English, which means that pupils across the country are exposed to English within the educational environment at the age of six.⁴ Within this project, a balanced curriculum has been adopted, incorporating both communicative and pedagogic practices, although this does not appear to be the case across all levels of primary and secondary education.

English remains part of the state school curricula until the last grade of higher secondary education. In fact, under the “New School” action plan, which was implemented in 2009 and has been gradually piloted across numerous schools in Greece, foreign language education is given a high priority (Sifakis, 2011, p.123). The “New School” scheme was meant to address the low status of foreign languages in state schools, among other things (ibid.). However, the curriculum across lower and higher secondary schools appears not to be adapted to learners’ communicative needs; it is characterized by vague or low motivation levels; and it does not serve any specific learning outcomes. Sifakis seems to connect this phenomenon to the fact that there are no clearly defined reason for which learners are taught English (2011, p. 125). For Sifakis, teaching of English in Greek state schools seems to be best described by the “scheme” of TENOR, an acronym coined by Abbott (1981), which stands for “Teaching English For No Obvious Reason” and is meant to describe typical secondary school learners who have no evident learning objective in sight (ibid.).

1.3 Rationale of the Study

The shortcomings of foreign language teaching in Greek state schools are addressed by a thriving private sector of foreign language institutes, a rather unique characteristic of the Greek foreign language education system (Mattheoudakis and Alexiou, 2009 p. 230). According to research around 80 percent of Greek students have sought to learn foreign languages in *frontistiria* and Greek families spend on average 880 million euros on tuition fees, textbooks and other related expenses (ibid.). Interestingly, despite the introduction of English in primary schools the numbers of foreign-language *frontistiria* tripled between 1985 (2,000 schools) and 2000 (7,000 schools) (Mattheoudakis and Alexiou, 2009 p. 232).

Other factors that seem to have contributed to the establishment and expansion of the private language teaching sector in Greece are directly linked to the limitations of state

⁴ See <http://rcel.enl.uoa.gr/peap/en/articles/programme> [last accessed 3 July 2016].

schools with reference to foreign language education. To start with, learning often takes place in a mixed-ability environment, as students often already attend courses in frontistiria or receive private tutoring at home, resulting in students attaining various levels of English language competence. This diversity in competence continues to inform the state school English classroom up until the *lyceum*. Although the state has taken steps to address this issue by grouping students together based on language proficiency, the groups that are formed are limited and do not reflect the versatility of language competence noted amongst students. Also, the language support that students are exposed to, highly depends on their educational, social and economic background (Dendrinis et.al, 2013, p. 112), which varies. Citing Manopoulou-Sergi (2001) and Papaefthimiou – Lytra (1990), Tsagari (2009) further notes that state schools have also been accused as inadequate with “limited linguistic and sociocultural learning environments”, which leads many parents to turn to frontistiria or have private lessons (p. 1-2).

Most importantly, parents turn to frontistiria for one fundamental reason; namely, the preparation they offer for high-stakes proficiency exams, which count as important qualifications for attaining a job in either public or private sector (Dendrinis et.al, 2013, p. 112). Strikingly, despite the fact that the Ministry of Education of Greece administers and runs national foreign language exams, leading to state-certified language exams, preparation for such exams, nor any other, does not occur in state schools (ibid.). Instead, the need for foreign language exam preparation has been consistently addressed by frontistiria. With reference to the English language, teaching in private language institutes stands in stark opposition to the realities of state schools. The courses offered by the latter are tailored to satisfy students’ needs and are usually dictated by the particular high-stakes proficiency examination, the students are sitting for (Sifakis, 2011, p. 125). As opposed to the loosely defined curricula designed for English language teaching (ELT) in state schools, curricula designed for ELT classrooms in frontistiria build on individual goals, although these goals are most likely linked to a specific language proficiency level (Sifakis, 2011, p. 125).

As was already discussed, exam preparation takes place primarily in frontistiria and through private tutoring, as state schools do not participate in high-stakes exams. Private tutoring, however, can be problematic from a researcher’s perspective as it tends to be ‘under-regulated’ (Bray and Kwo, 2014, p.2) and would pose difficulties in investigating. Unlike state schools, frontistiria offer foreign language courses to students of all ages and prepare them for a variety of language certificates for all levels. With respect to the English language,

frontistiria provide courses in General English, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), foundation courses and preparation courses for high-stakes exams in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Tsagari, 2009, p.2). Finally, teaching and tutoring is provided by teachers who have obtained a BA university degree in the English Language or by C2 certificate holders who have attained a license to teach. What becomes clear from the above discussion is that (i) English teaching in Greece cannot be conceived outside the context of the thriving private sector of frontistiria and that (ii) foreign language certification is often the driving force behind foreign language education in Greece. According to Tsagari and Papageorgiou, testing “is of special interest” (2012, p. 4) in Greece, which has a tradition of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) examinations, administered by local and international exam boards. The ‘exam oriented culture’ relevant to the English language was already discussed in this chapter. It is reasonable, therefore, to expect frontistiria to adapt to the needs of high-stakes exams when designing exam preparation courses. More specifically, the prominence of high-stakes exams in the ELT context in Greece, should be considered as a legitimate factor that determines ELT curricula, syllabi and teaching practices. Despite Greece’s strong orientation towards exams, however, not much research has been done on the influence of specific exams on teaching practices within the Greek foreign language educational context. The present study seeks to address this gap in research with special focus on the washback effect of multiple exams on EFL teaching practices in the Greek context.

1.4 Scope of Study

Until recently, the most common exams administered in Greece were those offered by Cambridge ESOL (previously, University of Cambridge) – the first one to enter the Greek market - and those administered by the English Language Institute (ELI) (former University of Michigan). As a case in point, 1995 saw 246,717 candidates sitting for the FCE (B2) exam of Cambridge ESOL worldwide, 115,279 of which were in Greece (Tsagari, 2009; cited in Gass and Reed, 2011, p. 33), which puts into perspective the prominence of language certification in Greece. These exams were considered very important for candidates since they would provide them with the much needed certificates, which are recognised by both the private and the public sector.

In the past few years, however, English language education in Greece has increasingly focused on a number of language examinations, beyond the ones previously mentioned.

More specifically, a variety of exams have been introduced specifically at B2, C1 and C2 levels as defined by the CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe 2001). These exams claim to cover the diverse needs and abilities of students. For the Greek state, a substantial number of these certificates “have lifelong validity and are considered by many as having as much weight as a university degree” (Sifakis, 2009, p. 233). To date, there are 21 B2 level EFL exams approved by ASEP (Civil Service Staffing Council), (Table 1.2). ASEP -approved examinations are recognised by the government and can be used for admission in the private and the public sectors.

This variation of state-approved exams in a certificate-driven society has introduced inevitable and significant changes in the English language teaching and learning system in Greece. The current English language teaching and learning situation seems to be more exam oriented than ever before. Some of its characteristics are that students take part in more than one exam within the same examination period. To respond to this need, publishers have produced coursebooks aiming at more than one exams or relevant practice tests books for each exam (Gass and Reed, 2011, p33) and exam preparation classes have become more demanding. This situation presents an interesting pedagogical problem with important implications for language teaching and learning. Before looking at the specific exams, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages will be briefly discussed, in order to provide a common frame of reference for each exam that will be examined within the context of this study and to acquaint the reader with the language skills, competences and proficiency level ‘guaranteed’ by each respective exam.

1.4.1 The CEFR

The Common European framework of Reference has been developed to foster the learning of foreign languages within the European Union and establish international standards for learning, teaching and assessment for all modern languages. Its original aim as far as language testing is concerned is to support the test design process regarding only the examination content syllabus and the assessment criteria, in terms of positive achievement rather than negative deficiencies. (Council of Europe, 2001).

The learner’s abilities are described at six levels (Table 1.2): basic user: A1 and A2 levels, independent user: B1 and B2 levels, proficient user: C1 and C2 levels. These levels form the Global Scale of CEFR. The CEFR document refers to the skills and knowledge related to language learning, as well as to the situations and context where communication takes place,

in detail for each level. The CEFR can be used to compare achievement and learning across languages (see http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf).

Table 1.2: Common Reference Levels – The Global Scale

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

For the purposes of this study, CEFR levels will be adopted in order to refer to the levels of the certificates currently offered within the Greek market.

1.4.2 Focus of Study: Multi-exam Teaching Context

The present study addresses English language learning and certificates targeted towards the B2 level, as described within the CEFR (independent users vantage level). B2 level proficiency in English is understood to be the minimum goal for the children of the average Greek family (Dendrinou et.al, 2013, p. 16). By extension, B2 level exams can be understood to be more popular in the Greek context, since most parents wish for their children to be certified at that level and preferably at C2 (ibid. p. 61). Given that B2 level exams appear to be the minimum desired threshold in English language certification for Greek students, this study will focus precisely on B2 level exam preparation courses. In contrast to other studies (Azadi and Gholami, 2013; Pan, 2011; Ren 2011), this study will explore the multi-exam classroom context – that is, courses geared towards students’ successful participation in a variety of B2 level exams rather than courses targeted at merely one exam.

The prestige of a frontistirio depends mainly on the success students have in exams. The main focus of English language education, at least in Greece, focuses on exams and certificates, giving rise to an “exam culture” (Nguyen, 2007) in education. The first certificate level worth obtaining is the B2 level, as it is assigned 30 credit points when applying for a job in the public sector in Greece. A C1 level certificate scores 50 credits for job applications in the public sector and a C2 level certificate scores 70 credits (Government

Gazette, 2015). A C2 level certificate could be seen as being more popular than a C1 level certificate in Greece for the additional reason that a C2 level certificate is considered to be a teaching qualification allowing their holders to get an English teaching license and become frontistiria owners or teachers, but not appointed as English teachers in state schools.

Most frontistiria in Greece dedicate an entire year for exam preparation, either for one exam or more exams, especially B2 level and above. Given the prestige-bearing status of exam certificates, this year is significant for both students and teachers. Students spend a school year (approximately ten months) working intensively towards the exams. The preparation classes vary depending on the frontistiria syllabi. Some frontistiria teach general English during the first three or four months of the year, while dedicating most of the teaching hours to practice tests and acquainting students with the format of each exam type in the three month period before the exam. At least during this period teachers might feel obliged to “teach to the test”, as Posner (2004, p.749) notes.

The preparation year in Greece, which is the focus of my study, exerts a highly negative influence on teachers and students. In a study conducted in Greece in preparation classes for FCE examination (aligned to the B2 level of the CEFR), Tsagari (2009) reports that students presented feelings of anxiety and boredom (p. 286). In addition, findings of the same study show that not only students but also teachers experienced stress and anxiety as the exams “were said to be used as a yardstick to judge teachers’ professional value” (Tsagari, 2009, p. 286). It is anticipated that students and teachers will be facing similar issues in multi-exam preparation classes, making for interesting research contexts.

As will be discussed in the following section, the last decade has seen a proliferation of English Language exams and certifying bodies which have infiltrated the Greek market. Curricula, syllabi and teaching material around frontistiria in Greece have been adapted to cater for the needs of students preparing for these exams. Students might opt to participate in more than one exam which has gradually given rise to the formation of multi-exam classes. Thus, a new and interesting research context has emerged, which marks a departure from more traditional teaching contexts targeted at one exam. For the purposes of this study, washback will be examined within this context to allow for an understanding of how diverse language tests influence teaching practices.

In order to select the appropriate research context for this study, many school owners and teachers were interviewed about the organization and administration of their English exam preparation classes. During this process certain patterns emerged. Firstly, teaching tends to be divided into three core classes: Reading-Vocabulary, Grammar-Structure, Listening-Speaking and Writing. Secondly, six to seven hour weekly courses are allocated for B2 level preparation. Finally, teaching material varying from course books to practice test material catering to the needs of each exam are usually selected and classes are equipped with audiovisual equipment for the listening practice and an interactive whiteboard.

Having a wide range of exams to select from, it is suggested that students usually opt for the exam that best matches their abilities. Teachers carry the responsibility of informing students of all the choices available to them and guiding them in making a suitable selection. Suitability is primarily measured by the potential of success rather than the language competence of the student or the time available for exam preparation. A B2 certificate is usually obtained after five to six years of English language learning. A number of factors are therefore considered when teachers consult students in choosing the appropriate exam for them.

As was previously mentioned, there is a gradual tendency noted for students to opt for participating in more than one exam in the same exam period. Reasons may vary and may come down to students' maximizing their chances of obtaining a certificate or their having a range of alternatives. Another reason may have to do with the certifying body of each exam, accreditation and the need of a student to be in possession of diverse language certificates. As a result, teaching contexts emerge that prepare students for two or even more exams, leading teachers to strive for a teaching formula that would effectively incorporate all the different exams and exam formats selected by the students. The term 'multi-exam' will be used consistently throughout this study to signify this teaching context which is geared towards a diverse set of exams. For the purposes of this study, the term 'multi-exam context' regards exclusively contexts in which a variety of combinations of the 21 exams currently recognised by ASEP (Civil Service Staffing Council) are taught. The following section provides information on these exams with an emphasis on the three ones used in this study. Information on the exams and their formats will offer a better understanding of the research context and the results of the study.

1.4.2.1 English Language Tests in Greece

The first test to enter the Greek market was the University of Cambridge's First Certificate in English (FCE) examination (aligned to the B2 level of the CEFR) in 1970 (Gass and Reed, 2011, p. 32). The next test introduced in Greece was the one administered by the University of Michigan. The B2 level of the University of Michigan was first administered in 1994 (ibid. p. 33). Later on, more examination boards entered the Greek market, such as Pearson's PTE General exams (former London Tests of English) and National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG) by the Hellenic Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs, to name a few. Certificates that are officially recognised by the Greek government and accredited by ASEP (Civil Service Staffing Council) are preferable for students as government-approved examinations are necessary "for the hiring and promotion of employees in the public and private sectors as well as in a wide range of educational fields". (Tsagari, 2009, pp. 2-3). Table 1.3 lists the 21 B2 level (CEFR) English language certificates currently recognised by the Greek state according to the *Government Gazette* (2015).

Table 1.3: B2 Level Certificates Recognised by the Greek state in 2015

LEVEL	CERTIFICATES
B2	1 First Certificate in English (FCE), Cambridge English Language Assessment, Cambridge ESOL
	2 Business Language Testing Service (BULATS) English Language Test, score: 60–74/100, Cambridge English Language Assessment
	International English Language Testing System (IELTS), score: 4.5–5.5/9
	3 University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), Cambridge ESOL.
	4 English Certificate of Competency in English, (ECCE), English Language Institute, ESOL, Hellenic American Union
	5 Pearson Test of English (PTE General), Level 3 - Upper Intermediate Communication
	6 Certificate in Integrated Skills in English (ISE II), Trinity College London, Table 7.
	7 City & Guilds, Level 1 Communicator Level Certificate, Certificate in ESOL International, City & Guilds
	8 Open College of North West (OCNW) Certificate in ESOL International Level 1, OCNW International Qualifications, EUROPALSO
	9 English Speaking Board (ESB) Level 1, Certificate in ESOL International All Modes (Council of Europe Level B2), EUROPALSO
	10 Test Of Interactive English (TIE), B2 Level, ACELS (Advisory Council For English Language Schools), Gnosis Assessment

11	Business English Certificate—Vantage (BEC VANTAGE), University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), Cambridge ESOL
12	Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC), score: 505–780, Educational Testing Service/Chauncey, USA, Hellenic American union
13	Educational Development International (EDI) Level 1 Certificate in ESOL International JETSET Level 5, EDI ESOL International, BCE-Best in Continuing Education
14	National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG) B2 Level, Hellenic Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs
15	Michigan State University (MSU-CELC): CEFR B2, Certificate of English Language Competency, University of Michigan
16	NOCN Level 1 Certificate in ESOL International (B2).
17	AIM Awards Level 1 Certificate in ESOL International (B2) (Sections: Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking).
18	MICHIGAN ENGLISH LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT BATTERY (MELAB) score 80 - 90, CAMBRIDGE MICHIGAN LANGUAGE ASSESSMENTS.
19	MICHIGAN ENGLISH TEST (MET) score 157 – 189, CAMBRIDGE MICHIGAN LANGUAGE ASSESSMENTS.
20	LRN Level 1 Certificate in ESOL International (CEFR B2).
21	Ascent is Level 1 Certificate in ESOL International (CEFR B2).
Source	http://www.asep.gr/asep/site/home/LC+Menu/FORIS/Ipodigmata/prok.csp (accessed: 05/09/2015)

These exams present variations in terms of content, format and marking criteria. Most of these exams consist of various sections evaluating all language skills in balance: oral production; written production; listening and reading comprehension; while some of them emphasize specific skills. Examination dates may also vary, as some exams are administered several times a year and others are administered on an annual basis.

1.4.2.2. Multi-exam Teaching Context in this Study

As already established, this study focuses on multi-exam teaching contexts. The school investigated for the purposes of this study prepared students for the ECCE Michigan, PTE General and TIE examinations. These exams are therefore isolated and investigated due to their availability in the research context under scrutiny. Most importantly, however, and, to a certain extent, due to their relative novelty they constitute uncharted territory within studies on washback. In relation to the ECCE, despite its popularity in Greece, there has been no research investigating its influence on teaching and teachers. On the other hand, research on the washback effect of the PTE General exam and the TIE exam on teaching and

teachers has never be conducted, highlighting the importance of the present study. This study, therefore, is significant not only because of the fact that it examines washback in multi-exam contexts but because of the exams it takes as its focal point, two of which, to date, have not been investigated for their impact on teaching. What follows is a brief overview of the three exams under scrutiny.

1.4.2.2.1 Michigan ECCE Exam

The University of Michigan first administered the ECCE (Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English) examination in Greece in 1994. The test is now designed and administered by Cambridge Michigan Language Assessments (CaMLA), a not-for-profit collaboration between the University of Cambridge and the University of Michigan. According to its administrative body, the typical test taker should be able to communicate in English at B2 level, as outlined by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).⁵⁵ The format of the exam is presented in table 1.4.

⁵⁵ <http://www.cambridgemichigan.org/institutions/products-services/tests/proficiency-certification/ecce/> [last accessed 9 July 2016].

Table 1.4: Format of Michigan ECCE Examination

Section	Time	Description	Number of Items
Speaking	15'	Test takers participate in a structured, multistage task with one examiner.	4 stages
Listening	30'	Part 1 (multiple choice) A short recorded conversation is followed by a question. Answer choices are shown as pictures.	30
		Part 2 (multiple choice) Short talks delivered by single speakers on different topics, followed by 4 to 6 questions each.	20
Grammar Vocabulary Reading	90'	Grammar (multiple choice) An incomplete sentence is followed by a choice of words or phrases to complete it. Only one choice is grammatically correct.	35
		Vocabulary (multiple choice) An incomplete sentence is followed by a choice of words or phrases to complete it. Only one word has the correct meaning in that context.	35
		Reading (multiple choice) Part 1: A short reading passage is followed by comprehension questions. Part 2: Two sets of four short texts related to each other by topic are followed by 10 questions each.	30
Writing	30'	The test taker reads a short excerpt from a newspaper article and then writes a letter or essay giving an opinion about a situation or issue.	1 task
Source	http://www.cambridgemichigan.org/institutions/products-services/tests/proficiency-certification/ecce/ [last accessed 9 July 2016].		

The ECCE examination implements computer-automated scoring and uses specialised software following the principles of item response theory. The writing section is scored by two independent, trained examiners. If there is a significant divergence in the scoring of the two examiners, a third examiner determines the final score. The writing section is assessed solely on a pass or fail basis based on the following four parameters: content and development of arguments; organization and connection of ideas; linguistic range and control; and communicative effect.⁶ The speaking section is scored by local examiners and oral production is evaluated based on the following four parameters: overall communicative effectiveness; language control and resources (i.e. grammar and vocabulary); and, finally,

⁶ <http://www.cambridgemichigan.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/ECCE-Rating-Scale-Writing-20140220.pdf> [last accessed 10 July 2016].

delivery and intelligibility,⁷ but the final score is determined by the University of Michigan in the United States.⁸

Section grades consist of Honors (840-1000 scaled score), Pass (750-835 scaled score), Low Pass (650-745 scaled score), Borderline Fail (610-645 scaled score), and Fail (0-605 scaled score). Examinees who achieve an average score of 650 or higher are awarded the ECCE certificate. A certificate of competency with Honours is obtained if candidates achieve a score of 840 or higher in all four sections. The ECCE certificate qualification is valid for life.

Table 1.5: Score Reporting

Scaled Score per Section	
HONORS (H)	840-1.000
PASS (P)	750-835
LOW PASS (LP)	650-745
BORDERLINE FAIL (BF)	610-645
FAIL (F)	0-605

The results are sent within two months to the Hellenic American Union by the University of Michigan. Both the candidates and their language schools receive the results. The candidates receive a letter in which they can see their total and per section scores. Language schools receive a report of the scores of their candidates and are able to see the results through the ORFEAS website (Practical Information on ECCE, n.d.).

1.4.2.2.2 PTE General Level 3 Exam

The PTE General exams, formerly known as London Tests of English, are administered by the Pearson PLC group and are administered in partnership with Edexcel, the UK's largest examining body. The item types in each PTE General test are grouped together around topics referred to as themes. The themes in Level 3 (B2) are often abstract (pollution, conservation, etc) and most of the texts used are authentic.⁹ In other words, they are taken from sources that address an English language speaking audience and not English language learners. Table 1.6 presents the written and spoken formats of the exams.

⁷ <http://www.cambridgemichigan.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/ECCE-Rating-Scale-Speaking-20140220.pdf> [last accessed 10 July 2016].

⁸ See <http://www.hau.gr/?i=examinations.en.ecce-scoring> [last accessed 10 July 2016].

⁹ http://www.pte.edu.gr/files/guides/PTEG_GuideL3.pdf [last accessed 10 July 2016].

Table 1.6: Written Test Guide to Pearson Test of English General, Level 3

Sections	Skills	Item types	Objectives	Score points
1	Listening	3-option multiple choice	To assess ability to understand the main detail in short spoken utterances	10
2	Listening and writing	Dictation	To assess ability to understand an extended utterance by transcribing a spoken text	5 list. 5 writ.
3	Listening	Text, note completion	To assess ability to extract specific information from extended spoken texts	10
4	Reading	Gap fill 3-option multiple choice	To assess ability to understand the purpose, structure and main idea of short written texts	5
5	Reading	3-option multiple choice	To assess ability to understand the main ideas in an extended written text	5
6	Reading	Open-ended question	To assess ability to understand the main points of short and extended written texts	8
7	Reading	Text, note completion	To assess ability to extract specific information from an extended written text	7
8	Writing	Write correspondence	To assess ability to write a piece of correspondence (90–120 words)	10
9	Writing	Write text	To assess ability to write a short text from own experience, knowledge or imagination (150–200 words)	10
Total				75
Source	PTE Pearson Test of English General, http://pearsonpte.com/pte-general/levels/ (accessed: 16/09/2015)			

The PTE General exam Level 3 is conducted twice a year. Marks are reported as either pass or fail. Students who fail the exam receive detailed feedback and an analytical breakdown of their performance. Results are usually sent to the language school of each candidate.

1.4.2.2.3 TIE Exam

TIE is an acronym for Test of Interactive English administered by Gnosis Assessment, a private organization specializing in the management and administration of language examinations in Greece. The TIE examination format is composed of two parts, the aural-oral part and the reading-writing part. Learners have to prepare three pre-specified tasks and they are required to select their own topics and materials. There is both an oral and written examination in these three tasks and there are two spontaneous tasks in the test, one in the oral part of the examination and the other in the written part of the examination.¹⁰

More specifically, learners are required to keep a logbook, which is not assessed, with the information they have prepared. The logbook should contain information based on an investigation/mini project candidates have undertaken through reading various sources and gathering information on a given topic, a book in English which candidates have read and about which they should be able to speak and write and a news story, which candidates should have been following prior to the exam date. Candidates should have prepared on all these tasks, as the examiners select which task the candidates will present. Table 1.7 presents the parts of the exam:

Table 1.7: Test of Interactive English - (TIE) - B2 Level

Skills	Tasks		Time
	1 st Part	2 nd Part	1 hour
Reading- Writing	News Story or Book	Free Production	
	Students have prepared the Investigation Topic, the Book and the News Story. They use their logbooks.		
Aural-Oral	Interview		20-25 minutes
	Investigation Topic		per two
	News Story or Book		candidates
	Discussion		

¹⁰ See <http://www.tieexams.com/index.php/faq-teachers> [last accessed 10 July 2016].

Source	TIE Exams, http://www.tieexams.com/ , http://www.tieexams.gr/ (accessed: 16/09/2015)
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All candidates receive a certificate if they fulfil all the requirements of the test since there is no fail grade.

1.5 Research Problem

Numerous studies have rigorously examined the washback effect of high-stakes exams on teaching and learning English as a foreign language in different national and educational contexts (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Read and Hayes, 2003; Green, 2006; Mickan and Motteram, 2008; Tsagari, 2009), indicating that testing washback is a complex concept. Within his seminal work, Messick (1989) considered washback in relation to interpreting test results, the impact of testing on test-takers and teachers as well as any type of misuses or unintentional effects tests might bear. In 1996, Shohamy et al. investigated the impact of national tests of Arabic as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language amongst teachers and students in Israel, with a special emphasis on how tests influence classroom activities, time allotment, teaching material and perceptions. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) looked at how testing determined student-to-student and student-to-instructor interaction. Cheng (2001) illuminated washback as a complex phenomenon that involves various factors such as tests, test-related teaching and learning and the perceptions of the stakeholders. More recently, Ren (2011) and Leung (2014) have looked at classroom-based assessment and the impact of exams on classroom assessment practices. Most studies, however, that have investigated the teaching content and methods teachers employ to teach have repeatedly indicated that exams may affect the content taught to students, while failing to see any specific impact testing might bear on the teaching methods employed within the foreign language classroom (Cheng, 2004; Wall and Alderson, 1996). This study returns to the impact high-stake exams might bear on teaching and specifically in the multi-exam teaching environment, in order to revisit washback in relation to teaching methods rather than content or assessment.

This study, therefore, falls within the body of literature that examines washback on a micro-level; namely, in relation to the classroom environment. In 2000, McNamara draws a methodologically and theoretically valuable distinction between the closely related concepts

of “impact” – which describes the effects of tests on education on a macro-level – and “washback” – which describes the effects of language tests on the micro-level of language teaching and learning within the classroom (cited in Cheng, 2014, p. 1). Considering the status of foreign language certification in Greece, as it is evidenced in the job market and through people’s perceptions, it is difficult to conceive testing in this particular national context without acknowledging its impact on education and the wider society. The ‘impact’ of testing on the wider educational system is not directly addressed as a research question in this study as it merits full-scale study in its own right. However the impact of testing on education – and, within the context of this study in particular, private language institutes – is the starting point of this study and informs it throughout its entirety. Aim of this study, however, is to investigate washback specifically on a micro-level – in relation to teaching practices - and address pitfalls that might have hampered previous studies from observing a direct relationship between testing and teaching practices.

Based on research so far (see chapter 2), few studies exist on washback focusing solely on teaching practices, despite calls to address this gap. To determine the existence of washback on teaching practices, the latter need to be addressed within a more coherent framework. It is worth mentioning that Glover (2006) highlights the need for further research on the washback effect on **how** teachers teach in order to fill in the gaps in the existing literature. An understanding of how teachers teach should precede any study that wishes to investigate the factors that influence foreign language instruction. The problem might arise from an inability to address and adequately describe core concepts used in the relevant literature. To start with, given the confusion surrounding certain terms relating to teaching practices, as will be discussed in chapter two of this thesis (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Watanabe, 2008; Cheng, 1997, 1998, 1999; Hayes and Read, 2004; Cheng, 2004; Mickan and Motteram, 2009, Tsagari, 2012; Azadi and Gholami, 2013; Aftab et al, 2014), the present study aims to draw a distinction between ‘teaching strategies’, ‘activities’ and ‘tasks’ and bring these terms together under the umbrella term ‘teaching practices’. Thus, a novelty of this study is that it will differentiate amongst the above concepts to address the incongruity in previous studies, which create complexities and might lead to contradictory results. More specifically, ‘teaching practices’ in exam preparation contexts will be investigated through novel methodological prisms, which have been absent from washback studies. Therefore, the study will offer a framework for investigating teaching practices, contributing to the overall picture of washback research on teaching. It will also highlight the important role

that teaching practices in exam-preparation classes and, by extension, teachers, play in the washback process.

One hallmark of washback studies is that such studies focus on teachers' actions to justify the reasons why teachers teach the way they do. Yin (2010) and Tsagari (2012) highlight the importance of using post-observational interviews on washback studies to “shed more light on the teaching practices” (Tsagari, 2012, p. 47). In response to the need for more information coming directly from the teacher, together with the lack of relevant research, this study breaks ground in that it uses post-observational interviews to provide insights on what leads teachers to make specific pedagogical choices. It aims to foster a greater understanding of the relationship among teacher cognition, teaching practices and high-stakes exams. Pivotaly, it investigates washback within a highly under-researched context - namely, the multi-exam classroom – and, in relation to exams that are either under-represented in the relevant literature on washback (i.e. ECCE) or not represented at all, perhaps due to their novelty (i.e. TIE, PTE General).

The pervasive exam culture in Greece, the requirement for recognised English language qualifications in the Greek job market and the highly sophisticated network of private language institutes that has arisen all serve to create a very interesting context for research on washback. Taylor (2000, p. 154) points out that tests “influence educational processes in various ways” and they can have “consequences beyond just the classroom”. Indeed, as was already established in section 1.3 of this chapter, parents spend a lot of money, students put in a lot of effort, teachers dedicate a lot of teaching hours, publishers produce a large amount of books and test preparation materials, and school owners and tutors rely on the exams for business growth. The popularity of English language learning in Greece, the pervasiveness of B2 level exams among foreign language learners and the variety of certifying bodies currently in the market – a phenomenon idiosyncratic to the English language – can all be seen as contributing factors to the creation of the multi-exam teaching context. Thus, a new research landscape is created that merits exploration.

Given that it is a relatively new territory, the majority of the studies on washback have focused on one exam rather than the multi-exam context creating a need for further research and specifically on multi-exam classes. At the heart of this problem is that multi-exam preparation classes have created a more rigorous situation for teachers' preparation for and the alignment of their teaching practices with the tests. Thus, a highly test responsive

teaching and learning environment has been created where teachers, students and administrators find themselves ‘trapped’. Thus, the consequences of multi-exam classes on teachers who work at frontistiria need to be explored.

1.6 Significance of Study

Bachman (2000) refers to language testing as a ‘subfield within applied linguistics’ (p. 3) which has evolved and expanded in many different ways. Research in language testing is firmly situated within the field of linguistics since it deals with issues of language assessment and language pedagogy and it heavily draws on but also contributes to the discussion on topics which are considered branches of applied linguistics such as literacy and translation. Linguistics is related to ‘language in context’ and this piece of research investigates foreign language learning in the exam context and it also offers a new theoretical framework within which exam washback could be approached in the specific exam context. Language testing can ‘contribute to a widening of the scope of SLA research’ (Alderson and Huhta, 2011, p. 48) since, as Bachman (2004) points out, its nature is interdisciplinary drawing on both applied linguistics and psychometrics (p. 91). Taking into consideration that language testing deals with both the “how” and the “what” (Davidson, 2004, p. 85), it aims at understanding and measuring language ability. Therefore, the teaching component of washback is crucial in applied linguistics studies since it provides information about any potential discrepancies between what is taught and what students have learnt.

The study is significant in that it offers educators and policymakers in Greece insights into the relationship between teaching practices and high-stakes exams. Hopefully, the findings of this study will provide stakeholders involved in English language education not only in Greece but also internationally with a framework to better understand the policy involved in exams and how exams practically impact teaching and learning. Relevant exam contexts are also common in Asia-Pacific countries, such as China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Japan in which an increasing number of students study English at home and in private English language schools in order to sit for fee-based English language exams (Otomo, 2016; Allen, 2016). In Japan specifically, students who want to enter universities prepare themselves for exams in private institutes called *juku* which promote exam-oriented English language study (Allen, p. 55). These exams vary greatly from university to university in terms of their content and the type of tasks tested for and, therefore, employed in the classroom. In some cases, exams students sit for are very different, such as the Cambridge

English exam or the Pearson Test of English exam, to name a few (Otomo, 2016). The presence of these English language tests indicates the growing popularity of test-taking among learners of English and as Otomo (2016) points out exert pressure on teachers since the success on exams influence a school's reputation and ranking (p. 3). The same phenomenon is observed in Cyprus since the number of students attending private language institutes for the purpose of succeeding in high-stakes exams has increased (Tzagari and Kontozi, 2016, p. 277).

The general purpose of the study is to investigate Greek B2 level exam classes and the impact of the multi-exam context on teachers' perceptions, on their curriculum planning and, finally, on their teaching instruction, with an emphasis on teaching practices, as those will be defined for the purposes of this study. The distinction among different teaching practices, which was absent from the existing literature, emphasizes the need to draw a distinction among "activities", "tasks" and "teaching strategies" when studying teachers' methodology in washback studies. "Activities" refer to what students do to practice language, "tasks" are final products to be achieved after practicing a series of activities and "teaching strategies" are what teachers do to manage a class and teach. This study further seeks to distinguish the types of teaching practices are employed by teachers within the multi-exam classes. Most importantly, this study aims to explore the nature and scope of the phenomenon of the washback effect on multi-exam classes; to identify the factors that contribute to or inhibit the intended washback of multi-exam classes; and to contribute to the literature in relation to test washback in language education, especially in the Greek context.

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exams such as the Cambridge English exams or the Pearson Test of English exam to name a few (Otomo, 2016). The presence of these English language tests indicates the growing popularity of test-taking among learners of English and as Otomo (2016) points out exert pressure on teachers since the success on exams influence schools' reputation and ranking (p. 3). The same phenomenon applies in Cyprus as well since the number of students attending private institutes of language in order to attend preparation courses for high-stakes exams has increased (Tsagari and Koutouzi, 2016, p. 277).

Most importantly, the study will contribute to the introduction of the teacher's voice in such studies, which, so far, has been absent from the local and national contexts. The results of the study will 'enhance the assessment literacy and professionalism of FL teachers across Europe' (Vogt and Tsagari, 2014 p. 392) since it promotes understanding and valuable information on tangible areas like skills, teaching strategies, tasks and activities and placing students in examination preparation courses. A need for advanced training in such areas were characterized important by teachers in a study on teachers' assessment literacy conducted by Vogt and Tsagari (2014). Finally, the results of the study will improve our understanding of the washback phenomenon through new empirical evidence.

In addition to the theoretical, methodological and educational contribution, the findings of the study have various implications. Awareness of classroom consequences can offer teachers, teacher trainers, test constructors and teaching and testing material designers insight that can contribute towards beneficial washback. The results of the study will recommend new and appropriate methodologies for teachers and effective ways to tackle exam-related demands. Teachers will, therefore, be able to balance teaching and learning with exam preparation and introduce activities and/or tasks focusing more on language learning rather than on exam preparation per se. Teacher training programmes may also benefit from this study since they might draw on the findings in order to improve. These training programmes could potentially familiarise teachers with various teaching practices, activities and tasks, and educate them in a better use of teaching practices. The findings of the study will perhaps be useful to material designers and publishers offering them insight on how to balance language skills. Moreover, the findings might make teachers aware of a variety of tasks and skills which will promote learning and positive class atmosphere. Finally, since, "teachers can shed light on the validity of the test" (Winke, 2011, p. 633), there might be implications for test constructors regarding the validity of their exams, given the fact that this study substantially focuses on teachers.

1.7 Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into seven chapters. Chapter one presents an introduction to the research context, giving the rationale behind the study, describing the English language learning situation in Greece, the Common European Framework of Reference, the language tests and the preparation year. Furthermore, it provides an overview of the English language tests in Greece, states the general problem, the significance of the study and an outline of the thesis. Chapter two outlines some of the background information and previous studies relevant to the current situation. Chapter three focuses on the research design, the research questions, instrumentation, and the methods of data collection. Study findings and results are reported in chapters four and five. Chapter six compares the results in order to answer the research questions and discusses findings and conclusions. The last chapter provides theoretical implications, limitations and recommendations for future research agendas.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter Two of this thesis aims to present the theoretical underpinnings of the current study and engage in theoretical and methodological considerations that will guide this study through to its conclusion. More specifically, this chapter begins with a discussion and exploration of the phenomenon of washback. Namely, it relates the various definitions of the phenomenon that have been employed by researchers working in washback studies in order to determine the most appropriate approach to the phenomenon that will prove methodologically fruitful for the purposes of this study. The connection between tests and washback is further examined, concluding with a discussion of assessment and validity. Given that the focus of this thesis is to examine washback in relation to specific teaching practices, this chapter further examines washback hypotheses, models and research studies on the content and manner of teaching as well as on teachers' beliefs, all of which are relevant to methodological and theoretical questions that inform this thesis in its entirety. Subsequently, washback studies that examine exam washback on content, material, skills, tasks and activities are examined, as well as on teacher's attitudes and feelings.

This chapter then moves on to examine what will be a contributing factor to its theoretical and methodological framework; namely, teaching methods and strategies employed by teachers. It further provides a provisional definition of strategies and examines exam washback on said strategies as revealed in the relevant literature. Finally, this chapter highlights the need for a washback model on teaching methods and strategies.

2.2 Impact, Washback and 'the power of tests'

Tests are often used to bring innovation in educational contexts and can be understood to greatly impact teaching and learning (Watanabe, 1996, p.318). Alderson and Wall (1993) specifically call attention to the powerful effect testing has within the context of the classroom, as "tests are held to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms" (p. 115). For the purposes of this study, testing refers almost exclusively to high-stakes examinations, as those and their impact in the classroom will be the focal point. Within a broader perspective, high-stake exams are acknowledged as those tests that have real or

perceived consequences for students, staff and schools and seem to have a direct impact on the classroom level (Chapman and Snyder, 2000, p. 458). More specifically, within the context of studies in education, a widely accepted definition of high-stakes tests is the one provided by Madaus:

High-stakes tests include those used for the certification or recertification of teachers, promotion of students from one grade to the next, award of a high school diploma, assignment of a student to a remedial class, allocation of funds to a school or school district, award of merit pay to teachers on the basis of their students' test performance, certification or recertification of a school district, and placement of a school system in "educational receivership" (1988, p. 30)

In other words, tests that potentially exert their influence from the micro-context of the classroom to the macro level of educational policies are accepted as high-stakes exams. Given the power of high-stakes exams, language policies are created and undoubtedly the creators of the tests influence the behaviors of those affected by the tests such as teachers and students (Shohamy, 2007). Language policies are policy mechanisms that 'impact the structure, function, use or acquisition of language' (Johnson, 2013) p. 9) and which can be official or de facto (locally produced policies) having a powerful influence (Johnson, 2013, p. 12). Teachers, administrators and other stakeholders involved in education are not only engaged in language policy but they can also create their own language policy at a local level for their schools, students and communities. Research on language policy has shown that teachers, who are the focus of the current research, have the ability to influence language policies. In fact, as Johnson (2013) states, it is not only teachers who make policy but also students (p. 99). Johnson (2013) attaches great importance to teachers regarding language education policy, pointing out that 'the agency of the teachers in the classrooms makes them the final arbiter of the language education policy and its implementation' (p. 99). Teachers can be 'the ultimate arbiters' in classroom implementation of policy since language policy power varies within contexts and research on language policy can provide insights into the changing role of teachers from simple implementers of language policies to 'policy decision-makers' (Johnson, 2013, p. 100). However, Johnson (2013) makes a pivotal observation in stating that if teachers lack the expertise to make language policy decisions, then teacher agency can be vulnerable. In the specific research context, high-stakes decisions derive from

the results of the English language exams since they render students eligible for recruitment and entrance in higher education. Given the importance attached to such language exams, a substantial increase of exams available on the Greek market has been observed. This increase of language exams on the Greek market has necessitated that teachers become policy decision makers that deal with this English language examination market.

Given that tests have been observed to lead to the design of new curricula, textbooks and to the emergence of new teaching methods, Shohamy (2001) speaks of ‘the power of tests’ where tests can create “winners and losers, successes and failures, rejections and acceptances”. As a result, tests can have detrimental effects on test takers (Shohamy, 2001, p. 15). So, tests can affect language policies on both societal and educational levels (Shohamy, 2007). A useful distinction has been made by McNamara (2002), as already mentioned in the first chapter, whereby ‘the power of tests’ on a broader level and in relation to society and education is understood as ‘impact’, while ‘washback’ reflects the influence of testing in the classroom. Influence on the level of curriculum design and educational policies, as well as the status high-stakes exams enjoy in a given society can be understood as ‘impact.’ This ‘impact’ of tests on the level of curriculum design and innovation was first studied by Hughes (1988) within the field of research in language education. Hughes sought to examine the introduction of a high-stakes language exam in English within the context of an English-medium university in Turkey and the powerful washback effect that specific exam would have on teachers and curriculum design. One of the major drawbacks of Hughes’ approach, however, as that has been identified by Alderson and Wall (1993) was the lack of classroom data in his methodological approach. Drawing on more than 300 class observations within the context of Sri Lanka, Alderson and Wall (1993) noted a similar trend, whereby an English language exam determined the content of English lessons and in-class test design. More recently, considering research performed on washback and innovation studies (e.g. Chapman and Snyder, 2000; Wall 2000), Andrews (2004) draws on specific case studies to examine the ‘impact’ testing can have on curriculum innovation, alerting researchers and stake-holders, however, to “the dangers of an oversimplistic, naive reliance on high stakes tests as a primary change strategy” (p. 48). The importance of Andrews’ contribution lies in the fact that he moves away from what may appear as empirically true or false claims about the impact of testing on curriculum design, such as Madaus’ (1988) claims of tests becoming “the ferocious master of the educational process” (pp. 84-85; cited in Andrews, 2004, p. 39). As opposed to such theoretical or methodological conclusions, Andrews focuses on raising awareness amongst both researchers and stake-

holders of the various parameters that should be taken into account when implementing test-driven innovations, such as the context in which changes are implemented and various constraints that might be at work (e.g. concerns of stake holders, depth of proposed innovations, etc.) (Andrews, 2004, p. 49).

Andrews' paper, therefore, highlights the fact that high-stakes exams do not intrinsically entail positive or negative 'impact' or washback on any level; rather, their negative or beneficial impact, or, in other words, beneficial or damaging *direction* (Hughes, 1989) depends on the stakeholders recognizing and adjusting to a variety of parameters. With the test-taker in the spotlight, Cheng (2005) considers washback *intensity* – the extent to which the participants are invested in a test and willing to adapt their behaviour in order to meet the demands of said test – as a key factor in measuring the impact of a high-stakes exam. Whether, negative or positive, as Shohamy further points out tests are “the most powerful devices, capable of changing and prescribing the behaviour of those who are affected by their results—that is, administrators, teachers, and students” 1993b, (p. 513).

Considering the impact high-stakes tests have on the educational context and on society, it becomes apparent that they merit further attention from the academic community. The investigation of high-stakes exams and their washback effect, which this study conducts, is particularly important in the context of Greece given the popularity of high-stakes exams in English, as that was posited in the introductory chapter of this thesis, and the growing number of high-stakes exams that have entered the Greek market. As Green observes, however, the field of language testing has been traditionally more concerned with test design rather than with the consequences of such tests within the educational context and the classroom (2013, p. 41). This thesis will address this issue and examine the implications high-stakes exams have in the classroom context, and more specifically, the teaching practices that they encourage.

To date, empirical studies have produced inconclusive results regarding the washback effect on teaching. Some studies have shown that there is a washback effect on the content that teachers teach (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Wall and Alderson, 1993; Tsigari, 2011; Mickan and Motteram, 2009) but not on the manner in which teachers teach (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Glover, 2006). Other studies have concluded that while some teachers may be influenced by the exams, others are not (Watanabe, 1996). Qi's (2005) remark that “there is a general consensus that high-stakes tests produce strong washback” and the fact that “very

little evidence has been presented to support the argument that tests influence teaching” (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 115) further necessitates more research on testing and teaching. The purpose of this study is to offer insights into the relationship between testing and teaching and the influence or consequences of tests on teaching exam preparation classes in Greece.

2.2.1 Definition(s) of Washback

As already discussed, the consequences of tests on a broader level are generally referred to in the literature as test “impact” (Bachman and Palmer, 1996). Washback, on the other hand, refers to the effects of tests on teachers and individual students (Bachman and Palmer, 1996); in other words, the effects on the educational context, what and how teachers teach. Researchers, such as Wall (1997), take a slightly different approach to this distinction between “impact” and “washback”, defining the former as the effect of tests on “individuals, policies, or practices within the classroom” (cited in Cheng and Curtis, 2004, p. 4), while limiting their understanding of the latter as the effect of tests on teaching and learning. Others do not recognize such a great methodological or theoretical value in this distinction (see e.g. Andrews, Fullilove and Wong, 2002), suggesting that “washback” can encompass both the narrow and wider effects of testing. In any case, following the definition of “impact”, as that is suggested in the literature, “washback” can be understood as encompassed within the broader term “impact”. Given the current author’s understanding of “classroom practices” as part of the narrow‘er’ effects of testing in the context of a classroom and the fact that this thesis focuses on the impact of testing on teaching, the term washback will be applied throughout this thesis. Furthermore, unless some sort of uniformity in ‘teaching practices’ employed across national and/or international classroom contexts can be observed in relation to a specific high-stakes exam, it is this author’s contention that such classroom practices can be understood as washback phenomena.

Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Ferman (1996) define washback as “the connection between testing and learning” (p. 298), which has also been referred to as “measurement-driven instruction” (Popham, 1987), that is, the notion that tests drive teaching and learning. However, other more commonly used definitions have been formulated. “Washback”, according to Hughes (1989), is “the effect of testing on teaching and learning” (in Bailey, 1996, p. 258), while Alderson and Wall (1993) altered slightly the definition of washback as “the influence of testing on teaching and learning” (p. 115). Later, Messick (1996, p. 241) offered another extension to the definition of washback, adding that washback “is the extent

to which the introduction and use of a test influences language teachers and learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning”. All definitions focus on the effects of tests on both teaching and learning. However, Messick (1996) offers an additional element to the notion of washback. This element relates to the tests bringing changes to teaching and learning, which may be either intended or unintended, positive or negative (Alderson and Wall, 1993).

The slight differences that emerge from the various definitions of washback in the existing literature either relate to scope or to research focus and are not mutually exclusive. This thesis employs the means of class observation and teacher interviews to determine washback in relation to specific teaching practices and will therefore be concerned with washback as the effect of testing on teaching practices. Given the seminal nature of Hughes’ work and the fact that the author sees no need to act otherwise, this study adopts Hughes’ (1989) definition of washback and further analyses the nature of washback, its scope and intensity.

2.2.2 The Nature of Washback

Following a definition of washback, this chapter further relates the characteristics of the phenomenon as those have emerged in the relevant literature and given the concept its texture. Washback can be analysed in terms of washback *intensity* (Cheng, 2005) and washback *direction* (Alderson and Wall, 1993), as those were discussed earlier in this chapter. These can be seen as an integral part of washback and contributing to its theoretical and methodological value. These two parameters acquire different values in different settings, as researchers have suggested (see e.g. Shohamy et al, 1996). While setting can be understood as a very broad concept (i.e. country, educational context, etc.) a useful conceptualization of setting in relation to washback variability and validity is provided by Green in his effort to provide a framework for test developers to determine washback. According to Green, setting should encompass the key participants in the context in which the test will be used (e.g. teachers, learners); their investment in the decisions associated with the test; and the role tests perform in the local culture (Green, 2013, p. 46). Wall (2000, p. 501), for example, draws on a variety of studies that have observed a negative impact of high-stakes exams in the context of developing countries. Within the exam-oriented culture of Greece, Gass and Reed (2011, p. 35) observe negative washback in the overt commercialization of English language teaching and learning through an overzealous emphasis on practice tests in *frontistiria*.

Washback can be strong or weak, depending on the effect that a test might have. If a test has a strong effect then it “will determine everything that happens in the classroom, and lead all teachers to teach in the same way toward the exam” (Watanabe, 2008, p. 20). This suggests that the higher the stakes of the test the stronger the effect will be. Beyond the perceived importance of a test, the intensity of washback is further moderated by a variety of factors, such as teacher background, belief systems, social setting and educational context (Cheng et al, 2004). In addition, as mentioned in the previous section, washback can be intended or unintended (Messick, 1996). This depends on whether the test does what it was initially intended to do. Watanabe highlights the importance of observing both intended and unintended washback through postobservation interviews that will reveal any inconsistencies between the teachers’ intentions and the learners’ in-class behaviour (2008, p. 31). As a case in point, Allwright (personal communication with Watanabe, 2008, p. 31) suggests that some teachers might perceive themselves as exam-oriented, but in reality this perception is not reflected in their teaching.

One of the most significant principles of the concept of washback is that the effects of a test may be beneficial to learners, teachers and the teaching context while others may be damaging (Green, 2007). However, there seems to be no connection between the test quality and the washback effect. A bad test can have positive effects and a good test negative ones (Messick, 1996; Alderson and Wall, 1993). Remarkably, washback can be positive for certain language skills while damaging for others. Akpınar and Cakildere (2013, p. 86-7) observe a strong positive washback of the high stakes foreign language examinations KPDS and ÜDS in Turkey in relation to students’ reading skills but a strong negative washback on their listening skills, given that these exams do not test for listening. It is therefore implied that high-stakes exams can boost certain skills while others remain atrophied. Such cases raise concerns about the quality of teaching and specifically a concern about tests’ influence on teaching and learning practices. Some researchers have emphasised the positive impact of examinations. Positive washback of an exam is considered as such as it can bring beneficial changes to teaching (Hughes, 1989; Bailey, 1996; Wall, 2000). Supporters of this view believe that an altered test influences language teaching positively. In other words, positive washback is experienced, as Taylor (2005) points out, “when a teaching procedure encourages ‘good’ teaching practice” (p. 154). Similarly, Pearson believes that the washback of a test will be positive if it has beneficial effects and “encourage[s] the whole range of desired changes” (Pearson, 1988, p. 101). In line with the beneficial influence of tests is the teachers and learners’ positive attitude towards the exams and their willingness to work

towards the exams' objectives (Cheng, 2005). Based on Hughes' argument that the "ultimate washback objective" of an English language test should be "the English skills that candidates develop" (1993, p. 5), Green suggests that positive washback is assessed according to the extent to which criterion abilities improve "as a result to test preparation" (2013, p. 48):

Where test scores improve in line with criterion abilities, judged by other measures, positive washback is implied. Where test scores improve, but criterion abilities do not, the washback is likely negative. Where preparation practices fail to boost either test scores or criterion abilities, we might look to other variables such as participant beliefs or availability of resources to explain the outcomes (Green, 2013, p. 48).

In other words, positive washback is assessed based not merely on test scores but, the improvement of students' abilities. This is often not the case, however. Some studies have shown negative or harmful washback of tests on teaching. Negative washback, according to Alderson and Wall (1993), is the negative effect of a particular test on teaching and learning, for example "something that the teacher or learner does not wish to teach or learn" (p. 5). Negative washback occurs when the test aims do not match the course objectives. This results in the narrowing of the curriculum, pressure to cover the materials of the exam and feelings of stress and anxiety (Shohamy et al., 1996; Wall, 2000). Specifically, with regard to negative washback, studies have shown that exam preparation programmes reduce the time of instruction, limit teaching materials to exam material and restrict teacher's choices regarding content and methods (Smith, 1991). Cheng (2005) claims that tests may have a negative effect when they "fail to reflect the learning principles and/or the course objectives to which they are supposedly related" (p. 29). Other consequences of negative washback are the omission of some skills and increase of test scores (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Andrews, 2004).

Limiting our evaluation of a given test's success to test scores and improvement of students' abilities, we run the risk of oversimplifying the complex process of teaching and learning and, indeed, washback. Beyond the content of a test and the skills that it tests, studies (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Shohamy et al, 1996, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996) have shown that the intensity or type of washback, positive or negative, depends on factors other than the test itself. Those, as has already been mentioned, are often linked to setting; i.e. the

educational system and teacher beliefs. To determine the validity of a test, particularly where the stakes are high, it is essential that all these variables are taken into account.

2.2.3 Washback and Validity

Morrow (1986, p. 6) initiated the concept of “washback validity” as the quality that captures the relationship between testing, teaching and learning. According to many researchers, the validity of a test should be measured by the degree of beneficial influence the test has on teaching (Morrow, 1986; Frederiksen and Collins, 1989, in Alderson and Wall, 1993). However, Alderson and Wall (1993) question these views and claim that washback “cannot be related directly to a test’s validity” (p.116), as a good test might have negative effects and a poorly designed test might have positive effects on teachers and learners. Messick (1996) sees a relationship between washback and validity but he considers washback as a form of the consequential aspect of construct validity and he purports that it cannot in any case “stand alone as a standard of validity” (p. 242). Haladyna and Downing (2004) recognize *construct under-representation* and *construct-irrelevant variance* as a threat to validity. According to Cheng, “construct under-representation involves error in test performance that is attributed directly to measurement of the specific test construct, whereas construct-irrelevant variance involves factors that are disconnected from the test construct but influence test performance” (2014, p.9). Such external parameters might be pressure due to social, economic or other factors.

It is for that purpose that Messick (1996) makes a distinction between examination effects and other effects. He mentions that “washback is a consequence of testing that bears on validity only if it can be evidentially shown to be an effect of the test and not of other forces operative on the educational scene” (Messick 1996, p. 5). Therefore, there should be a distinction between examination effects and other effects when looking into washback. Similarly, there should be a distinction between the evidence of washback and poor teaching (Messick, 1996). Going back to test related and non-test related effects, Cheng also draws on research that has either focused on internal validity (Backman, 2005) or that has considered further contextual factors that influence test validity (McNamara and Roever, 2006) to support the claim that “validity evidence [should be collected] from multiple stakeholders and by using multiple methods (2014, p. 10). Thus, any framework testing validity should take into account washback as the effects of the test itself on curriculum design, teaching and learning but should also consider other external factors that influence validity. In fact, a strong case can be made for examining external factors and shielding

testing processes against proven contaminants. Outside the realms of foreign language education, Nichols et al (2007) arrive at the troubling conclusion that the great social consequences that high-stakes exams entail for participants challenge the integrity of the educational system and erode test validity due to the pressures of high-stakes testing. The high pressures exerted on Greek foreign language students, which were addressed in the previous chapter, the high stakes that English language exams entail and the ‘corruption’ of the learning process by an overemphasis on practice tests should all be taken into account in any washback validity study so that the results can be intelligible and useful for all interested parties.

2.3 Washback Models and Testing

Well-designed tests can be considered as valid quantitative indicators for measuring ability in a given subject and which render comparable results. Testing is widely used to assess the results of learning. As has already been established, however, high-stakes tests are not merely the destination of a linear process of teaching and learning but rather enter into a reciprocal relationship with the latter; shaping curricula, teaching practices and learning outcomes. Determining the precise relationship between testing, teaching and learning, whether weak or strong, positive or negative, intended or unintended, has been the objective of various washback studies. In their seminal paper “Does Washback Exist?” Alderson and Wall (1993) take issue with what they consider as fundamental shortcomings of earlier washback studies. Namely, they challenge the methodological basis of many of these studies which argue that tests influence teaching and which base their conclusions on teachers’ accounts rather than direct observation of teaching and learning. They further suggest that before examining a test’s validity, it is essential that “the nature of washback [...] and the conditions under which it operates” be illuminated (1993, p. 116). Alderson and Wall further consider whether the term washback should simply stand for ‘influence’ and whether all types of influence (i.e. stress, textbook design, etc.) should be encompassed by the term washback (1993, pp. 117-118). In order to identify more systematically areas where washback can be observed they formulated their hypotheses, taking into account different factors such as behaviours, attitudes, test consequences and the diverse effects on different stakeholders:

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 the 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. Test 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).

Alderson and Wall do not intend for their Washback Hypothesis to be adopted unreflectively by future researchers. Rather, they urge researchers to explicitly state their own Washback Hypothesis, carefully delineating the limits of washback and what it encompasses in each case (1993, p 127). What clearly emerges at this stage is (i) the need for further data collection (including direct observations of teaching and learning) and (ii) turning to the areas of “motivation and performance, and [...] innovation and change in educational settings” (ibid.). In essence, Alderson and Wall call for a tighter definition of washback and a more holistic understanding of the factors that influence test performance, educational innovation, teaching and learning.

The Washback Hypothesis was later refined by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons in 1996 adding that:

‘Tests will have different amounts and types of washback on some teachers and learners than on other teachers and learners. The amount and type of washback will vary according to

1. the status of the test (the level of the stakes);
2. the extent to which the test is counter to current practice;
3. the extent to which teachers and textbook writers think about appropriate methods for test preparation...; and
4. the extent to which teachers and textbook writers are willing and able to innovate...’ (p. 296).

Essentially, further parameters that consider motivation, innovation, competence and the social consequences of a given test that further determine washback are introduced to the model. Concerns about motivation and social consequences echo Shohamy's argument that tests derive their power not by their own merit but by the social function they perform (2001). Therefore, such factors should be taken into account by any washback study.

Following Alderson and Green's model, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 8, 9 as well as hypotheses 12 to 15 are the ones related to this study. However, Alderson and Wall's (1993) hypotheses do not provide specific information when referring to teachers and teaching, which will be the focus of this study, although this is partially amended by the refined version of the Hypothesis, which takes into account the parameters posited above. More specifically, Alderson and Wall do not direct the researcher as to what aspects of teaching to examine in order to illuminate how washback influences teaching and learning – i.e. teaching methods, specific tasks and activities, teaching material, etc.

This is to a great extent addressed by another influential washback model, namely the one developed by Hughes, as it looks at more specific components that should be scrutinized when examining washback. Hughes (1993) introduced a tripartite model for studying washback and argued for a distinction between participants, processes and products as distinct yet interrelated elements affected by a test. *Participants* refers to human actors, namely, students, classroom teachers, administrators, material developers, and publishers, "whose perceptions and attitudes towards their work may be affected by a test" (in Bailey, 1996, p. 262). The term *process* relates to "any actions taken by the participants which may contribute to the process of learning" (ibid.). Teaching methods adopted by teachers would fall under the category of *process*. Finally, the term *product* indicates "what is learned and the quality of the learning" (ibid.). The present study examines two of the categories of washback: the *participants* from the perspective of teachers and the *process* from the perspective of teacher's pedagogy or else what and how teachers teach.

Conceptualizing Hughes' tripartite model of participants, process and products, Bailey (1996), presents a more complex model of washback. The following model illustrates Bailey's framework (Figure 2.1):

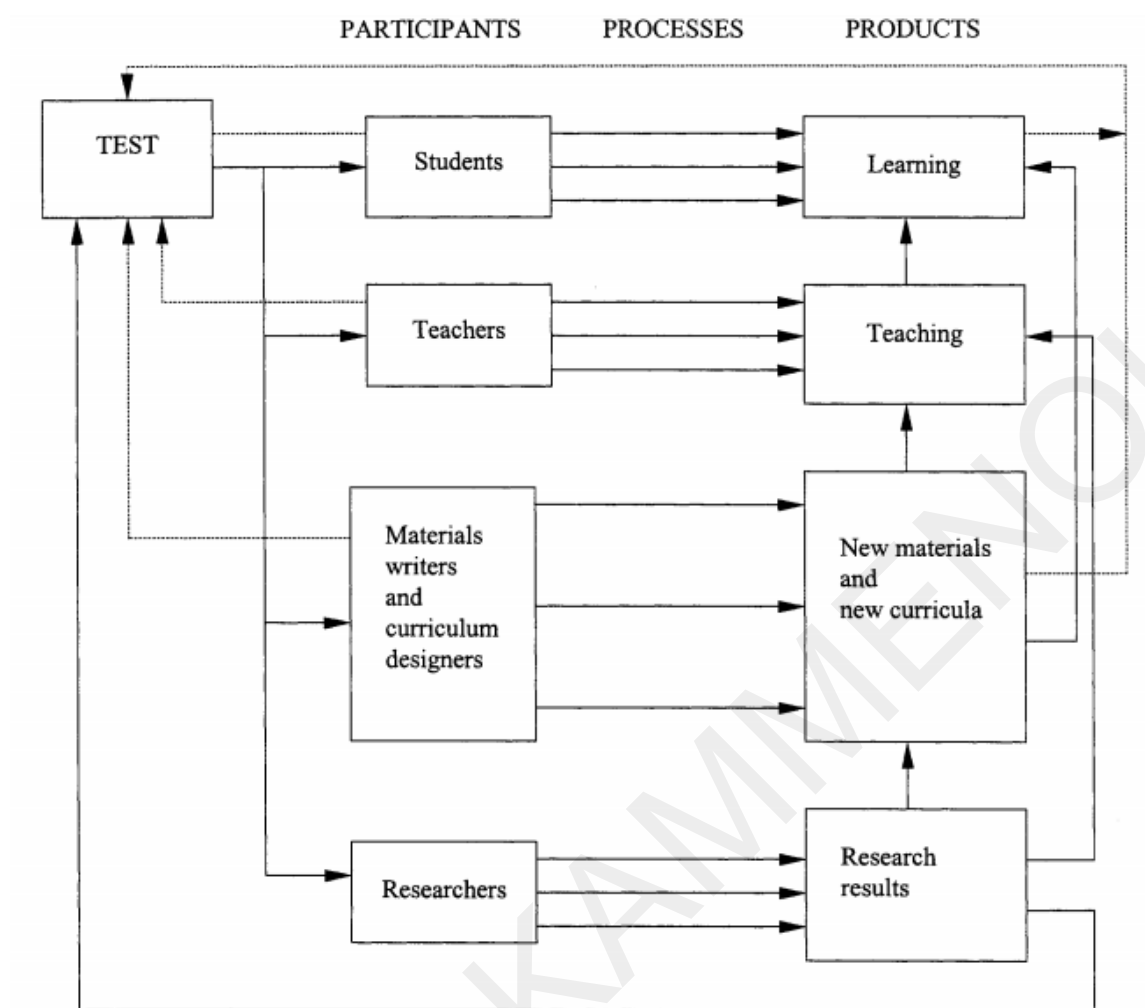


Figure 2.1: A Basic Model of Washback (Bailey, 1996)

In relation to the component of *participants*, Bailey makes a useful distinction between washback on language learners and washback on personnel involved in language teaching, claiming that different kinds of washback are relevant in each case; “learner washback” and “program washback”, respectively (1996, p. 12). “Learner washback” is the result of supplying “official information about a test prior to its administration [...] or folk-knowledge (such as reports from students who have taken earlier versions of the test)” or “feedback following the administration of a test” (1996, p. 12).” to the test takers. Bailey further claims that five of Alderson and Wall’s hypotheses directly address learner washback:

2. A test will influence learning.
5. A test will influence what learners learn.
6. A test will influence how learners learn.
8. A test will influence the rate and sequence of learning.
10. A test will influence the degree and depth of learning.

Similar to Alderson and Wall, Bailey calls attention to the fact that further research is needed to determine how these hypotheses actually unfold in reality.

“Program washback” is the result of supplying test-derived information to participants that are professionally connected with a language program, such as, teachers, administrators, counsellors, curriculum developers, and so on. According to Bailey, ‘program washback’ is captured in Alderson and Wall’s following hypotheses:

1. A test will influence teaching.
3. A test will influence what teachers teach.
4. A test will influence how teachers teach.
7. A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching.
9. A test will influence the degree and depth of teaching.
11. A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching and learning.

Processes in Figure 2.1 are represented by arrows. Hughes understands as process any action that might be taken and that might contribute to the process of learning, including “materials development, changes in teaching methods or content, syllabus design, the learners' use of learning strategies or test-taking strategies, etc.” (in Bailey, 1996, p. 27). Products are defined by Hughes as “what is learned (facts, skills, etc.) and the quality of learning (fluency, etc.)” (ibid.). Given the intricate relationship that exists between the three components of *participants*, *processes* and *products*, however, Bailey suggests that it is difficult to differentiate the former two from the latter in research as much of the research “about teachers and washback describes the various processes teachers use to try to increase students' mastery of skills and/or their test scores” (in Bailey, 1996, p. 27), and therefore, the product cannot be conceived outside the process and actors that occasioned it when examining washback. Bailey’s model suggests that tests affect products through participants and process, and, at the same time, there is a possibility that participants and “new materials and curricula” will have an impact on tests and vice versa (p. 263). The value of Bailey’s model is that it provides examples of a variety of sub-categories of Hughes’ three components on which washback can occur, offering an indispensable tool to researchers both from a methodological and a theoretical perspective.

Compared to Alderson and Wall’s hypotheses Bailey’s model focuses on the interaction among the aforementioned components, which emphasizes the complex nature of washback. However, while it shows the influence of the test on teachers, students, materials and curriculum, it fails to include “societal influences such as the wider role of education,

examination and so on” (Glover, 2006, p. 56). Those, however, inform Tsagari’s model. Tsagari (2009) proposes a model of washback which not only addresses the complex nature of washback but also elaborates on the sources of this complexity, which derive both from within and without the classroom context (Figure 2.2).

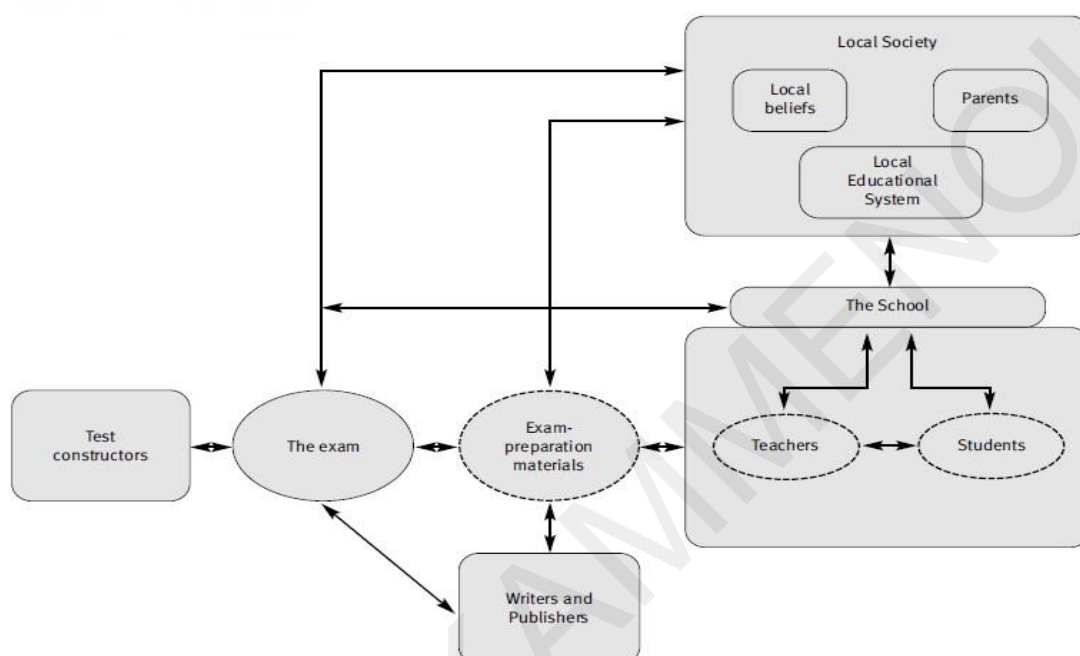


Figure 2.2: Proposed Model of Washback (Tsagari, 2009)

Tsagari’s model shows that the process of washback is affected by a number of stakeholders whose relationship is multi-directional. Tsagari (2009) perceives the nature of washback “circuitous” and “interactive” (p. 9). Exam requirements, exam preparation materials, teachers, parents, the school, the local education system, and beliefs about the exams, all mediate through each other and affect the washback process. It is worth mentioning that for Tsagari (2009) “the teacher’s role is crucial in the washback process as teachers mediate between materials and students” (p. 9). This mediation is one of the focal points of this study.

In his model of washback direction, Green (2006) adds another dimension to participants, which incorporates the stakes of the exams. According to Green (2006), “participants set the test stakes according to their awareness (or lack of awareness) of the uses to be made of test results” (p. 17). The behaviour of those preparing for the test, including both teachers and students, is affected by how great the test’s stakes are considered. Test preparation, including teaching and learning, is therefore affected by the perceived status of the test and its perceived social, professional and further consequences. In Green’s model, therefore, the

stakes associated with the test and the participants' awareness of these stakes are significant factors when studying washback (Figure 2.3).

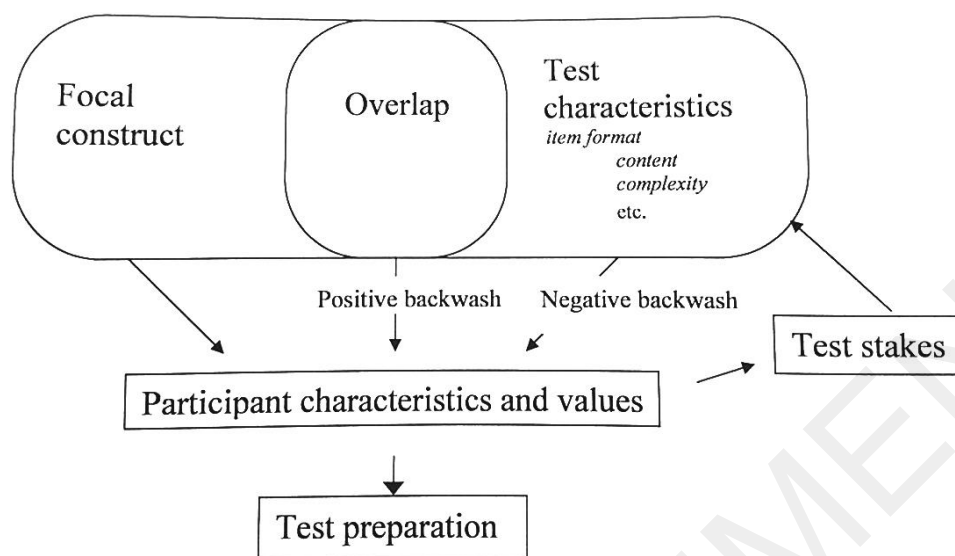


Figure 2.3: Model of Washback Direction, Incorporating Test Stakes (Green, 2006)

Washback hypotheses and models provide significant information about the washback process, guiding researchers towards specific areas of investigation and providing valuable methodological insight. Beyond the tests' direct influence on teaching and teachers, the perceived stakes of an exam as well as other factors, such as available teaching materials and schools, should be some of the parameters considered when undertaking research into washback. Apart from the above, this study also considers the number of stakeholders, teachers, in this case, that are involved in the washback process and adopts an approach towards washback as interactive, similar to that of Tzagari (2009). Furthermore, it constitutes a multi-faceted study which turns its attention to teachers and their teaching in exam preparation classes, but further investigates other contributing factors to washback, such as the school, the stakes associated with the exams and the teachers' awareness of the exams' stakes.

Most models encountered so far fail to address the precise washback effect on learners and learning or teachers and teaching. Saif (2006) turns her attention to those aspects and carries out a study focused on effectuating positive washback in the context of an international teaching assistants training program. This study actually investigates the impact of a specific test on course content, teaching, learning and classroom activities. However, this study does not focus on an existing high-stakes exam and its positive or negative washback. Rather, it

incorporates the stages before test development and design in the washback process and performs a needs analysis in order to create and secure positive washback (see figure 2.4).

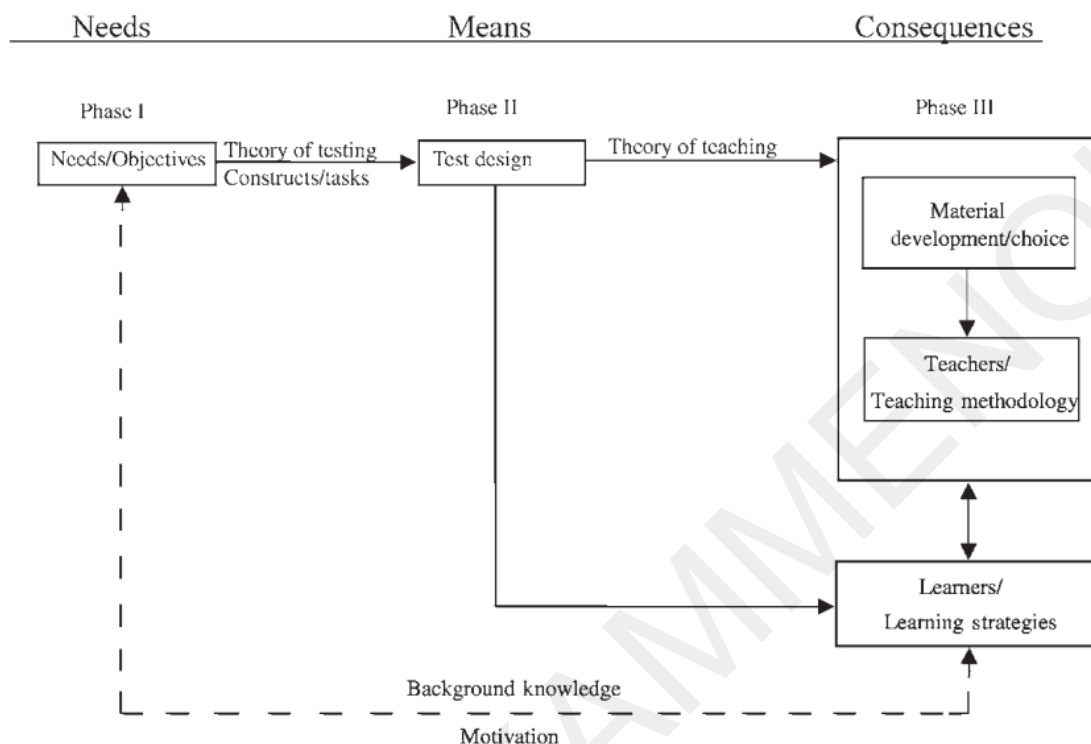


Figure 2.4: A conceptual framework for washback (Saif, 2006, p. 5)

Saif’s conceptual model of washback, therefore, cannot be adopted to study the impact of existing high-stakes exams on teaching and learning but rather provides a model for researchers interested in test design.

A washback model that emphasizes teaching in relation to existing tests is the one provided by Cheng (2005). Cheng’s model, which offers an explanatory model of washback tracing the relationship between the ‘curriculum as planned’, the ‘curriculum in action’ and the ‘curriculum as outcome’. The ‘curriculum as planned’, referring to teaching and exam syllabi, should be studied firstly while the curriculum in action and the curriculum as outcome should be studies subsequently. Emphasis is given to the “intricate” and “interlocking” relationship among the three (Cheng, 2005, p. 57). Cheng’s model relates both teachers and students’ classroom behaviour to the curriculum as planned according to the exams (Figure 2.5). Therefore, teachers’ decisions regarding the curriculum and teaching, materials and content should be taken under consideration in order to illuminate teaching practices.

Level 1 Decision making Agencies	CDC Teaching syllabus HKEA Exam syllabus	How do the two syllabuses work? How are the teaching and learning principles behind the exams syllabus realized as manageable tasks?
Level 2 Intervening Agencies	Textbook publishers Teaching content Tertiary institutions Teaching methods	How do teachers realize the teaching and learning theories behind the exam syllabus and the textbooks? How do teachers arrange their lessons and activities accordingly?
Level 3 Implementing Agencies	Schools Principals Teachers Students	How are the teaching and learning activities carried out in classrooms?

Figure 2.5: Explanatory Model of Washback (Cheng, 2005)

Glover (2006), also offers a more analytical perspective of the influence of existing tests on teaching (Figure 2.6):

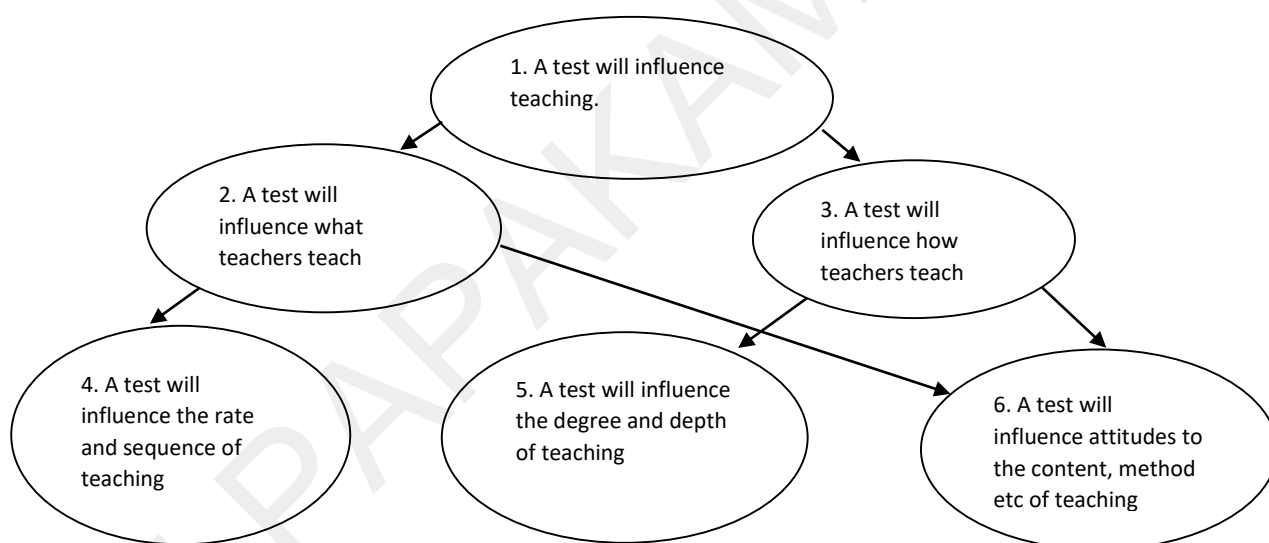


Figure 2.6: Washback Hypothesis for Teaching Organized in a Hierarchy (Glover, 2006)

What becomes immediately perceptible is the fact that Glover's (2006) hypothesis draws on Alderson and Wall's (1993) distinction of testing between what and how teachers teach. Glover, however, relates "what" and "how" teachers teach to two other hypotheses: namely that a test influences teachers' attitudes towards the content and manner in which they teach and/or the rate and sequence of teaching, i.e. when something is taught. Similarly, how teachers teach relates to their attitudes towards teaching and/or the degree and depth of teaching, in other words the quality and quantity of teaching. To this author's mind, however, teachers' attitudes and beliefs should be treated as distinct from the content and manner of

teaching and merit investigation in their own right. Still, all these models provide general guidance to researchers interested in washback and, therefore, do not identify specific teaching strategies and methods that teachers employ nor the content of teaching to be explored in relation to washback although they contribute to the overall picture of washback.

Glover (2006) addresses this oversight through providing us with a more detailed model of washback on how teachers teach (Figure 2.7). In this model, Glover includes a feature of how teachers teach, i.e. teacher talk, thus providing a more specific dimension of the term. This is the first attempt to focus on various aspects of how teachers teach and not only teacher talk, aspects which link with tasks and activities. More specifically, I look at 'how teachers teach' investigating the specific tasks and activities they employ in the classroom to establish washback at the level of teaching strategies. Glover (2006) found that some features of teacher's talk are linked more to examinations than other features, which might be linked to teachers' previous experience and background knowledge. Glover's model emphasizes the link between teachers' methods of teaching and teachers' pedagogical skills and knowledge. According to this model, teachers' specific teaching methods are directly influenced by teacher's pedagogical skills and knowledge rather than the examination, the materials and content relevant to said examination. Since this study focuses on the teaching practices of teachers in the context of the multi-exam classroom, teachers' pedagogical skills and knowledge are considered critical.

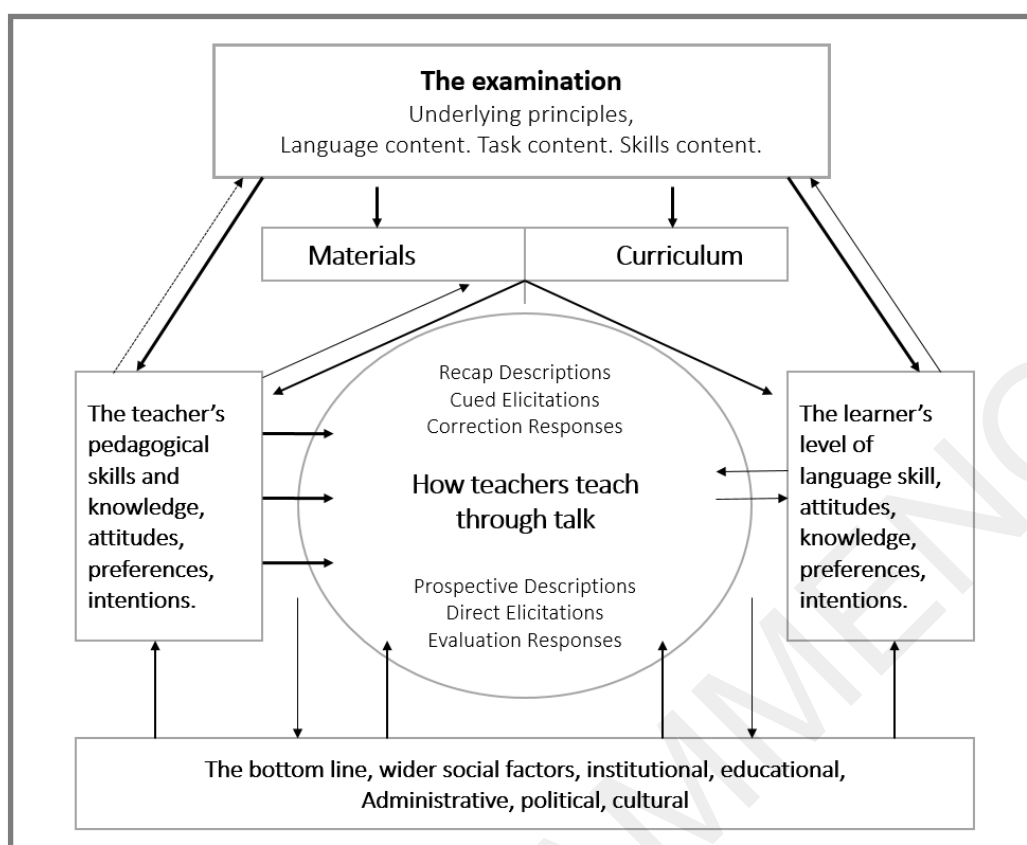


Figure 2.7: A Revised Model of Washback on How Teachers Teach (Glover 2006)

Based on the models presented in this section, there is no doubt that washback exists. What needs more research, as Alderson points out is “what [...] washback look[s] like”, “what brings washback about” and “why [...] washback exist[s]” (2004, p. ix). Greece, with an established tradition in foreign language teaching and a proliferation of multi-exam teaching contexts offers a promising research context for investigating the above questions. What most models discussed above highlight and what will inform this study is the co-existence of a variety of factors, either participant or context-oriented that determine washback and influence the content and method of teaching. The prevalence of such factors in some of the above models is attested to by the existing literature on washback.

While some studies found that *examinations* played a role in tasks, activities and teaching strategies’ selection (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Shohamy et al, 1996; Cheng, 1997, Burrows, 2004, Watanabe, 2004), most studies found that *teacher factors* are the most powerful ones (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Watanabe, 1996; Cheng, 1999; Watanabe, 2000; Burrows, 2004; Green, 2006; Glover, 2006; Li, 2009; Turner, 2009; Den and Carless, 2010). Specifically, *teacher factors* include teacher beliefs (about the exam, about the best teaching method) (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Watanabe, 1996; Cheng, 1997; Burrows, 2004; Glover, 2006;

Al-Jamal and Ghady, 2008; Deng and Carless, 2010) and teaching experience, as well as professional training (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Watanabe, 1996; Cheng, 1997; Watanabe, 2004; Green, 2006; Burrows, 2004; Li, 2009; Shih, 2010). Other factors are *school and class characteristics*, such as the number of the students in the class and the organization of the class (Li, 2009, Watanabe, 2004), *differences and competition among schools* (Li, 2009; Deng and Carless, 2010) and *school atmosphere* (Watanabe, 2000). Finally, other factors that had some impact on teaching practices are *students and students' needs* (Cheng, 1997, Watanabe, 2004), *lack of materials* (Wall and Alderson, 1993), *cultural tradition* (Watanabe, 2000) and *timing* (Watanabe, 1996; Al-Jamal and Ghady 2008).

The above studies justify the importance laid by some of the washback models analyzed in this section on extra-examination factors. With the emphasis on participants and more specifically teachers, this study will use interviews to investigate *teacher factors* in order to establish why teachers teach the way they do. This is in line with most of the washback models examined so far which emphasize the importance of looking into what teachers teach, how teachers teach and the teacher's beliefs when investigating washback on teaching as teachers interact with each other. The following sections elaborate on research in teaching and teachers.

2.4 Research Studies on Teaching and Teachers

As has been discussed so far, washback has been found to be a complex phenomenon whose influence has been observed in various aspects of learning and teaching. Since this study focuses on teaching practices, placing emphasis on teachers, the purpose of this section is to present relevant research conducted on the influence of exams on teachers and teaching. Both the content and teaching methods employed by teachers as well as teachers' attitudes and feelings will be discussed in detail as those have been observed in the relevant literature. Thus, a better understanding of the washback effects of exams on teachers and their pedagogy will emerge.

2.4.1 What Teachers Teach

What teachers teach regards the *content* of the curriculum, which also reflects the rate and sequence of teaching – when something is taught, the *materials* that teachers use in order to teach, the *skills* taught and the *tasks* and *activities* used in class. This *content* is considered

to be of paramount importance when investigating teachers and teaching. By observing the factors that affect what teachers teach, a better understanding of what constitutes teaching content can emerge and, therefore, more efficient comparisons with other studies can be made.

2.4.1.1 Content

According to Glover (2006), content “refers to what is taught in a programme, structures, functions, vocabulary and so on” and it “also relates to skills, materials and to activities that are carried out in class” (p. 28). Content or curriculum content is an aspect of teaching that plays a central role in the organization of classes, whether exam-oriented or not, and significantly dictates teacher’s teaching.

The intensity and direction of washback on teaching content varies among studies. For example, a study conducted by Wesdrop as early as 1982 on multiple-choice language tests, and more specifically on whether writing and reading skills are neglected, found no narrowing of the curriculum – an instance of negative washback. On the contrary, Wall and Alderson (1993) verified the existence of exam impact on the content of the classes they investigated. In fact, teachers fashioned and determined the content of their classes based on the O-level examination. Similarly, in a study carried out in Japan, Watanabe (1996, 1997, 2000) found that the content of teaching of the specific classes depended on the exam. Whether washback on content is positive or negative depends on a number of factors such as teachers, test specifications and cultural tradition as Watanabe points out (2000).

The research conducted in Sri Lanka by Alderson and Wall (1993) is an illustration of negative washback on content also known as curriculum-narrowing. For the purposes of their study, Alderson and Wall scrutinized a new examination, the O-Level exam, and the extent to which it influenced what teachers taught. The study revealed that “the examination has had a demonstrable effect on the content” (p. 126-127) as more time was spent on writing and reading skills tested in the exam rather than on listening and speaking. Similarly, in another study, some teachers excluded listening lessons in their textbooks from teaching altogether because listening was not tested in the exam or if they taught it, it would be because it resembled a reading-related task of the exam (Wall and Alderson, 1993).

Glover’s (2006) research on the English language section of the Hungarian school-leaving examination also rendered similar results. The examination itself was the content of the

lessons under scrutiny and all lessons seemed to focus on different parts of the examination. This suggests that exam tasks or exam parts might determine the structure and content of the lessons rather than communicative skills. Dating back to 1999, Nikolov came up with similar findings in her investigation on the Hungarian school-leaving examination.

Green's study (2006) also points to the same direction. The study concluded that IELTS courses shape the content of preparation classes as the focus of the IELTS classes was on graphs and diagrams, which is one of the tasks of the academic writing module of the IELTS exam. A more recent study carried out by Azadi and Gholami (2013) in Iranian high schools also came to the disconcerting conclusion that specific tests occasion the narrowing of the curriculum and encourage certain linguistic skills while neglecting others leading to the students' impoverished communicative and linguistic competence. Akpınar and Cakildere (2013), whose study was mentioned earlier in this chapter, verify the negative washback of exams on *content*, as their findings suggest that exams that do not test for all linguistic skills lead to restricted teaching content and poorer communicative skills.

Alderson and Hamp-Lyons' study in 1996, however, decisively introduced the *teacher factor* in washback studies into content, highlighting the prominent role of 'extra-exam' factors in washback. Their study, which investigates the impact of the TOEFL exam, identifies washback on content as well as the narrowing of the curriculum, similar to what other studies have established. The data drawn to support the study's claims included interviews with teachers and students, as well as observations during which the time spent on teaching activities in classes preparing for the TOEFL exam was monitored. While the TOEFL exam affected both what and how teachers teach, there were great differences between the two teachers observed. A different kind and degree of impact was found, indicating that apart from the exam itself there are a number of factors determining washback on content. The results of this study alert researchers' to the importance of participants in washback studies, such as the administrators, material writers and, essentially, teachers.

From the micro-context of courses and the impact of teachers observed by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, Hayes and Read (2004) move to the macro-context of English study programmes. Their study relates significant results regarding the influence of the IELTS test on international students who prepare for academic study in New Zealand. In the second phase of the study, two IELTS preparation courses were investigated. One of the courses was more general having an EAP orientation and the other course was more test focused.

The sample of the study comprised of classroom observations, teacher interviews, teacher and student questionnaires and pre- and post- testing of the students revealing negative effects in the IELTS preparation course since “the teacher and the students were narrowly focused on practice of the test tasks” (p. 111). Hayes and Read’s contribution to washback studies lies in the emphasis they place on investigating English study programmes in their entirety rather than simply focusing on isolated courses as the latter might render nuanced results.

Tsagari’s (2011) research on Greek students attending preparation classes examined the washback effect of a high-stakes exam, the ESOL Cambridge First Certificate of English (FCE) examination, on the teaching and learning process. The analysis of the data showed that the exam influenced the content of teaching more intensely when the intense exam preparation took place. Teachers made intense exam preparation both “during ordinary teaching” and “outside regular hours” (p. 4-6). Therefore, Tsagari’s study might suggest a shift in the intensity of washback on content between more ‘relaxed’ teaching periods and ‘intense’ exam preparation periods. This shift in intensity was also suggested by Xie and Andrews (2013) in their study of what is known as ‘overt washback’.

More recent studies, for instance Al-Jamal and Ghady’s (2008) study on GSCE exam in Jordan, found that teachers include the content of the exam in their teaching content in order to help their students succeed in the exam. A study by Mickan and Motteram (2009) examined the relationship between instructional discourses and performance on the IELTS test, also observing washback on content. Mickan and Motteram (2009) focused on classroom practices in the preparation class aiming to “investigate how the instruction prepared students for the test” (p. 23). Through an ethnographic study involving observations, recording and document collection, the researchers observed and recorded significant information about the influence of the IELTS preparation course on teachers. They found that IELTS influenced the teaching approach since teachers taught the skills individually, they spent a lot of time talking about the exam and they practised test techniques with their students. Washback on content was evident in this study since the teachers taught the four skills separately wishing to prepare students for the different modules of the IELTS exam.

Positive washback on content has also been recorded. Li (1990) conducted a study on the MET test and found that the class focused mainly on reading as it was the most important

skill in the MET test. Not only traditional language skills, such as vocabulary and grammar, but also reading, listening, writing and speaking skills, which were tested in the exam, were taught. Li (1990) considers it a positive washback since students were not only taught grammar and vocabulary but also all practical language skills. Positive washback was also observed in Turner's (2009) study of the speaking section of the ESL exit exam. All teachers participating in the study were influenced by the final speaking exam and therefore placed emphasis on cultivating students' ability to speak. Apart from employing speaking tasks in class they further adopted more communicative approaches (i.e. group and pair-work) to teach their students. However, the variation in teacher behaviour and perceptions identified in this study further confirms the complex nature of the teacher factor in washback.

The studies reported so far found that high-stakes exams influence the content of teaching. Research on teachers, therefore, seems to require an investigation of the content of the courses under scrutiny in washback studies as it provides the basis for explaining the skills cultivated, the materials, tasks and activities employed in class as well as how teachers teach. The studies discussed in this section alert researchers into washback on content to the following:

1. The skills or tasks high-stakes exams test determine the curriculum and course content to a great, yet varied extent;
2. Course content varies amongst individual teachers who may respond diversely to an exam;
3. Another significant factor to investigate is English study programmes and their influence on exam preparation courses;
4. Shifts in intensity of washback on content might be observed between more 'relaxed' and intense exam preparation periods;
5. The skills an exam tests for or the parts of an exam have been noted to structure lessons apart from determining course content;
6. Test design and more specifically the skills tested for by a high-stakes exam might determine washback direction (i.e. negative/positive).

The above conclusions are hardly original but rather verify the need for an all-encompassing washback model and further justify the emphasis placed by the washback models analyzed in the previous section on teacher factors (see e.g. Glover, 2006), language programmes (see e.g. Cheng (2005), who places emphasis on various 'agencies' determining washback, such as the school) and test design (see e.g. Green 2006), among others. Inevitably, language tests

have been proven to have “a more direct washback effect on teaching content than on teaching methodology” (Cheng, 2013, p. 6). To assess the latter, more factors need to be considered. The following section investigates washback on teaching material.

2.4.1.2 Materials

With regard to the materials used in exam preparation classes, research focuses on the content of the materials and the classroom use of exam-preparation materials. Both material content and use seem to be influenced by tests and the findings of relevant studies are well worth reporting in this section.

Materials can include textbooks or course books (Wall, 1999), exam type sheets (Shohamy et al., 1996), supplementary materials (Nikolov, 1999), self-made materials (Watanabe, 2000), teacher-produced and authentic materials (Lam, 1993), as well as “sources outside the classroom” such as those taken “from the press, the TV, the radio and the internet” (Hawkey, 2006, pp. 109-110).

Findings of several studies (Lam, 1993; Hamp-Lyons, 1996, 1998; Hawkey, 2004; Watanabe, 1996) which analyzed samples of test preparation textbooks showed that the textbooks reflected the respective exam. Lam’s (1993) study on the content of textbooks for a public proficiency exam in Hong Kong asserts that washback has been found on the materials. More specifically, Lam found that textbooks “are just exam crammers with lots of exercises following the exam format published by the HKEA” (1993, p. 86). Similarly, in his research on materials for university entrance examinations, Watanabe (1996) found that both past papers and materials constructed by teachers were exam-based. Using a specially-designed instrument to analyze IELTS exam-preparation textbooks, Wang (1997) found that the content (not the methodology) of the books was influenced by the exam. Similarly, both Hamp-Lyons (1996; 1998) and Hawkey’s (2004) studies, which focused on the TOEFL and CPE exams, respectively, concluded that the content and methodology of the relevant textbooks exhibited a strong exam-generated washback. The textbook content in Hawkey included language skills, test taking strategies, task types, as well as “mastery of language structures, lexis and discourse semantics” (Hawkey, 2004, p. 6) linked to the exams.

Additionally, omissions in the books were also observed in all the above studies (Hamp-Lyons, 1996; 1998; Wang, 1997; Hawkey, 2004). Instances of omissions regarded (i) lack of guidance to the teachers (Hamp-Lyons, 1996, 1998), (ii) lack of straightforward

diagnostic parts of the test, such as marking criteria (Wang 1997; Hawkey, 2004), and (iii) lack of pronunciation practice (Hawkey, 2004) although the test required it for the final mark. Therefore, while material is designed to reflect the needs of a given exam, omissions or oversight might take place.

More recently, a washback study conducted by Hawkey (2009) in the context of the CPE (Cambridge ESOL) exam scrutinized textbooks used in programmes preparing candidates for said exam. Book evaluation concluded that the “CPE topic range and skills base are reflected positively in the textbooks” (p. 334). A quick overview of these washback studies firmly establishes exam washback on published and teacher-generated material. This section moves on to explore the use of such material in class.

As has been shown so far, exam oriented classrooms make use of exam-preparation textbooks (Nikolov 1999, among others). In their study on the O-level examination, Wall and Alderson (1993) found that passages for reading practice, as well as tasks for writing practice were taken from past papers and/or commercial examination preparation books. Heavy use of exam preparation books was found to be the norm in most cases studied by Read and Hayes (2003), who examined IELTS courses in New Zealand. Alderson and Hamp-Lyon’s (1996) study on TOEFL exam preparation rendered similar results. Cheng’s (1997) study on the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination in English and its washback effect in secondary schools indicates that nearly every secondary school in Hong Kong between 1994 and 1995 replaced their textbooks to reflect the examination syllabus.

Al-Jamal and Ghady (2008) also observed a strong impact of the exams on materials. The textbooks and supplementary materials used by teachers appeared to be directly influenced by the GSCE exam. Teachers further put past papers provided by the Ministry of Education to use with a view to helping their students succeed in the exam. Al-Jamal and Ghady’s study further indicates that teachers prioritized parts of the materials that were most likely to be tested by the exam, attesting to the exam’s strong influence on materials. In Mickan and Motteram’s (2009) ethnographic study which explored classroom practices, the teacher under observation appears to have mainly used past paper materials to teach students. Likewise, teachers in Turner’s study (2009) worked with exam materials and used mock exams to get students to practice for the exams. In her study of the CET exam in China, Shih (2009) also found that teachers used textbooks and CET coaching materials to a great extent. Teachers followed the materials used strictly. Similarly, the teachers in Al-Jamal and

Ghady's (2008) study covered the content of the textbook in its entirety without deviating from it. Focusing on teachers' beliefs, Deng and Carless (2010) found that teachers considered it important to dedicate a considerable amount of time to covering commercial books that focus on grammatical exercises whose encounter was expected in the final examination. Indeed, almost all of the lessons observed by the researchers used such books.

Other research studies like the ones conducted by Wall (1999), Hawkey (2006) and Shohamy et al. (1996) report the use of supplementary materials in exam preparation classes. Lam's (1993; 1994) research on the introduction of the RUE exam in Hong Kong found an extensive use of exam-preparation materials especially of past papers to such an extent though that he characterised teachers "textbook slaves" and "exam slaves". He also found innovative use of materials, such as teacher-produced and authentic materials by a smaller number of teachers though.

In a study of a new Arabic as a second language (ASL) examination, Shohamy et al (1996) found that teachers designed materials for oral skills that were tested in the exam and motivated students to design a newspaper as practice for the extended interview part of the exam. The use of supplementary material is also confirmed by Wall (1999) who reports that because of lack of grammar items in the course books the teachers used supplementary material books. Watanabe (2000) also notices this "innovative" mood of teachers in the exam preparation classes as the use of a variety of extra listening tasks taken from past papers is reported. Similarly, in a study regarding IELTS preparation classes Hawkey (2006) found that not only textbooks but also additional materials were used. Through teacher questionnaires and observations, he found that these materials were designed by teachers themselves and included "cut out photographs, self-designed spider grams, information-gap hand- outs, audio-cassettes, wall charts" (p. 143), and from a variety of sources, such as "the press, TV and radio, video and audio and the Internet, in-house or teachers' own materials" (pp. 109-110).

Tsagari (2009, 2011) conducted a research project on materials using a specially-designed instrument for the analysis of materials. The study took place in Greece in a class preparing students for the FCE Cambridge exam and found that the FCE Cambridge examination influenced both the content and the use of materials in class. Not only textbooks but also past papers, supplementary FCE skills materials and teacher-made materials "usually deriving from past papers or practice test books" were used in class (p. 288). Nonetheless,

exam influence on content was significant as the textbooks comprised mainly exam skills, exam task types, test taking techniques and exam-related information. The textbooks even contained techniques for teachers, test booklets resembling the format of the exam, video tapes and a self-study guide book.

Finally, strong and undeniable evidence of washback on material comes from a recent study conducted by Ren (2011) who showed that 95% of the teachers observed base their teaching on course books which resemble the exam. Consequently, materials appear to not only be affected by the exams content-wise - i.e. materials reflect the exams, but also to structure the exam preparation classes and specifically teaching content - i.e. teachers make heavy use of exam related materials which influence teacher's classroom practices as well. The following conclusions emerge from the above discussion:

1. Material preferred for an exam preparation class tends to teach to the exam;
2. Material used in class, whether available or teacher-designed, is often adapted to suit the specific needs of an exam;
3. Teachers consistently use past exam papers as teaching material;
4. An important criterion in selecting material for in class use is the extent to which they reflect the exam;
5. Teachers can become very innovative in the use of supplementary material in order to prepare students for an exam.

The above observations clearly highlight the influence of an exam on material used in class. As Green points out, however, the influence of exams and the use of specific material in class on teaching methods is not as apparent (2013, p. 43). A further characteristic of material that determines washback direction relates to the fact that material designers tend to focus on certain skills more than others (ibid.). A well-designed exam, therefore, might not bring about as strong a positive washback as intended if the material used in class focus more on certain aspects. This brings into focus the importance of examining material in any washback study to gain a better picture of washback intensity and direction. The following subsection focuses on the skills taught in exam preparation programmes.

2.4.1.3 Skills

Many studies have determined that the washback effect of exams on skills acquisition is significant since the skills cultivated through teaching seem to be guided by the relevant exams students prepare for (see e.g. Pan, 2011; Azadi and Gholami, 2013). Teachers choose

teaching material and methods depending on the skills and language elements that the exam tests for.

In Brown's study on an IELTS group and an EAP group, Brown (1998) examined the instruction of writing, a skill that was required for the IELTS examinations. Results found that "the frequency of writing instruction for the IELTS group was more than twice that of the EAP group throughout the period of research", which indicates that the teachers of the two programmes placed varied emphasis on the teaching of writing depending on the exam (Brown, 1998, p. 33). Another study that focused on writing is the one performed by Wall and Horak (2007) on the impact of the revised TOEFL. Wall and Horak found that not only was writing a central skill to be acquired, but teachers paid "much attention to the structuring of composition rather than argumentation" (p. 110), presumably due to the format of the writing task in the exam which might have placed more emphasis on the skill of structuring writing pieces than producing arguments. Stecher et al (2004) found some changes in the content of writing lessons too, noting that the changes were more likely in classes instructed by teachers who had already administered the exam.

Focus on grammar was present in some studies as in Alderson and Hamp-Lyons' (1996), where teachers gave "mini lectures on grammatical points" (p.294). Watanabe (1996, 2000) found that teachers explained grammar a lot during the lessons, regardless of the exam, using metalanguage. Other interesting findings from Watanabe's (2000) research is that teachers did not necessarily practice their students' listening or writing skills as they were not aware of appropriate methods to teach these skills when using past exam papers. In fact, teachers were not acquainted with the scoring criteria or the scoring method of the exam and for this reason sometimes neglected these skills. This suggests that teacher training could play a fundamental role in effectuating positive washback. In a similar vein, lack of training could lead to negative washback regardless of the quality of test design.

Cheng's (1997) study on two exam preparation groups, the old and the revised Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE), showed that the listening skill was the most frequently taught skill. Equal teaching time was dedicated to reading and writing. Another study with significant results on skills was conducted by Hayes and Read (2004) on two IELTS preparation courses. The most common skill taught either in isolation or in combination with other skills was listening in one of the two courses in which the teacher "used a broader range of skills and covered four skills more evenly" (Hayes and Read, 1997,

p.104). The other IELTS course focused on vocabulary, sometimes combined with grammar. This spotlights the teacher as a significant factor for the kind of influence that an exam has on exam preparation courses, highlighting the need for further research into washback and teaching methods.

A study that rendered contradictory results was the one carried out by Nikolov (1999). Nikolov found that listening was the most neglected skill. Teachers focused mainly on language teaching while reading “was checked by sentence to sentence translation” (p. 238). The speaking and writing skills were taught in a manner that reflected the exams, verifying the impact of an exam on the skills cultivated by teachers.

Mickan and Motteram (2009), who investigated the skills taught in an IELTS preparation class in detail, found that the teachers taught all skills following the IELTS structure but treated the skills separately in terms of assessment. Teachers did that in order to prepare students on the four skills individually. In their paper, Mickan and Motteram (2009) give an analytical account of how teachers taught these classes for each skill separately providing valuable information about both what teachers used and what teaching strategies were employed in order to teach each skill effectively for the exam. A more recent study by Akpinar and Cakildereb (2013) on high-stakes exams in Turkey also showed an increased focus on skills that were included on the test. Test design, therefore, determines to a great extent the skills students cultivate in class.

The findings of the studies above suggest that instruction is often non-holistic and skill-based, whereby skills are isolated and taught separately depending on the relevant exam. Also, the studies found that the choice of the skill to be taught in exam preparation classes depended mainly on the exam whereas the emphasis given on some skills depended on the teacher. In some cases, some skills were completely neglected since the exam did not test them. The discussion in relation to skills is relevant to this study on two fundamental levels:

Firstly, the skills taught in an exam preparation class seem to be selected based on the relevant exam. Therefore, it is expected that these will determine to a great extent the tasks and activities employed by teachers, as well as their teaching methods, both of which are under scrutiny for the purposes of this study; and secondly, recent research (Aftab et al., 2014) has suggested that while an exam might test for a given skill, the teacher’s teaching method to a great extent determines the degree to which students will acquire said skill. As

a case in point, Aftab et al. conducted a study in a public sector college in Pakistan observing that “the writing skills are mostly tested through memorized answers; the reading comprehension questions are text based and direct and do not encourage critical thinking (2014, p. 151). Teaching methods are therefore invariably linked to skills and should be studied together in exam washback. In fact, when it comes to skills, Aftab et al.’s (2014) findings might suggest that teaching method can be the link between a good test design and positive washback on skills, spotlighting the importance of teacher competence and teacher training.

2.4.1.4 Tasks and Activities

Having examined a variety of washback studies on skills, this section will turn to the specific tasks and activities that teachers use in class, which as will be established can be significantly influenced by the exams. However, before looking into research in how tasks and activities are affected by exams, the complicated issue of what constitutes tasks and activities will be shortly discussed.

Tasks and activities in the washback studies seem to refer to any exercise teachers employ in the class in order to (i) teach specific skills; (ii) practise language elements; and (iii) assess and familiarize students with the exam format. Tasks and activities are used interchangeably in most cases, as well as in washback studies, as will be shortly discussed. However, literature on tasks and activities has shown that there can be a distinction between the two.

Tasks have been defined and classified in a variety of ways in the relevant literature in the field of language teaching (Nunan, 1999). Firstly, tasks can be classified according to the skill they are intended to elicit or evaluate (Nunan, 1999). Furthermore, tasks are divided between pedagogical tasks, which facilitate learning and are “realistic in the classroom” (Willis and Willis, 2007), and real-world or target tasks, which are activities taking place in the real world (Richards, 2009). However, there are many definitions of tasks ranging from broad ones, including almost any activity that involves learners doing something in a language learning classroom (Richards, 2009, Breen, 1987), to more specific ones. More specific definitions of tasks focus on different aspects (e.g. outcome, elicited behavior, etc.). As a case in point, a task has a goal whose assessment relates to the outcome and task completion takes priority (Skehan, 1998). Tasks can also be regarded as activities in which the target language is used for a communicative purpose (Willis, 1996). Some definitions are goal oriented such as the one provided by Bachman and Palmer (1996), who define task

“as an activity that involves individuals in using language for the purpose of achieving a particular goal or objective in a particular situation” (in Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001, p. 10).

Definitions seem to vary according to scope, perspective, authenticity, language skills, cognitive processes and outcome (Ellis, 2009). Taking into consideration the different definitions and classifications of tasks posited above, it becomes clear that the definition of tasks seems to depend on its purpose and the context in which it is realized (Van den Braden, 2006; Ellis, 2009). For the purposes of this study, I offer a definition of tasks, which shares some common features with the above definitions, to be used throughout this thesis: tasks are goal-oriented ‘actions’ students are asked to complete and deliver as final products, which require a series of activities and cognitive processes to be completed. Tasks vary according to the skill they are meant to refine. For example, writing a review, letter or essay is considered a task in writing. In order to complete the task, students must do a series of activities. Figure 2.8 offers a detailed table of tasks, which are related to this study. The accompanying table provides possible tasks that emerged from this study.

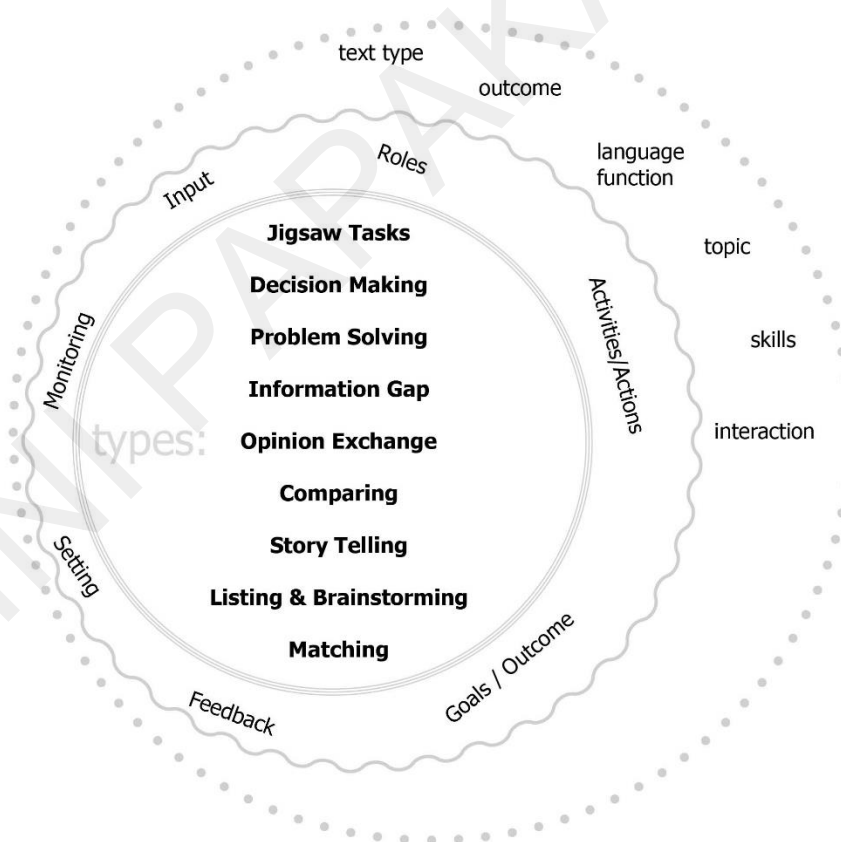
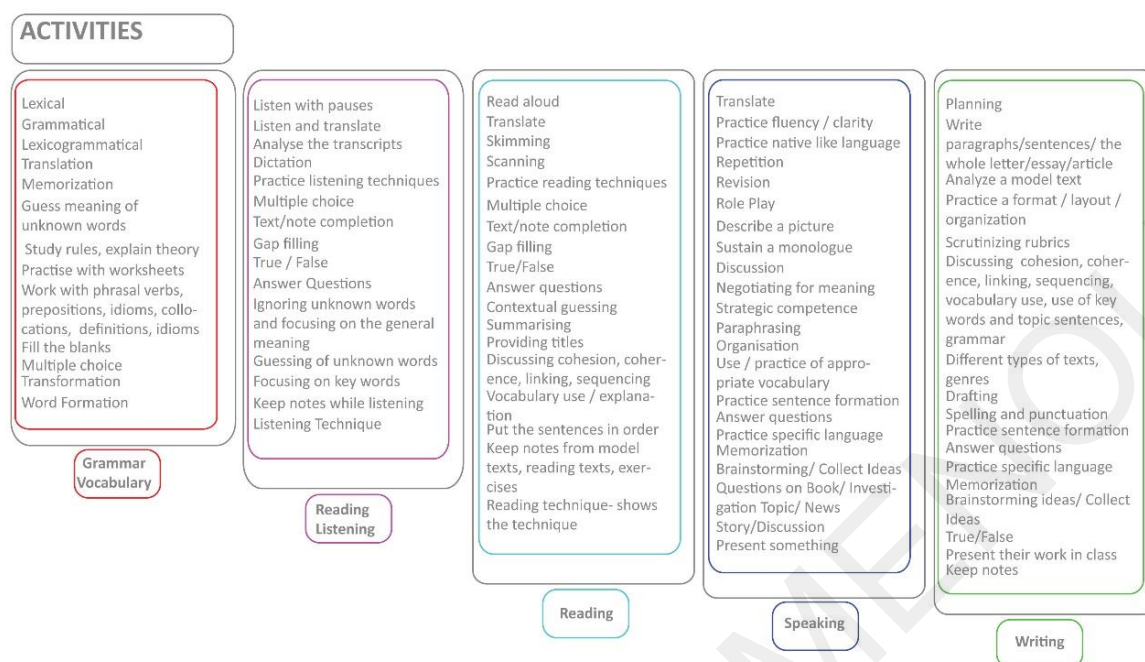


Figure 2.8: Tasks

Unlike definitions of tasks, the distinction between ‘tasks’ and ‘activities’ is not adequately covered in the literature. Additionally, definitions of activities, though limited, vary considerably. Comparing tasks and activities, Coughlan and Duff (1994) suggest that activities equate to “the behaviour that is actually produced when an individual performs a task” (p. 174). Among various academic studies, an activity is often understood as something that (i) allows students to practise language skills; (ii) gives emphasis to one skill; (iii) aims at eliciting correct linguistic forms and (iv) is more practice-oriented (Coughlan and Duff, 1994; Nunan, 1999, Richards, 2003).

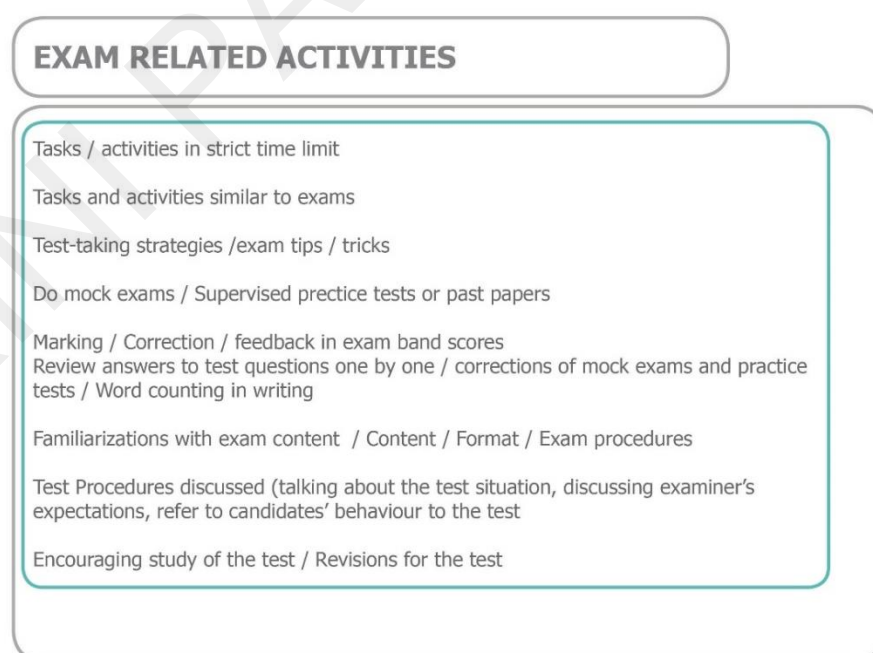
Interestingly, researchers have appeared more keen on distinguishing between ‘task’ and ‘exercise’ (see e.g. Ellis, 2003) but have been more reluctant to address ‘activity’ as a separate category. As a case in point, Ellis classifies as ‘tasks’ those “activities that call for primarily meaning focused language use” (2003, p. 3) while exercises describe those activities “that call for primarily form focused language use” (ibid.). It appears that Ellis uses ‘activities’ to refer to practically anything performed by students - any sort of ‘action’ or ‘act’ elicited by an instruction. Estaire and Zanon (1994) apply the same criteria to distinguish between ‘communication tasks’ in which the “learner’s attention is focused on meaning rather than form’ and ‘enabling tasks’ in which “the main focus is on linguistic aspect (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, function, and discourse)” (in Acar, 2006, p. 505). What is described as a ‘task’ by Ellis becomes a ‘communication task’ by Estaire and Zanon’s standards while their ‘enabling tasks’ are understood as ‘exercises’ by Ellis. Despite the naming opted for in each case the distinction between form-based and communication-based ‘acts’ is certainly concrete and practical. For that reason, I draw on this distinction to inform my own definition of ‘tasks’ and ‘activities.’ As mentioned above ‘tasks’ are goal-oriented and involve a series of stages or activities that aim at a final product created by students. During tasks, linguistic form is not the main goal but is rather elicited by getting students to communicate. Activities, on the other hand, (i) can be form-based, (ii) are far more controlled, (iii) are only a part of a ‘larger’ task, (iv) often involve learning strategies and (v) can require meta-language, whereby students are made consciously aware of aspects of various language skills. Activities might be relevant to more than one skill depending on the task performed. A range of activities which emerged from this study is displayed in the table below (Table 2.1). These will be discussed in further detail in relation to washback later on in this thesis.

Table 2.1: Activities



Given that the focus of this study is exam preparation courses, I also relay a variety of exam related activities which emerged from this study. Teachers use a variety of exam activities in exam preparation courses in order to familiarize students with exam context and format. Exam related activities are work plans that teachers employ in class in order for students to practise exam-like situations and help students succeed in the exams. The table below shows what kind of exam activities teachers used (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Exam-related Activities



2.4.1.5. Washback on Tasks and Activities

Having offered a provisional definition of ‘tasks’ and ‘activities’ as those will be discussed throughout this thesis, this section moves on to report on some studies that have explored washback in relation to tasks and activities. Given the immensity of relevant research projects, a comprehensive table of the most important ones is presented in chronological order (Appendix I).

What becomes almost immediately perceptible from Appendix I is the larger volume of exam-oriented tasks and activities in comparison to other activities that were employed in the relevant courses observed. The findings of most of the studies above focus on the constraints that exams impose on the tasks and activities employed, highlighting however the role of the teacher’s beliefs and perspectives. Tasks and activities seem to be chosen based on the skills the teachers wish to cultivate and the materials used, which in their turn reflect the exam students were preparing for in each case. Activities generally tend to emulate those present in the exam (Shohamy et al., 1996; Cheng, 1997, Hayes and Read, 2004; Turner, 2009, Deng, 2010).

These studies further verify some of the observations made above in relation to washback on content, skills and material. In relation to tasks and material, Cheng (1998, 1999) found that mock exams were regularly used in preparation courses while Brown (1998) reported on students performing timed writing tasks in IELTS preparation courses. More specifically, Brown notes that students were given the exam writing criteria and also a correction code relevant to the exam. Similarly, in their study on the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) which focused on writing, Stecher et al. (2004) found that teachers presented students with scoring rubrics to score their tasks (p. 66). Tsagari (2011) found that teachers also focused on exam preparation techniques. Washback on tasks in this case was more exam-oriented, in terms of acquainting students with test format and ‘optimum’ test-taking strategies, rather than purely skills-oriented. Mickan and Motteram’s study (2009) further suggests that teaching time is also dedicated to ‘teaching the test’ (i.e. how to approach examiners) rather than merely teaching the relevant language skills; i.e. teachers focused on providing and discussing practical tips and strategies for completing test tasks and on raising students’ awareness of the constituent parts of such test tasks (2009, p.37).

In other cases, tasks and activities were targeted at the skills required by a given exam (see e.g. Hawkey 2006; Aftab et al, 2014). Mickan and Motteram (2009) observe that the

different tasks and activities that teachers employed in class addressed each skill tested by the exam individually. During ‘speaking’ instruction, the teacher employed tasks such as unplanned talks, expression of opinions, and arguing points of view. During ‘writing’ practice, students practiced structuring text composition as well as planning and writing timed exam-like tasks. In practising ‘reading’, the teacher focused on vocabulary as well as skimming and scanning techniques. Finally, during instruction of ‘listening’, the teacher practised listening tasks, analysed transcripts and familiarised students with practice tests.

As suggested elsewhere in this chapter, teaching to a test is not necessarily indicative of positive or negative washback, whether the test is well or poorly designed. A lot depends on the tasks and activities teachers employ in the classroom. For instance, activities such as ‘memorization’ (see Al-Jamal and Ghady, 2008) and ‘translation’ (Watanabe, 1996) clearly demonstrate cases of negative washback, verifying Aftab et al.’s concerns (2014) that while skills might be targeted through test design, such teaching methods as the former two do not encourage critical thinking. Nikolov’s (1999) study in Hungary also presents such a case. Nikolov indicates that the teachers under observation used typical testing techniques, such as translation and gap filling, rendering the classes “monotonous and boring” because of a lack of variety in tasks and activities (p. 238).

Indeed, many studies present ample evidence suggesting that exams might tend to dictate what happens in the classroom to an alarming extent. Cheng’s study (1997) found washback on tasks observing how the teacher employed activities (e.g. reading aloud) similar to those required in the examination. In the same vein, Hawkey’s study (2006) stressed teachers’ preference for task-based activities, with an emphasis on macro skills activities which involved micro-skills relevant to IELTS. In Watanabe’s study (1996) on university entrance exams in Japan, the teachers observed primarily used textbooks which consisted of past exam papers and exam-related materials. Moreover, teachers structured their lessons around these textbooks. As a result, most teaching time was dedicated to exam-like practice, such as the translation and explanation of texts. Wall and Horak (2007) also observed TOEFL preparation classes to be overtly materials-bound and practice-centered. The tasks and activities students performed in class or as homework were centred around the needs of the exams. Finally, the majority of the teachers involved in Ren’s study (2011) also employed activities or tasks included in the exam. Essentially, teachers used multiple-choice activities for the listening and reading tasks, argumentative essays for practising writing and carried out exam-related assessment highly resembling the exam.

Despite this overt emphasis on the exam, however, there were cases which highlighted teachers' 'innovative' use of material and tasks (as per Watanabe, 2000). Cheng (1997), for instance, found that teachers encouraged students to engage in activities outside the classroom such as reading newspapers or watching TV. Therefore, washback on tasks and activities varies depending on the teacher, among other factors. Similarly, Hawkey (2006) highlights that the teacher under observation in the study mentioned above seemed willing to try a range of teaching methods and approaches. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons' (1996) research on TOEFL and non-TOEFL preparation classes further verifies the pivotal role of the teacher factor in washback. On the one hand, the researchers observed that teachers adjusted their teaching methods to the exam when teaching TOEFL classes and most exercises were based on practice tests. In fact, they suggest that teachers can combine their preferred teaching activities and test preparation without feeling guilty for spending time on test preparation rather than on more 'interesting' tasks. On the other hand, the researchers come to the conclusion that despite the fact that TOEFL affects how teachers teach "the effect is not the same in degree and in kind from teacher to teacher" (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996). This emphasis on teaching methods and teachers in washback clearly necessitates more studies such as the one at hand.

Cheng's study (1999) further provides evidence that exam washback might lead to new and innovative teaching methods. More specifically, Cheng found that teachers used various new activities (e.g. read aloud, narrate, describe) to adapt to the new HKCEE exam and although they relied on revised exam practice books, they saw the change as "an opportunity for them to try out new ideas and activities in school" (1999, p. 268).

Other studies, however, suggest that teachers might feel 'trapped' by a given exam, as the teaching methods, tasks and activities available to them seem to be dictated by the exam. Comparing two national tests, the one in Arabic (ASL) and the other one in English as a foreign language (EFL), Shohamy et al. (1995) found that in both classes the activities used by teachers emulated the exams. More specifically, teachers reported focusing on exam oriented tasks "through simulations of test situations" (Shohamy et al., 1995, p. 308). Teacher comments reporting that "there is no alternative but to teach as dictated by the exam" (p. 308) bear witness to teachers' feelings of servitude to the exam. Al-Jamal and Ghady's study (2008) on teaching methods found that teachers dedicated more time to grammar activities in their belief that grammar was more likely to be tested in the GSCE

exam. Still, the degree of exam impact on classroom pedagogy and teaching activities can depend on factors, such as the teachers themselves, the school and the wider study programme (Deng and Carless, 2010, p. 300).

To conclude, an overwhelming body of literature establishes a direct link between exam and classroom practices which extends to the selection of specific tasks and activities. The impact of the exams on teaching might become more obvious in more exam-specific tasks. What emerges clearly from this section, however, is that, in most cases, exams tend to lead to a narrowing of the curriculum with teachers teaching to the test which has an immediate impact on the tasks and activities employed in the classroom. As seen in this section, however, teachers' approach towards these tasks and activities, their 'innovative' mood and the teaching methods they employ varies and therefore becomes a pivotal factor to examine in establishing the direction of washback. In other words, in the same manner that test design does not in itself guarantee positive washback (see e.g. Messick, 1996; Alderson and Wall, 1993), it can be argued that teachers' teaching method, approach and employment of specific tasks and activities in class is also key to washback intensity and direction, underscoring the need for more research into teaching methods and teacher's attitudes. The latter of the two will be discussed in the following section.

2.4.2 Teachers' Attitudes and Feelings

Another area where washback manifests regards teachers' attitudes and feelings. Interviewing teachers can offer access to both teachers' attitudes and feelings, which further constitute a valuable resource for understanding exam washback on teaching and teachers (see e.g. Ren, 2011). Attitudes and feelings can be affected in three ways: negatively, positively, or both negatively and positively.

Both positive and negative attitudes and feelings are encountered in the study carried out by Shohamy et al. (1996). On the one hand, interviews and questionnaires in this study focused on the reasons why teachers have a negative attitude towards exam influence. Teachers felt that teaching to the exam was the only way to teach their students. Teachers also believed that they would be more inclined to express their creativity if they were not obliged to teach to the exam. Feelings of anxiety as well as fear about exam results surfaced and teachers experienced pressure to cover the materials for the exam. On the other hand, some teachers exhibited a more positive attitude toward the exam, as it offered them the opportunity to

teach skills that they otherwise neglected (i.e. speaking). Another study that reported contradictory attitudes and feelings experienced by teachers was conducted by Newsfields (2005) and concerned the TOEIC exam at Japanese universities. The teachers interviewed for this study believed that the TOEIC exam tends to motivate some students but it may discourage low level students. Furthermore, while TOEIC can provide “a standard-referenced content and curricular focus” but it can create “test fatigue” and students experience “performance anxiety” (p. 96). Both studies reveal negative washback in relation to teachers’ and students’ feelings and stress levels as the latter were reported by teachers. However, both studies also report on positive washback in terms of skills washback (Shohamy et al.) and motivation (Newsfields). Reports on performance of weaker students found in Newsfields, however, highlight the importance of the participant factor in washback and perhaps call attention to the need for needs analysis in exam selection.

An interesting study on teacher’s beliefs and attitudes about exams was conducted by Johnson, Jordan and Poehner (2005) in North America. Johnson et al. (2005) used a case study to determine whether a given teacher’s perception of the validity of the TOEFL exam, as well as his students’ perceptions thereof, materialized in classroom practices. The findings revealed that the teacher had complex and often contradictory views of the TOEFL exam. The study makes an important discovery in suggesting that the teacher’s perception of the validity of the exam influences not only what and how teachers teach but also “the opportunities afforded to students” (p. 92), again spotlighting the teacher and teaching methods as central to washback.

Laughter has been perceived as an indication of the atmosphere that prevails in the classroom as well as how anxious or not a teacher is in a variety of studies. A study conducted by Read and Hayes (2003) reported positive feelings among teachers about the IELTS exams but at the same time recounted more laughter in general courses and less in IELTS preparation courses. Following Read and Hayes’ study (2003), Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) discern similar attitudes as more laughter was reported in non-TOEFL classes (p. 289). In the same study, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons observed negative attitudes towards teaching reported by most teachers. Teachers felt guilty and they described the lesson as “boring” and “fragmentary” because they felt unable to make the lesson more interesting for the students as well as to ensure their success.

Feelings of pressure when teaching TOEFL preparation classes were also present in Alderson and Hamp-Lyon's study (1996). Pressure was also experienced by teachers in a writing skills course which was investigated by Hughes (1989). Teachers felt pressure to teach items of multiple-choice rather than engage in other writing tasks. Moreover, feelings of pressure are reported by Cheng (1998) which were experienced by teachers who felt responsible for the students' familiarisation with the test formats. Also, in Cheng (1997), teachers believed that new teaching materials and extra work should be employed due to the new exam, thus putting pressure on their teaching. In another study by Smith et al. (1991), teachers considered the activities they had to do in class and the resources they had to use unacceptable as they did not approve of them. The English language school-leaving examination in Hungary also influenced teachers negatively. Those characterised the exam as unreliable, invalid further stating that it had a "negative washback effect on classroom teaching" (Glover, 2006, p. 43).

More recent studies confirm the negative influence of high-stakes exam on teachers' attitudes and beliefs. Tsagari (2011) observes feelings of stress and anxiety experienced by teachers during the exam preparation period. Teachers claimed that their professional status was affected by students' success in the exams as they were considered responsible for the outcome. In her washback study on writing, Shih (2009) found that teachers felt they had to prepare students for the CET exam in order to guarantee students' continuing with the course and motivate them to pay attention in class. Evidently, the exam had "exerted pressure on the students, who then transferred this pressure to the teachers" (p. 29). Deng and Carless (2010) also found that teachers in examination-oriented systems experience pressure.

Some studies, however, have mainly reported positive effects of examinations on attitudes and feelings, such as Li's (1990) study on MET which found that teachers consider the test and the subtests as an effective means to measure the candidates' ability to use English. Similarly, Watanabe (2000) describes the atmosphere of the classroom as "not necessarily tense", pointing out that it depends on the specific teacher's attitudes towards the exam in each case (p.44). Turner's study (2009) on the ESL exit exam in Canada found positive effects on teachers' attitudes, too. Teachers felt satisfied to integrate the intended changes fostered by the exam in both the curriculum and their methodology.

The above discussion suggests that contradictory results have been found regarding teachers' attitudes and feelings towards the exams in terms of content and materials. Examinations

often seem to influence teachers' attitudes and feelings negatively forcing them to use methodologies as well as resources that they would not otherwise use. In fact, most studies found that teachers have a negative attitude towards the exams because they cause feelings of stress, anxiety and pressure. Most of the negative influence however seems to stem from the stress and anxiety exerted on teachers and students by the exam. Negative feelings relating to exam washback on 'what' teachers teach in terms of skills, material, content, tasks and activities as those that were discussed above were reported by some of the studies but the prevalent factor in negative feelings seem to be the high stakes associated with an exam and the pressure to succeed.

2.4.3 How Teachers Teach: Methods and Teaching Strategies

Teaching cannot be conceived without considering teaching methods or manner of instruction. The latter two refer to the methods (e.g. the teaching strategies) teachers employ in order to facilitate teaching. Similar to tasks and activities, the terms used in the literature to refer to teaching methods vary. Studies often make reference to teaching strategies using terms such as 'methods', 'methodology', 'teaching practices', 'tasks', 'activities', 'techniques' and, of course, 'strategy'. In order avoid ambiguity and in an attempt to bring these terms together the term 'teaching strategies' will be opted for throughout this study.

How teachers teach refers to the teaching strategies that teachers use to manage and control students and the teaching process in general. Teaching strategies refer to teachers' talk in class, interaction patterns and classroom discipline. Firstly, teacher's talk regards the quantity - i.e the amount of talk taking place in the classroom – and the quality of talking which regards whether a teacher (i) speaks slowly or quickly, (ii) changes discourse, (iii) changes grammar or pronunciation, or (iv) uses pauses or (v) metalanguage (Richards and Lockhart, 2004; Ellis, 2012). Secondly, teacher talk can refer to teacher's questions, explanations, elicitations, descriptions and feedback (Nunan, 1998; Richards and Lockhart, 2004). The current study employs the latter definition of teachers' talk as well as the other strategies comprising it because of its relevance to this study, which is interested in a qualitative analysis of teaching methods. The former definition is too restricted for the purposes of this study as it regards mostly linguistic and other qualities of the speech produced by a teacher. These would be more relevant to a study that explores the language skills of students in relation to teacher-produced speech.

As briefly mentioned above, the strategies associated with teacher talk are treated as distinct in the current study for two equally important reasons: firstly, in order to define teaching strategies more explicitly and render them more tangible to allow for a more detailed engagement with them; and secondly, to achieve better comparability with the other studies I will draw on in the discussion stage. The teaching strategies that will be explored in this thesis include: (i) *teacher's talk*, any *explanations, suggestions and instructions* that teachers use to assist students' learning; (ii) the use of *first or second language* to address students; (iii) the *interaction patterns* teachers choose, such as group or pair work, individual work or lockstep, (iv) *assessment, feedback and error correction* techniques, such as summative or formative assessment and oral or written feedback; (v) *questions*, which regards whether most questioning comes from the teacher; and finally, (vi) *discipline and other behaviour* such as laughing and tackling noise and attention problems (Malamah-Thomas, 1987; Nunan, 1998; Hubbard et al, 1999; Richards and Lockhart, 2004, Ur, 2000; Ellis, 2012). The current study opted for these strategies as the most common and tangible strategies employed in the classroom to allow for qualitative and comparable results. Figure 2.9 below provides an illustration of what are considered to be teaching strategies in this study.

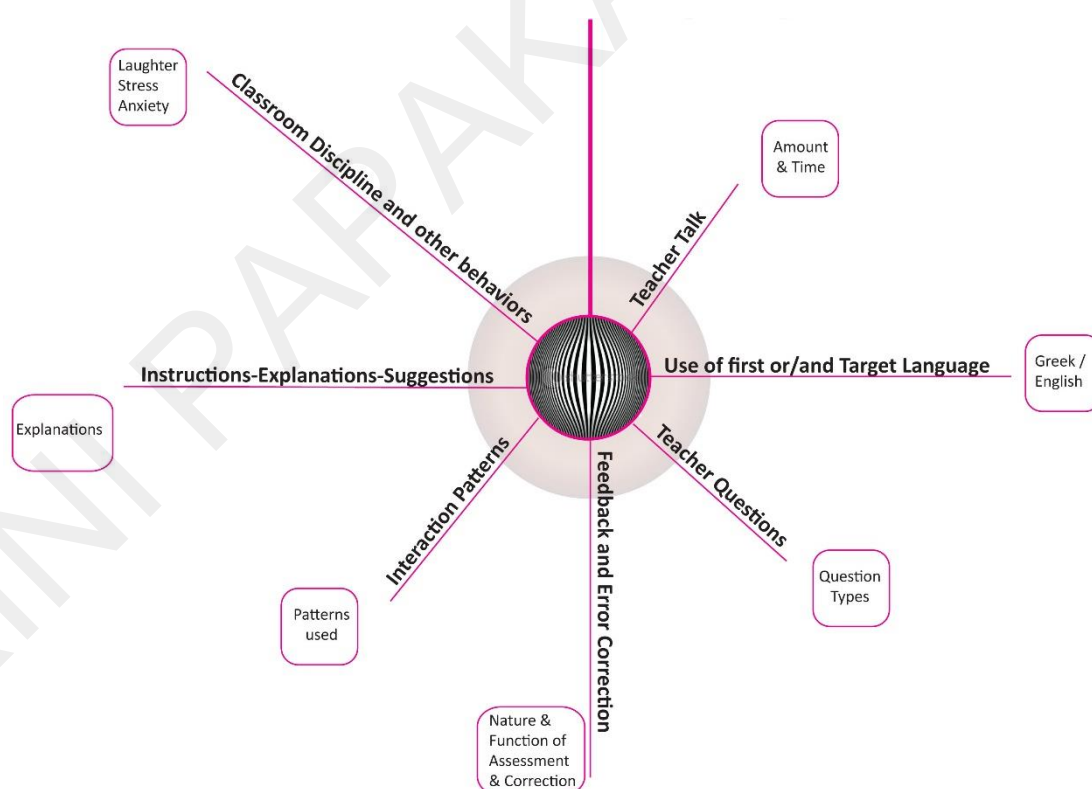


Figure 2.9: Teaching Strategies

Washback studies reveal evidence of examination influence on teaching strategies, in general. However, the evidence from the studies seems contradictory due to the variety of terms used to refer to teaching strategies that have been used to describe how teachers teach and the variation of the perceived effects. Therefore, washback studies on teaching strategies are reviewed according to the distinctive features they examine and to whether they found washback on how teachers teach.

2.4.3.1 Washback Studies on Teaching Strategies

Despite the variety in terminology employed to describe classroom behaviour and teacher's instruction, the washback effects on how teachers teach found in the following studies fall under the categories of teaching strategies as those were identified above – namely, teacher's talk, first and target language, questions, feedback and error correction, interaction patterns, instructions – explanations – suggestions and classroom discipline and other behaviours. Table 2.4 identifies the specific teaching strategies on which washback was found in each individual study (Table 2.4). Those are further discussed in distinct sections.

Table 2.3: Washback Effect on Teaching Strategies

Teaching Strategies	Teachers Talk	First / Target Language	Questions	Feedback & Error Correction	Interaction Patterns	Instructions Explanations Suggestions	Classroom Discipline
Author							
Wall & Alderson (1993)			✓	✓		✓	
Alderson & Hapm-Lyons (1996)	✓		✓		✓		✓
Watanabe (1996)		✓	✓		✓		
Shohamy et al (1996)					✓		✓
Cheng (1997)	✓					✓	
Cheng (1998)	✓					✓	
Brown (1998)				✓		✓	
Cheng (1999)	✓				✓	✓	
Nikolov (1999)		✓			✓		
Smith (1999)							✓
Watanabe (2000)		✓					
Chapman & Snyder (2000)					✓		
Hayes & Read (2004)				✓	✓	✓	✓
Stecher et Chengal (2004)				✓		✓	
Burrows (2004)	✓					✓	
Watanabe (2004)		✓			✓		
Cheng (2004)	✓	✓			✓	✓	
Green (2006)				✓			
Glover (2006)	✓		✓		✓		
Wall & Horak (2007)		✓		✓			
Mickan & Motteram (2009)				✓	✓	✓	
Tsagari (2009)							✓
Turner (2009)		✓		✓	✓		
Li (2009)				✓	✓		
Deng (2010)					✓	✓	✓

Teacher Talk – Discourse Analysis

Exam influence on teacher talk was found in a study conducted by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996). Conducting interviews with both students and teachers, as well as through observations of non-exam related language proficiency classes and TOEFL preparation classes taught by the same teacher, the researchers concluded that teachers talk more in TOEFL preparation classes. As a consequence, substantially less time was available to students for talking. For the purposes of this study, teachers' talk consisted of metalanguage of grammatical points, while teachers often referred to the TOEFL exam explicitly (e.g. exam scoring). Similarly, in his study on the Japanese university entrance examination Watanabe (2004) found there was frequent use of metalanguage in teacher talk and that teachers frequently referred to test-taking techniques. In conducting teacher interviews to investigate the influence of introducing a new form of assessment to teachers' teaching, Burrows (2004) found an increased use of metalanguage.

Cheng (1997, 1998, 1999) found changes in teacher talk after the changes that were implemented to the Certificate of Education Examination in English in Hong Kong. In her two papers (1998, 1999) on the influence of the change of the exam, Cheng mentions that "teacher talk as a percentage of class time increased under the new 1996 HKCEE" for both teachers (Cheng, 1999, p. 262). The questionnaires answered by students further revealed that teachers tended to address the whole class most of the time when talking. In her research conducted in 1997 examining the washback effect of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination on secondary schools Cheng presented significant results regarding teacher talk. Combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods, the researcher found that teachers talked to the whole class for 57% of class time while keeping silent for only 5% of the time.

Glover's (2006) study performing discourse analysis of exam preparation classes in Hungary by methods of audio recording, field notes and teachers' reports shows that there are some variation in the teacher talk in the examination lessons. Based on Mercer's framework (1995), Glover drew on the categories of Elicitation, Response and Description to perform a discourse analysis on the above-mentioned data. Glover found that Cued Elicitation and Correction Responses (rejection, repetitions, reformulations, elaborations) tend to occur less while Recap Descriptions (reminders about previous lesson, drawing conclusions after a discussion or activity) tend to occur more in exam classes. Glover's study suggests that

teacher talk presents limited washback effect. Other aspects of teacher talk do not seem to be affected by teaching to the exam including Direct Elicitations (the use of questions), Evaluation Responses and Prospective Descriptions.

In conclusion, studies in teacher talk have primarily focused on investigating the quantity rather than the quality of teacher's talk. Teachers seem to talk much more in exam preparation classes than in other teaching contexts. In terms of quality, teacher talk can be characterised as (i) ridden with metalanguage, (ii) targeted explicitly at talking about the exam, (iii) geared towards reminding students of previous lessons or (iv) used to draw conclusions. Teacher talk in terms of time and quantity does not fall within the scope of this study.

Use of First and/or Target Language

In their study of a new English examination in Sri Lanka, Wall and Alderson (1993) found that teachers carried out explanations in the class in the first language or used translation techniques. A study by Nikolov (1999) on secondary schools in Hungary looking at the classroom in general and how exams influence teaching rendering some interesting results concerning first and/or target language use in class. In fact, through interviews with teachers and class observations, Nikolov (1999) considered it impressive that most of the teacher input was in Hungarian, further advocating that this works against the students' interest, considering the limited access to the English language they have. Also, the fact that translation (sentence by sentence translation of texts) was used in class as a teaching method made the use of Hungarian in class more intensive. Similarly, two studies by Watanabe on Japanese university entrance examinations (1996, 2000), conducted through questionnaires, interviews and observations, conveyed that teachers in the preparation classes used a lot of translation during the lessons. Watanabe (2000) claims that teachers used translation techniques despite the fact that the exams did not include any translation activities. First language is persistently used in examination classes in Japan limiting the use of the English language only to formulaic or mechanical approaches.

On the other hand, Cheng's study (2004) on the changes of HKCEE and their meaning and impact on teachers' perceptions and classroom instruction found that more teachers used the target language as a means of instruction after changes in the exam – a case of positive impact. A study by Wall and Horak (2007) which focused on the role of baseline studies (i.e. studies describing the educational context before the introduction of an innovation) tested

the impact of the revised Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The study identifies the medium that teachers used in class as that of the English language, although no improvement of students' speaking skills was noted.

Turner's (2009) case study of secondary teachers in the French school system in Canada discovered a variation among teachers regarding the use of first and second language. Some teachers used first language or switched from L1 to L2. However, most teachers made use of the target language and tried to get their students to speak in the L2 during activities. Teachers in the study relay how important it is to talk in the target language so that students improve their speaking skills.

The studies presented above reported diverse findings regarding the use of the medium in exam preparation classes. It seems that the use of first and/or target language depends mostly on teachers rather than the exam itself.

Teacher Questions

Studies have found contradictory results regarding the use of teachers' questions in exam preparation classes. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons' study (1996) on TOEFL preparation classes found that there is less students' questioning compared to teacher's questioning. On the other hand, a study conducted by Watanabe (1996) investigating the type of activities taking place in schools preparing students for university examinations concluded that none of the teachers who took part in the study asked many questions during the class. In fact, the only questions teachers used were rhetorical ones which they answered themselves. Conducting discourse analysis in the exam preparation classes in Hungary, Glover (2006) also discusses teachers' questions and answers, finding no difference in the use of questions and answers between the examination and non-examination classes. It is obvious that only a few studies have looked into teachers' questions. The results vary, suggesting that the use of questions in exam preparation classes are not influenced by the exams alone. However, teacher questions, as teacher talk, do not fall within the scope of this study.

Feedback

Another teaching method that teachers use in exam preparation courses that is influenced by exams is feedback. Studies, such as the one conducted by Brown (1998) on IELTS and general EAP classes, found that teachers, using materials from IELTS preparation course books, spent time on exams giving not only feedback on exam to students but also offering

comments and instructions on how to succeed in the exam. Wall and Alderson (1993) found that teachers either corrected students in writing individually or did not correct them at all. Only one teacher of those participating in the study had students work in pairs. However, neither the students of this class nor the students of other classes were aware of the marking criteria, which might hinder students' improvement. In his study on the Japanese entrance examination Watanabe (2004) found that there was frequent use of feedback on students' utterances, but which focused mainly on form. Through classroom observations, interviews, teacher and student questionnaires, as well as pre- and post tests in IELTS preparation courses, Hayes and Read (2004) found that one particular teacher frequently used error correction "as he wanted to encourage students to focus not only on fluency but also on accuracy" (p. 107). Green (2006) also examined error correction in his IELTS study. IELTS classes were found not to provide opportunities for error correction to students.

Read and Haye's (2004) study explored exam marking criteria. Most teachers who took part in the study did not provide feedback to students in the form of IELTS band scores. Exam band scores are also discussed in Brown (1998), who investigated IELTS and EAP courses. Using pre- and post- tests, as well as observations, Brown (1998) found that feedback and error correction was regular in both IELTS classes and EAP classes though in different forms. The IELTS course writing tasks were not assessed using the IELTS band score since the teachers of the course were not qualified or trained as IELTS assessors. The type of feedback observed in this study is also worth mentioning – namely, feedback concerned the length, structure and accuracy of students' writing tasks. Little use of the exam marking criteria for writing was also found in Wall and Horak (2007) who examined TOEFL preparation courses in Central and Eastern Europe. Teachers did not extensively use TOEFL marking criteria in their feedback on writing because they were not fully aware of the different TOEFL scales.

Mickan and Motteram (2009) investigated feedback extensively in their study of exam preparation courses of IELTS. Although students were advised to engage in language tasks and activities beyond those assigned in class, the teacher did not provide any feedback on those. Teachers did not generally dedicate much time to feedback, and did so in the form of general comments addressed to the whole class. Feedback in these specific IELTS preparation classes observed by Mickan and Motteram included "direct explanations, students working in pairs on test-related tasks, through group work, modeling of texts and students doing practice tests under exam conditions" (2009, p. 37). Similarly, Li's study

(2009) on the teaching of writing in CET exam classes reported that students hardly ever received feedback from the teachers. Turner's study (2009) on how teachers mediate between classroom activity and preparing students for exams in Canada reported that teachers used formative assessment approaches when the new exam materials were introduced. However, as the exam period approached, the teachers used a summative assessment approach and had their students practise mock exams as well as use the new rating scale to evaluate their speaking skills. Teachers' assessment practices varied depending on teacher factors.

Feedback results of washback studies varied in both quantity and quality as well as whether it took the form of individual or class feedback. While most studies showed that teachers use feedback in their classes, it seems to be predominately in summative form while in some cases teachers used mock exams and exam tasks to assess their students. As a general conclusion, the teachers' background and professional education seems to be related to the quantity and type of feedback teachers provide. A general tendency of insufficient feedback is however observed.

Interaction Patterns

A substantial body of research has observed that examinations have also influenced interaction patterns in the classroom. Wall and Alderson (1993) investigated the impact of a new exam in Sri Lanka and found that teachers assumed a central role in the class. Teachers read, explained and talked to students most of the time, wrote on the board and asked students questions. Students' participation in class appears to have been limited to copying off of the board and answering questions. Comparing TOEFL preparation classes and non-TOEFL preparation classes, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) identified that in TOEFL preparation classes teachers spent less time on pair work and turn-taking. In addition, the researchers remark that less time was dedicated to student-student interaction as well as student-teacher interaction. Teachers spent most of the time talking in class giving "mini lectures of grammatical points" (p. 294). With the teachers leading the class in such a manner, any interaction that can lead to a more communicative way of teaching is prevented.

In investigating the impact of the changes of the Hong Kong Certificate on classroom teaching, Cheng (1999) found that there was a slight increase of the use of group work, although it varied from teacher to teacher. Watanabe (2004) also refers to the interaction patterns comparing exam and non-exam classes. Lock step was the most popular teaching

pattern in exam and non-exam classes, whereas group and pair work were more common in non-exam classes. In Cheng's (2004) study of the Hong Kong Certificate, teachers did most of the talking in the class addressing mostly the whole class, while group or individual feedback was less common. Changes to the exam did not have any impact on interaction patterns in this case. Nikolov (1999) presents similar findings in her research on secondary schools in Hungary. Classroom observations presented more class work rather than individual or pair/group work. During speaking classes, teachers mainly employed a "lockstep fashion" of interaction, whereby all the students are working in the same pace with the teacher (Nikolov, 1999, p. 232). Where free interaction were recorded, though, it was on a one-word or sentence basis. The lockstep mode of interaction was also observed in Watanabe's research (1996) on preparation classes in Japan for the university entrance examinations. The teacher used a lot of translation, as it was required in the exams. Teachers stood in front of the classroom explaining the text and providing the answers to exercises. Findings from Hayes and Read's study (2004), which drew on empirical classroom data, also determined that the "teacher was the predominant focus" substantially diminishing any chance of interaction in the classroom.

Contrary to the results of the studies discussed so far, Shohamy et al. (1996) recorded the use of pair and group work as well as instances of students "engaging in debates, discussion and speeches" (p. 308) in their study of preparation classes for the EFL oral exams which focused exclusively on the skills to be tested in the exam. Mickan and Motteram's study (2009) investigating classroom practices used for the IELTS test preparation yielded relatively similar results. Teachers provided students with the opportunity to work together and help each other in class although "monologic talk", in other words long stretches of speech produced by one person, "comprised a significant part for the lessons" (p. 26).

In his research on exam preparation classes in Hungary, Glover (2006) did not establish any connection between the interaction patterns in class and the exams students were preparing for. Looking into the teaching of writing in CET exam classes in China, Li (2009) found that there was hardly any communication between students and teachers or between classmates in relation to writing. Finally, the studies of Turner (2009), and Deng and Carless (2010) investigated the factors that effectuated variation in the interaction patterns used by teachers. Both isolate teacher stances and teacher perspectives as contributing factors while the latter found that school differences, as well as the interplay between communicative activities (that require group and pair interaction) and examination preparation work play a significant role.

Results on the interaction patterns vary among studies. It appears that most teachers have the central role in the class using lockstep interaction patterns, standing in front of the class and dominating interaction. Shohamy et al. (1996) and Mician and Motteram's (2009), however, recorded a substantially different pattern of classroom interaction, suggesting that the exam might bear influence on the interaction mode employed in class. As a case in point, in Watanabe's study of a preparation class for an exam that required translation, interaction was rather limited. On the other hand, Turner (2009) as well as Deng and Carless (2010) isolate the teacher as a decisive factor in the mode of interaction employed in class. Deng and Carless' study of the interplay between more communicative activities and exam preparation work as a contributing factor in interaction suggests that the activities and tasks used in class can either deter or reinforce specific interaction modes.

Explanations – Suggestions – Instructions

Significant findings on explanations, suggestions and instructions have been reported in various research studies conducted in exam preparation classes. Observations of such classes reveal an extensive use of explanations and instructions aiming at students' understanding of the exam tasks. In terms of explanation, suggestion and instruction, Cheng (1997, 1998, 1999, 2004) found that teachers spent a lot of time on providing explanations. Some teachers "felt they had to explain more to their students and provide explanations in detail in order to make sure that students could meet the new examination requirement" (Cheng, 1999, p. 262). Additionally, teachers spent time checking students' answers to exam practice-related activities. Other such methods included the explanation of language points and language activities, explanation of homework, as well as the explanation of lesson objectives (Cheng, 1997, p. 48). In her 1998 research, Cheng observes teachers explaining textbook exercises and the meaning of the text, each time focusing on the exams (ibid p. 287). Similarly, Hayes and Read (2004) found that teachers dedicated more time to "identifying answers in the text and explaining" activities.

In a study looking at the changes of schools and classrooms, "during the early years of standards-based assessment in Washington State" (2004, p. 55), Stecher et al. came to some interesting conclusions. Teachers used a lot of examples explaining grammar, spelling and punctuation in writing classes while suggestions on revisions to student writing during the lessons were also made. Burrows' research (2004) on the Australian Adult Migrant English Program also recorded the explanation of grammar. He also claimed that teachers monitored

students' progress and they gave information to "students about assessment, competencies and performance criteria" (Burrows, 2004, p. 119) related to the exam.

Mickan and Motteram's study (2009) provides ample evidence of washback on instruction and specifically on the advice teachers offered to students relating to the IELTS test. Mickan and Motteram studied teachers' pedagogy using an ethnographic approach and analysing all the skills taught. Relating to the exam, teachers offered suggestions to their students on how they could practise independently, on test-taking techniques, on how they should behave in test situations and how they could organise their study before the exam. Similarly, in Deng's study (2010) in Canada, teachers did their best to assist students and make them aware of the exam requirements.

From the studies presented above, it emerges that teachers frequently used explanations in relation to language points (e.g. grammar), exercises and homework tasks (see e.g. Stecher et al., 2004; Burrows, 2004). In some cases, suggestions were targeted at improving students' specific skills (e.g. Stecher et al.), but were mostly targeted at familiarizing students with test techniques. Interestingly, Mickan and Motteram (2009) also observed suggestions aimed at encouraging students' self study, which was not observed in any of the other studies discussed above. As a general conclusion, explanations and suggestions were extensively used to prepare students for the exams, relating either to language points or skills relevant to the exam or test format and requirements.

Classroom Discipline and Other Behaviours

Research studies observe examination effects on methods in terms of classroom discipline and other behaviours such as the use of laughter that might be encountered in an exam preparation class. Laughter is hardly ever present in such classes. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) recorded more laughter in non-TOEFL classes and less in TOEFL classes. In line with Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Hayes and Read (2004) report one instance of laughter per session in IELTS courses compared to 11 in EAP orientation classes. Similarly, Deng (2010) refers to moments of fun and laughter only in teachers' classes that employed communicative approaches and therefore spent less time on exam preparation. Furthermore, the examination did not seem to be as important a factor in the choice of pedagogy as other factors such as teachers' beliefs and how teachers interpret examinations.

Feelings of anxiety in exam preparation classes are reported by some studies. Prodromou (1995) stresses that the exam preparation classes are full of anxiety, fear, errorphobia, boredom, failure and weakness, experienced by both students and teachers. Similarly, Smith (1999) points out that the way exam preparation classes are taught causes anxiety, as students experience shame and low self-esteem and they “experience alienation from publications and the use of test scores” (p.8). In addition, Tsagari (2009) found that the FCE exam in exam preparation classes in Greece fostered feelings of anxiety and stress amongst both students and teachers. Teachers, in particular, felt stressed due to the high stakes associated with the test and their responsibility for students’ success.

Looking into courses preparing for the Arabic as a Second Language exam (ASL) and the English as a Foreign Language oral exam (EFL), Shohamy et al. (1996) observed that while in ASL courses the atmosphere was tense and teachers offered extra review hours, in EFL courses there was “not any tension in the class concerning the exam” (p. 304). Watanabe (2000) also found that the atmosphere of exam classes was not tense and depended on teachers’ attitudes toward the exam.

The impact of the exams on the teachers’ way of teaching is observable through their comments. As one teacher states, “there is no alternative but to teach as dictated by the exam” (Shohamy et al., 1995, p. 308). A more recent study conducted by Deng and Carless (2010) on the impact of the examinations on classroom pedagogy and specifically on the use of communicative and task-based teaching, showed that “examinations generally act as a constraint to the implementation of innovative pedagogy” (p. 300). According to the findings, teachers increased teaching time on examination preparation and repeated all the activities one by one.

Studies show that laughter in exam classes occurs rarely, contrary to non-exam classes. On the other hand, in exam classes both students and teachers experience feelings of stress and pressure which make teachers’ work more demanding, classes more boring and the implementation of more communicative and/or task-based teaching difficult. Given that anxiety and stress are participant-related, however, classroom ambience and behavior might differ substantially amongst different teachers and student cohorts. Nonetheless, exams seem to be a determining factor.

2.5 Summary

This chapter opted to define the scope and ‘texture’ of washback, initially examining potential washback models that could contribute to the current study and which helped me formulate a washback model which will be discussed later in this thesis. A variety of washback studies were then identified, which examined the direction and intensity of washback in a variety of teaching and learning contexts across the globe from various perspectives. Those studies further called attention to the numerous contributing factors that impact on both the direction and intensity of washback ranging from test design to teacher competence, feelings and attitudes, availability of resources and English study programmes, among others. Washback was then examined in relation to (i) teaching content, (ii) teachers’ feelings and attitudes as well as (iii) teaching strategies. In relation to the latter, a provisional definition of what constitutes teaching strategies within the remit of this study was opted for, which helped bring and tie together findings from a variety of prominent washback studies and draw relatively concrete conclusions. Finally, the discussion on teaching strategies established the research territory the current study is set to explore.

Considerable evidence on the presence and nature of washback in the content of teaching was presented. Such studies (see e.g. Hughes, 1988; Chapman and Snyder, 2000; Wall 2000) established a direct link between exam and curriculum design. Andrews’ contribution (2004) on exams and curriculum innovation was of particular interest as it called attention to the pitfalls of a naïve and uncontested tendency to link the introduction of an exam and test design to curriculum innovation, alerting stakeholders to other factors that influence that link. In terms of material, washback was clearly detected with an overzealous tendency to select text books and teaching material that catered to the needs of specific exams (see e.g. Lam, 1993), while exam practice tests or past papers often served as teaching material (see e.g. Watanabe, 1996). Nonetheless, teachers also exhibited an innovative mood (see e.g. Watanabe, 2000) in some cases in the manner in which they used authentic or designed material.

Washback on skills was also established revealing a tendency to either exclusively teach or focus on skills tested in the exam individually and rarely integrated (see e.g. Akpınar and Cakildere 2013). In relation to tasks and activities employed in the classroom, studies almost univocally report on them resembling exam tasks, which limits creativity in the classroom. In terms of attitudes and feelings, most studies found negative washback as exams tended to cultivate a feeling of hopelessness and powerlessness on behalf of the teacher in sight of the

high stakes associated with an exam and the pressure it exerted on time and classroom management (see e.g. Tsagari, 2011).

Washback on teaching strategies also proved to be considerable. In this case, however, washback direction and intensity tend to vary considerably according to the teaching context (on a macro and micro level) and the teacher factor (see e.g. Watanabe, 1996; Chapman and Snyder, 2000; Turner, 2009; Deng, 2010). A variety of prominent washback studies have focused on washback on how teachers teach from various perspectives and on multiple levels. The multiplicity of terms employed to describe these perspectives and levels lead me to interpret results through the framework of the following teaching strategies identified: teacher talk; descriptions, elicitations, and responses; use of first and/or second language; interaction patterns; feedback and error correction; question types; and classroom discipline and other behaviours. The use of the above strategies rendered the results presented by the studies discussed comparable and concretely available for further examination and discussion.

Pivotaly, this chapter established that although a variety of studies have been performed on how and what teachers teach, those tend to render conflicting or difficult-to-compare results partially due to the fact that those aspects are intertwined and the fact that they are investigated using diverse terminology. This necessitates a distinction between what and how teachers teach. One of the main purposes of this thesis is to develop a washback model that takes into consideration both exam impact and teaching practices. This thesis also focuses on the content, namely the tasks and activities, as well as to the most of the teaching strategies. As it was mentioned above teacher talk and teacher questions do not fall within the scope of this study.

Nonetheless, few studies have investigated teaching practices and those who have, have done so using diverse terms and have rendered complicated findings. A washback model on teaching practices can shed light into that specific research area. Said model should account for the range of factors influencing teaching practices, such as the teachers and/or teaching contexts. Finally, in an attempt to withstand scrutiny and secure valid results research methods, such a washback model should allow for and be able to interpret a variety of data collection methods such as classroom observations, interviews and questionnaires. Chapter Three discusses the rationale behind the research methods employed in the current study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets off by formulating a set of research questions to be pursued in this study. It then moves on to discuss ways for addressing these questions, bringing together theoretical and methodological considerations, as those have emerged in the relevant literature, to finally arrive at a fully-fledged research design that will inform the data collection, analysis and discussion that form the basis of this study.

The discussion of the relevant literature in Chapter Two (i) has highlighted the need for further research into some areas of washback – particularly, in this case washback on actual teaching practices and (ii) has called attention to some of the issues and concerns already raised in washback studies (see e.g. Alderson and Wall's (1993) criticism of Hughes' methodology). These two focus points have been taken into consideration in this research design.

3.2 Research Questions

The main purpose of this research is to examine washback on teachers' teaching practices within the context of multi-exam preparation classes, with special reference to teaching strategies, activities and tasks. The present study aims to develop an understanding of (i) the nature of washback on teaching practices during two teaching terms, and (ii) the reasons why participants use specific teaching practices during each term. To achieve this twofold aim, the study first identifies the types of teaching practices that teachers use when teaching multi-exam classes and confirms whether washback on teaching practices exists. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) stress that to understand exam teaching more fully, comparative studies produce better insights as to its special features. This is reinforced by Hayes and Read (2004) who state that the inclusion of comparison is a common feature of studies on washback effects. Within this framework, alongside the multi-exam classes, one-exam classes were also included in the investigation for the purpose of comparison, evaluation and exploration.

The study addressed the following central research question:

Does the multi-exam context influence the teaching practices used by teachers? If yes, how?

A set of more explicit sub-questions were formulated in order to guide the data collection process in seeking the answer to the main research question of the thesis.

1. What kind of teaching practices do teachers use in multi-exam classes? Are there any differences between the first and second term?

The reason for asking this question was that in order to study the washback effect of multi-exam classes in more depth there was a need to see what happens in these classes and find out what teaching practices teachers use. Therefore, the study needed to look at the frontistirio's exam preparation year as a whole – ie. both the first and second term, and establish as far as possible the teaching practices teachers use throughout the whole year.

This may usefully be further sub-divided into three sub-questions:

- 1a. What is the content of multi-exam classes?
- 1b. What activities and tasks do teachers use? If present, what are the differences between the first and second term and between multi and one-exam classes?
- 1c. What teaching strategies do teachers use? If present, what are the differences between the first and second term and between multi and one-exam classes?

The afore-mentioned questions will be investigated on the basis of the following aspects of teaching practices and strategies:

Organization pattern

- whether the teacher engages in work with the whole class or not;
- whether students are divided into pairs/groups or engage in individual work;
- whether students work with or without supervision.

Language Use

- whether teachers use Greek or English as the language of instruction and whether there is a certain pattern to the use of L1 vs. L2

Feedback

- the kinds of feedback students receive (e.g. individual vs. whole class)

Classroom Atmosphere

- the classroom atmosphere is examined to establish whether teachers or students are stressed and whether laughter takes place.

2. What is the nature and scope of the washback effect on teachers' teaching practices in multi-exam classes?

The aspects of teaching that will be studied include:

- the content of the exam-preparation classes -focus on activities and tasks;
- the teaching strategies – i.e. use of L1 vs L2, organizational patterns, work mode, feedback, and class atmosphere;
- the teaching strategies in relation to content and classroom management;
- teachers' attitudes towards multi-exams classes.

3. How do teachers decide on the teaching practices they use in multi-exam classes?

This is defined as what factors influence teachers to teach the multi-exam classes.

The following aspects will be investigated in order to answer the question above:

- the factors that affect teachers' choices;
- the factors that affect the tasks and activities teacher's use;
- the factors that affect the teaching strategies teachers' use;
- the reasons why the teaching practices teachers use might differ between terms and type of classes.

3.3 Washback Research Methods: Considerations based on Existing Literature

Before examining methods used in washback studies, the benefits and drawbacks of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis are discussed, as those were considered when choosing the appropriate research methods for this study. According to Dörnyei (2007), qualitative and quantitative approaches are regarded as two different research paradigms. Mackey and Gass describe the distinction between the two types of research as follows:

Quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design in which a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data and some sort of numerical analysis is carried out (e.g., a study comparing student test results before and after an instructional treatment). Qualitative studies, on the other hand, generally are not set up as experiments; the data cannot be easily quantified (e.g., a diary study in which a student keeps track of her attitudes during a year-long Japanese language course), and the analysis is interpretive rather than statistical (2005, p.2)

While the distinction might appear relatively straight-forward initially – i.e. quantitative research engages in numbers, qualitative research engages in interpretation, as Richards (2005) points out, the distinction is not often clear, as, for example, quantitative researchers also collect non-numerical data and as such “qualitative and quantitative data do not inhabit different worlds. They are different ways of recording observations of the same world (2005, p. 36).

Nonetheless, different disciplines tend to favour different research methods, based mostly on the data they use. Qualitative research dominates in the field of educational research since it generates descriptive data which can enhance the understanding of EFL teaching and learning. However, it has been criticised mainly for the potential lack of objectivity because the interpretation of the results depends on the researcher’s point of view and might appear biased. This limitation is not an issue in quantitative research in which numerical data is collected and analysed, thus rendering this type of research more ‘objective’ (Dörnyei, 2007). Nevertheless, a mere analysis of numerical results does not allow a more detailed view of the context, which was a major prerequisite for the present study. In addition, there is an underlying similarity between quantitative and qualitative research and that is the fact that empirical observations are part of both types of research. So the researcher is in a better position to tackle his/her research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As a result, it was deemed necessary to employ both methods in the present study because of its comparative nature and for the purpose of triangulation.

This mixed method research data collection procedure, as Dörnyei (2007) states, can measure different facets of a phenomenon since it can illustrate, elaborate on and clarify certain aspects. In addition, it can produce complementary results (initiation function) or allow the researcher to expand the scope and the breadth of a study. Mixed methods research also lends itself to avoiding dogmatism inasmuch as its use renders the study less restricting and constraining (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It is also a fact that both qualitative and quantitative researchers make sure that their questions are safeguarded against bias or other sources of invalidity which are inherent in any study (Sandelowski, 1986). Furthermore, it can greatly help researchers to direct methodologists towards the development of such techniques which are in par with the ones the former actually use when they conduct research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Wall and Alderson (1993, p. 63) also corroborate this view, stating that “observations on their own cannot give a full account of what is happening

in classrooms”, so classroom observations should be complemented with teacher interviews, questionnaires and analysis of materials. It was deemed appropriate for this study to employ the mixed method research data collection procedure so as to investigate the different facets of washback effect in combination with teaching practices.

Therefore, on the one hand, a qualitative inquiry was undertaken as this study seeks to describe what teaching practices teachers use in multi-exam classes, their perspectives and beliefs behind their choices and the way of teaching. Another major concern of the study is the influence of testing (washback effect) on teacher’s teaching practices. To that end, interviews, observations and stimulated recalls were used as these three methods complement each other and could be integrated relatively easily in practice. On the other hand, a statistical and quantitative approach was used for the purpose of comparison – comparison between two teachers and between two classes. This also allowed the testing of elements that emerged from the qualitative phase and the investigation of the generalisability of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007).

An additional benefit deriving from the mixed method data collection and analysis is that it encompasses cross examination mechanisms, often referred to as triangulation, and can thus provide complementary data so as to approach an issue from different angles. Thus, it can compensate for the weaknesses of a method and instill confidence in the researcher’s findings (Denscombe, 2007). This additional benefit of the mixed method data collection and analysis can ensure that research questions are better addressed, which was yet another important consideration when this method was chosen. Finally, this study follows the “exploratory sequential design” of the mixed method research family, which allows the researcher to develop a qualitative phase, in this case the questionnaire, using the qualitative results (Turner, 2015, p.1).

These considerations are all validated in the relevant washback literature, which will now be relayed. As established in Chapter 2, given this study’s emphasis on teachers and teaching strategies, the washback concepts and models that are relevant to this study are:

- Hughes’ (1993) distinction between *products*, and *processes* – as already mentioned in the previous chapter, this study focuses on the teacher as *participant* and teaching strategies and practices as well as classroom atmosphere as *processes*. Emphasis on these two to a certain extent dictates specific aspects and therefore methods that will be employed in data collection.

- Cheng's model (2005), which relates teacher and students' classroom behavior and conduct to the curriculum, which is in its turn determined by the exams.
- Glover's (2006) detailed model of washback on teacher practices. Pivotal, with the incorporation of teacher talk in his model, Glover's model takes into account a variety of factors, urging the researcher to examine different aspects of washback, such as teacher's previous experience and background, specific tasks and activities employed in class, as well as the exams, to a great extent capturing the phenomenon on multiple levels.

Hence, this study is carried out at different levels within a specific English language school (frontistirio) in the Greek town of Nafpaktos. Based on the models above, these levels include: (i) exam classes' organisation; (ii) multi-exam and one-exam teaching contexts; (iii) teachers' feelings and attitudes; (iv) teaching practices; (v) first and second study terms; and (vi) classroom atmosphere. Based on the observations and findings of a variety of washback studies researchers, the mixed method research data collection procedure employed in this study is further vindicated. This method combines both qualitative and quantitative methods, and can maximise the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both these methods (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As Chen relates, there is a growing consensus among academics in washback and test validity about the need to collect evidence from various stakeholders using multiple methods (2013, p. 10). Two principal methods that have been consistently employed in washback studies are what Bailey (1999) calls "watching and asking" – i.e. observation and interviews:

If the core of any definition of washback has to do with the effects of tests on learning and teaching, then it is necessary to document those effects - both by asking about and by watching teaching and learning (Bailey, 1999, p. 36).

Hughes' (1988) study which did not include one of these main components (i.e. observation) was criticized as incomplete from a methodological perspective (see Alderson and Wall 1993). In a washback study that reported on the impact of tests on exam pressure as well as lesson planning and delivery, Herman and Golan (1993) also opted for questionnaires as a method for data collection without including class observations. As Bailey points out, however, without observation "we do not know **how** such pressure influences teaching, **in what ways** tests influence planning and delivery, **how much time** is spent preparing students for testing, and **what kind of attention** is given to those subject areas that are not covered

in the tests” (1999, p. 36; my emphasis). As the highlighted above concern the ‘texture’ and nature of washback, what is strikingly implied by Bailey’s above observation is that the distinction between whether “washback exist[s]” and what [...] washback look[s] like” (Alderson 2004, p. ix) might lie in the methodological approaches taken to investigating the phenomenon. Therefore, apart from questionnaires – depending on whose design, quantifiable results can be yielded, interviews and observations are instrumental for a qualitative analysis. However, these should be made to complement each other and be designed in such a way that renders valid and comparable results. Wall and Alderson (1993), for example note that without observation they would not have known if the exam had an impact on methodology and without interviews they would not have known why (p. 65). Pivotaly, design and structure plays a very important role in research design and methodology. As a case in point, Watanabe (2008) has highlighted the importance of pre and post-observation interviews to reveal any inconsistencies in teachers’ intentions and observations after implementation (p. 31). As such, even if a research project employs a given method, the manner in which it will be implemented (e.g. pre or post observation interviews, open-ended or structured interviews) bears an impact on the results.

With regards to the study at hand, the intention is to look into the teaching practices teachers use in multi-exam contexts and to explore washback effects, focusing on perceptions, values, and situational factors in the complex and varying situations of frontistiria. The research design of the study, therefore, needs to capture the whole picture of multi-exam classes. The methods called upon include class observation, teacher interviews and questionnaires. The latter two have already been discussed as encountered in relevant literature. I now turn my attention to questionnaires.

Depending on the design, questionnaires can be used to collect both qualitative as well as quantitative data, rendering them a quite flexible means of data collection, applicable to different types of research across a variety of academic fields (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 96). Also, there are two types of questionnaire items that can be employed in research: closed and open-ended. A closed-item question involves the subject choosing from a pre-determined set of possible answers, whereas an open-ended question involves subjects answering in any manner they deem appropriate (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 93). In the case of the former, answers can be more easily interpreted as they can be quantified – these types of questions are, therefore associated with greater reliability (ibid.).

Mackey and Gass (2005) further call attention to the inherent impediments that often undermine the use of questionnaires in data collection. One important concern is that accurate responses, particularly in open-ended items might be difficult to elicit when it comes to “internal phenomena such as perceptions and attitudes” due to e.g. completion of questionnaires in subjects’ non-native language or inability to relay an accurate picture of reality (2005, p. 96). To guard against any possibility of invalid results, in this case the questionnaires were designed on the basis of closed- ended questions and comprehension was guaranteed. Questionnaires were an indispensable tool of this study as in many washback studies that address a variety of factors as per Wall and Anderson’s conclusion that “observations and interviews, questionnaires, [and] discussions necessarily complement each other in studies of this type” (1993, p. 65). Finally, taking into account Bailey’s emphasis on the additional benefit of stimulated recall (see e.g. Johnson, 1992; Nunan 1996), this study also draws on this method (Bailey, 1999, p. 37).

Finally, one parameter that has emerged in a few studies, yet is consequential to securing valid findings on washback is that of time. Though this is not a longitudinal study, time is studied in terms of more relaxed and more intense exam preparation periods taking into account Xie and Andrews’s differentiation between the two (2012, p. 13) and Tsagari’s findings of more intense washback during intense preparation periods (2006). During both terms and involve all teachers teaching these classes. Therefore, in order to opt for relevant and valid results, apart from a comparative study across teachers and across types of exam classes, this study further draws comparisons between two study terms. To recap, as can be seen in Figure 3.1, the study involves first of all a comparison between two teachers teaching multi-exam classes (ME), with their teaching practices being studied, and subsequently compared for both terms of the school year. The second comparison concerned each individual teacher’s teaching practices between the multi-exam (ME) and the one-exam (OE) classes they were responsible for.

	Teacher 1		Teacher 2
Multi-exam 1 st Term		← compared to →	
Multi-exam 2 nd Term		← compared to →	
	↑ compared to ↓		↑ compared to ↓
One-exam 1 st Term		← compared to →	
One-exam 2 nd Term		← compared to →	

Figure 3.1: Comparative Design in classroom observation

3.4 Research Design

In an effort to adopt both quantitative and qualitative approaches, a case-study method was selected as the most appropriate research design for this research because of the complex washback phenomenon and the fact that research would be undertaken in the context of the classroom. More specifically, the case study was adopted due to the characteristics of the setting (i.e. the classroom), the number of participants under scrutiny (i.e. two teachers) and the nature of the data which was predominately qualitative. Like ethnographies, case studies generally aim to provide a holistic description of language learning or use within a specific population and setting. However, whereas ethnographies focus on cultural patterns within groups, case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 171).

Mackey and Gass move on to discuss the advantages of case studies, which regard the fact that they allow to focus on the individual “in a way that is rarely possible in group research” (2005, p. 172) quoting Johnson’s characterization of case studies in L2 research as “privileged” (1993, p. 7 in Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 172). However, the focus points that render the case study the most suitable research framework for the study at hand is the fact that case studies (i) can be conducted with various learners or teachers, (ii) allow for the complexities of a particular context to emerge, (iii) enable comparisons and contrasts of participant behaviours and contexts (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 172). Finally, this study’s aim is to come up with a washback model for teaching strategies, which can be generalizable. The specific findings of the case study, however, which concern the specific teachers and

exam courses are tentative, to be confirmed and refined by a future longitudinal study, but put the washback model to the test.

Merriam (1998) corroborates the value of case studies in studying the complexities of a given context, discussing the idea of bringing an understanding of a complex issue or object and examining multiple potential variables as the main features of case studies. In addition, case studies are in line with teacher thinking research (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003), which is also the case with the present study.

The naturalness of the context is another reason why a case study was used in this research. Case studies are conducted mainly in natural contexts and involve real people in real situations (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Since the purpose of this study was to describe and evaluate an educational phenomenon, namely the multi-exam context, it was best to conduct it in a natural setting. An additional consideration in favour of using a case study was the fact that in order to answer the questions of this study in depth and understand the problem, a variety of data collection methods, such as interviews, observations, stimulated recalls and questionnaires were required. Actually, a case study is a research method that involves a number of data collection measures such as interviews, direct observation, participant observation, documentation, archival records and physical artefacts (Yin, 2003). This is also confirmed by Dörnyei, 2007, p. 152). Figure 3.2 clearly presents the triangulation research design (research procedures and data collection instruments) of this study.

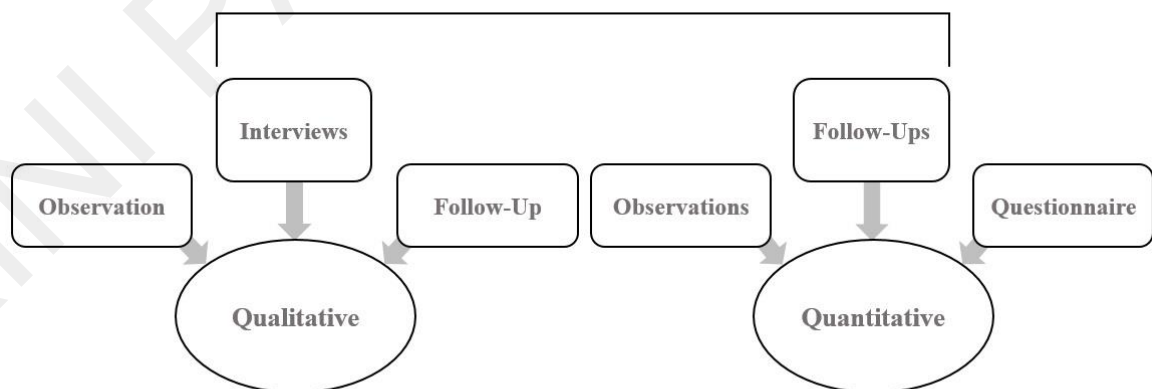


Figure 3.2: Triangulation Research Design

More specifically, observations and interviews comprise the qualitative part of the research design, whereas observations coupled with questionnaires and the necessary follow-ups make up the quantitative part of the research design. These aspects are discussed in detail in the following section.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The following table presents the instruments used in this study in relation to the data they were used to collect.

Table 3.1: Research Questions and Data Collection Instruments Used

Research Focus	Research Questions	Data Collection Instruments
Teaching Practices	What kind of teaching practices do teachers use in multi-exam classes? Are there any differences between the 1st and 2nd term?	
	1. What is the content of multi-exam classes?	Observations
	2. What activities and tasks do teachers use? Amount of tasks and activities teachers use.	Observations & Questionnaire
	3. What teaching strategies do teachers use?	Observations & Questionnaire
Washback Effect	What is the nature and scope of the washback effect on teachers' teaching practices in multi-exam classes?	
	1. What is the nature of washback? Positive or Negative?	Observations, Interviews & Questionnaire
	2. What is the scope of washback?	Observations, Interviews & Questionnaire
	3. What is the role of examinations to the teaching practices that teachers use?	Observations, Interviews & Questionnaire
Factors affecting Teachers' choices	How do teachers decide on the teaching practices they use in multi-exam classes?	Follow-Ups, Interviews & Questionnaire

1. What are the factors that affect teachers' choices?	Follow-Ups, Interviews & Questionnaire
2. Why the teaching strategies teachers use differ between terms and between teachers?	Follow-Ups, Interviews & Questionnaire

3.5.1 Interviews

Interviews in this study were used (i) to collect information on washback direction, intensity and scope, (ii) to assess the nature of exam influence on teaching practices, both of which relate to the nature of exam washback and scope on teaching practices; and to (iii) illuminate the factors that affect teacher choices as well as (iv) determine the reason why teaching strategies varied between terms and teachers, which relate to the decision-making processes of teachers in the multi-exam preparation context.

Interviewing allows us to enter into the other person's perspective. Patton states that "we interview to find out what is in and on someone else's mind, to gather their stories" (2002, p. 341). Thus, the interviews provided ample opportunities to get to know the participants of the study, have face-to-face exchanges with them and explore their views about the complexity of washback effects on teaching practices in multi-exam classes in more detail. More specifically, these interviews provided an opportunity for the teachers to describe their teaching and the rationale behind their choices of teaching strategies, activities and tasks both in a multi-exam class and in a one-exam class, and to express their views about multi-exam classes.

The first interview, which took place before the observations, and the second interview, conducted after the observations, had different aims. In particular, the first interview took place two days before the classroom observations and the second interview one day after the last classroom observation. The first interview served as the initial contact with the participants in order to understand their work and their choices. The second interview was geared towards clarifying some observed practices as well as discussing anything that the participants did not have the chance to clearly show throughout the whole process. This served as an opportunity to validate findings and conclusions from the observations and follow-ups (see Appendix III). All interviews were video-recorded and subsequently transcribed in full, and the responses were analysed qualitatively with the help of Atlas.ti (Muhr and Freise, 2004), a computer software for qualitative analysis.

There are three main types of interviews based on the manner of data collection: structured; unstructured and semi-structured interviews. In structured interviews, the participants have to follow a pre-prepared interview script which restricts the interviewee and, therefore and inhibits flexibility and variation in question and response (Dörnyei, 2007). Unstructured interviews allow maximum flexibility since the interviewer follows no prescribed script. Consequently, the participants are free to express themselves, making it difficult for the interviewer to keep the discussion focused on the research questions and render answers quantifiable (Dörnyei, 2007; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). For the present study, the semi-structured scheme was preferred to achieve a balance between answering the research questions through pre-prepared guiding questions and allowing the interviewer the freedom to elaborate, where necessary. This scheme facilitated gaining insight into the participants' understanding of the teaching process and controlling the interview process as to its content and duration. After all, a semi-structured interview is designed to probe in depth and in detail the underlying factors which lead to the interviewees' teaching and learning practices (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

All of the interview questions were derived from the relevant literature review (Tzagari, 2011; Cheng, 1997; Wall and Horak, 2007; Hayes and Read, 2004), the research focus and the research questions. The interviews were conducted in English and they consisted of four sections (see Appendix II). The first section involved the participant's own teaching qualifications, experience and general views on exams. Section 2 elicited more detailed information about ordinary teaching: what teaching strategies teachers use; what activities and tasks they use; and what affects their choices. Section 3 explored the teaching strategies and types of tasks and activities used in multi-exam classes in both terms. Teachers were asked to make comparisons between the two terms and talk about how their choices were affected. Section 4 elicited the participants' opinions about multi-exam classes. Teachers were asked to comment on the positive and negative aspects of multi-exam classes, the differences they perceive between multi-exam and one-exam classes, their views on such classes and the influence of the exams on such classes.

Before conducting the interviews, they were piloted four times on two teachers working in my frontistirio, who taught both multi-exam and one-exam classes. The teachers who piloted all the instruments of my study had a similar profile to the participants of my study. During the pilot, the interviewees were asked to trial the questions by answering them and were also

invited to comment on any issues that emerged during the interviews. The purpose was to determine whether the questions were understood as intended. There were more questions in the original design, raising the mean interview completion time to just over an hour. Teachers found this exhausting and demotivating so some questions were excluded due to relevance or repetition. Thus, the duration for each interview decreased to 30-45 minutes. Also, it was a chance for me to practice and improve my skills in conducting interviews.

3.5.2 Classroom Observations

Observations were used in this thesis to examine (i) the content of multi-exam classes, (ii) the type and volume of activities and tasks employed in class, as well as (iii) the teaching strategies teachers used – all of which relate to the teaching practices teachers use and their diversity between terms; and (iv) to gather information on washback direction, intensity and scope and finally (v) to assess the nature of exam influence on teaching practices, both of which relate to the nature of exam washback and scope on teaching practices.

Observations provide direct information and are thus selected in educational research to obtain information on the teaching and learning process and the interaction taking place in the class (Dörnyei, 2005, Cohen et al, 2005). Observations can move “beyond perception-based data” and thus discover things that participants did not express or did not feel free to talk about in the interviews (Cohen et al, 2005). Observations can be categorised according to the degree of the observer’s involvement into “participant” and “nonparticipant” observation, as well as according to the quantitative and qualitative distinction in observational terms into “structured” and “unstructured” observation (Dörnyei, 2005, Cohen et al, 2005). For the present study, I chose to be a nonparticipant observer because the aim was to observe the participants in their natural context without my interference. In addition, structured observations were selected for this study so as to secure specific information in relation to the research focus and classroom context.

Two data collection facilities were used to carry out the observations: video- tapping, for which the participants’ consent was ensured, and a coding scheme. More specifically, the first part of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme was used (Spada and Fröhlich, 1995). COLT was designed to investigate features of CLT in different language classrooms and comprises of two parts. Part A requires the observer to make detailed real-time notes on activities and episodes occurring during the observed lessons and the time taken for each of them. Part B emphasises the linguistic

features of classroom talk, based on the video or audio recorded tape, which was not the focus of the research. COLT was used as a reference, so not all seven categories were included, and since the focus was limited to teaching strategies, activities and tasks, only time, activities and episodes were used, as well as participant organisation, not exactly in the same form as given by Spada and Fröhlich (1995). More specifically, the observation scheme consisted of three parts, namely one on tasks, one on activities and a main one on teaching strategies (see Appendix IV). It also included boxes referring to exams and there was an extra space for notes and questions which were deemed important to ask in the follow-up interviews.

The observation scheme was piloted in multi-exam classes at my frontistirio both by me and by one of the teachers. The teacher piloted the interview questions as well (Section 3.6.1), so she was already acquainted with the focus of the study. She was observed and she observed me during two weeks (3 two-hour classes). This pilot study helped me to practice how to observe and use the observation scheme properly as well as how to use the digital voice recorder and the camera, and make some corrections of the observation scheme - mainly how to record time in connection with the activities and tasks.

3.5.3 Stimulated Recalls (Follow-up Interviews)

Observations alone, however, provide insufficient insight into teachers' beliefs, hence the use of follow-up interviews after each observation. The aim of the follow-up interviews is to understand why participants use the specific teaching practices in each term and what influences their choices (Yin, 2010).

Post-observational interviews based on stimulated recall procedures are significant in investigating teachers' thoughts since "they produce data on mental processes by using more or less direct probes of teachers' thoughts, judgments or decisions" (Fang, 1996, p. 56). Since the aim of this study was not only to gather information on what happens in multi-exam classes and on teachers' teaching practices but also to understand and measure teachers' perceptions - in other words what teachers, think, know, and believe about the teaching practices they use (Borg, 2003), follow-up interviews were used. Tsagari (2012) further highlights the importance of using post-observational interviews to "shed more light on the teaching practices" (p. 47).

Each follow-up interview was conducted after the end of every lesson in order to seek the teachers' views on the lesson, the activities they used and the rationale for the decisions made before and during the lesson. There was an effort to conduct the stimulated recalls immediately after the lessons so as to keep the quality of the retrospective data high (Mackey and Gass, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005). Video recordings were also used since they are considered superior and can provide more valuable information (Dörnyei, 2005). I watched the video recorded lesson with the participants, using the observation scheme, in order to help them with the recall. Considering that teachers had been teaching for five hours before the follow-up interviews, the notes on the observation scheme were used to focus on specific tasks on the video rather than watch it in its entirety. Some guided questions were then used to explore the teachers' thinking and encourage them to reflect on events rather than simply recall them. Even though some of the questions used in the pilot study were kept as a guidance, they were not followed precisely. Recalling specific classroom events is not easy for the teachers especially when they are exposed to many classroom situations every week. Also, conducting the stimulated recalls exactly after the lessons put stress on the teachers who were tired. So, I decided to mostly follow the teachers rather than the guided questions as it was more motivating and relaxing for them. Teachers were asked questions on how and why they did what they did and what influenced their choices. They were even asked to compare between the first and the second term of study as well as on differences between multi-exam and one-exam classes. Also, teachers were given the freedom to choose the language to use in the interview, because the teacher in the pilot study claimed that she felt more relaxed and expressive when she could choose the language.

The stimulated recall questions and discussion became progressively more focused over time as more and more observations were conducted. In fact, more lessons than planned were observed in order to use stimulated recalls that included significant data.

For validation reasons, copies of transcripts and a digital copy of the recordings of the lessons were sent to the teachers for their own reference. Teachers were satisfied with the results which they found interesting. Teachers commented on the whole research procedure in the second interview as well. Their comments can be considered supportive, motivating and positive for the research since both teachers found the topic inspiring. They commented that the preparation for the exams was so hectic that they were not affected by the researcher's presence at all.

3.5.4 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to examine (i) the type and volume of activities and tasks employed in class, as well as (ii) the teaching strategies teachers used – both of which relate to the teaching practices teachers use and their diversity between terms; (iii) to gather information on washback direction, intensity and scope and (iv) to assess the nature of exam influence on teaching practices, both of which relate to the nature of exam washback and scope on teaching practices. Finally, they were used to assess (v) the factors that influenced teachers' choices and to explore the reasons behind the perceived diversity between the teaching strategies employed in each term.

Questionnaires are considered to be the only feasible way to collect data from a potentially large number of subjects or when the population is widely distributed (Dörnyei, 2005). Although the study had succeeded in gaining in-depth information on the influence of exams on teaching practices, the administration of a questionnaire was deemed necessary so that the results become generalizable and in order to “further explore the quality of the findings” (Turner, 2015, p. 2).

The questionnaire was based on the findings of the observations and follow-up interviews. It was distributed to English teachers around Greece via Survey Monkey (<https://www.surveymonkey.com/>), an online platform used to distribute and collect data according to the needs of the research. It was sent to all PALSO (Panhellenic Federation of Language School Owners) federations across Greece and it was uploaded on facebook accounts of universities in Greece and accounts related to English teaching in Greece. Participation in this study was entirely voluntary and anonymous.

The questionnaire was trialed to obtain information regarding the construct validity, reliability and clarity of the items and the amount of time required to complete. The two teachers who had piloted the interview questions and the observation scheme were also involved in the piloting of the questionnaire. As both these teachers teach multi-exam and one-exam classes, they are “people who are similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for” as Dörnyei (2005, p. 53) suggests. The questionnaire was followed by a box which included questions on the ambiguity, clarity, difficulty of the questions, the overall appearance, the length of time and the number of questions, as presented by Dörnyei (2005).

It was deemed necessary to focus the questionnaire on one aspect of the research, namely teachers' beliefs and perspectives, as well as on the factors that influence their choices regarding the selection of exams and teaching practices when teaching multi-exam classes. The reason for focusing on this particular section of the research was, first of all, the fact that it was an effective way to cross-check the equivalent results from the observational data, and secondly because it was believed that such teachers' views contribute more to conclusions about the potential washback effect. The questionnaire consisted of four parts with 26 items (see Appendix V). Part 1 included demographic information about the teacher participants, while Part 2 focused on how teachers select exams and organise exam classes. Part 3 focused on the factors that influence teachers' teaching practices. Part 4 included questions on washback. Most of the questions were multiple-choice, where more than one answers could be selected for some of them, or Likert-scale questions, including five points which ranged from 'extremely important' to 'not very important', so that quantifiable data could be obtained to facilitate triangulation.

3.6 Research Context

Preceding the data analysis section which relates the relevant information rendered by each research instrument discussed above, a description of the research context is in order. This section, therefore, provides information on the school (frontistirio) selection, describes the basic structure and nature of the two classes observed, and offers a profile of the teachers and students involved. The term 'class' is used to refer to either multi-exam or one-exam classes in general, while the term 'lesson' is used to refer to what took place during instruction.

3.6.1 Selection of School and Teachers

In selecting the research sample, the aim was to maximize the comparability of the lessons by identifying similar level-classes. Therefore, two or three teachers in the same school, teaching either multi-exam classes or one-exam classes and/or non-exam classes in the same year were selected. A prerequisite was to identify teachers with similar qualifications and experience to reduce the possibility of the teacher factor interference – i.e. background knowledge, education, experience, etc.

In order to identify the most suitable research setting for this study, schools in different regions across Greece were contacted in order to enquire about their teachers (i.e. education and experience) and the nature of the classes offered. The researcher's city of residence, which is Agrinio, was excluded to avoid bias.

The attempt to find frontistiria that satisfied the above criteria often met with difficulties. Some of the difficulties were that they did not offer any non-exam or one-exam classes; or that a single teacher taught the multi-exam classes; or, finally, that different teachers taught the multi-exam classes and the one-exam classes – and thus would not allow for comparable results. Practical problems like these and the fact that there were not any schools, to my knowledge, teaching non-exam classes of B2 level limited my choices. Financial crisis had brought a lot of changes and difficulties in frontistiria making the owners hesitant and my work harder.

3.6.2 Research site

The school that was finally chosen is a frontistirio in a provincial town, west of Greece, called Nafaktos. The school has been in operation for more than 40 years, enjoying considerable prestige in the area mainly due to its remarkable success rates in exams. The owner, who had served for years as the president of the Panhellenic Federation of Language School Owners of Aitolokarnania, has extensive experience in both exam-oriented teaching and administration. The school offers both English and French classes and classes of all levels from Junior to proficiency (C2 level). It has a computer lab, to which students have access, and all classes are equipped with interactive whiteboards. Most importantly, this frontistirio offers both multi-exam classes and one-exam classes taught by the same teachers, which fell in line with the focus of the present study in terms of both comparing different types of exam classes and comparing different teaching practices.

3.6.3 Selection of Classes and Lessons

The two examination classes in the frontistirio consisted of students who would be participating in B2 level exams. More specifically, in the multi-exam class, the students were interested in taking three of the fifteen available ESOL examinations – namely, Pearson's PTE General exams former London Tests of English (Edexcel) Level 3, the University of Michigan (ECCE) and the Test of Interactive English (TIE). The content of these exams is presented in detail in Section 1.4.2.1. Students would choose the certificate or certificates

they would opt for after the end of January in other words at the end of the first term when the deadline for applications was approaching. In the one-exam class, the students were interested in the TIE examination. The TIE was suggested to the specific students because of the limited preparation time they had (namely 9 months) and due to their perceived lower language level. Students and teachers chose TIE also because they can choose most of the materials on which they will be examined on and due to the fact that assessment is based on two skills: speaking and writing.

Both classes had 6 hours of lessons per week, namely two-hour lessons three times a week. Each teacher taught each class for three hours. The lessons included grammar, vocabulary, writing, listening, speaking and reading skills. There were also some lessons during which teachers checked grammar and vocabulary exercises found in the course book. The multi-exam class included mainly junior high school students who had been taught English for 6 years, and the one-exam class included senior high school students and adults (20 years old). The one-exam class students had a relatively lower level of competence than the multi-exam class ones, since their study of English had been interrupted for approximately two to three years.

As for ensuring the consent of the students with respect to the study, the owner of the school asked for and received the students' agreement before the observed lessons. I also made sure to familiarize myself with the students through an informal talk about my presence in their classes. The junior high school students (the multi-exam class) were really excited about my presence there, whereas the one-exam group did not show excitement but found it interesting. Students were reassured that they would not be recorded on camera, and both teachers were reassured that the students' performance both in class and during the examinations would not be affected by the observations.

3.6.4 Participants

Teacher 2 is the owner of the school. She is Greek-American with a degree in English Literature, and has been living and teaching English in Greece for 40 years. She also served as president of the Panhellenic Federation of Language School Owners of Aitolokarnania (PALSO) for 12 years. In fact, she was one of the founders of PALSO in Greece. Teacher 1 has been teaching in the specific frontistirio for the last 17 years, especially exam-preparation classes, while she had previous experience before that. She grew up in the U.S.A. and came to Greece in 1991. She has a C2 level English language certificate from the

University of Michigan, and has attended several seminars and workshops on English language exams.

Consent was sought from both teachers for their participation in the study, and they were both guaranteed confidentiality inasmuch as the teachers and the school would not be referred to by name. It was also agreed upon that the teachers would be provided with copies of recordings and transcripts, as well as the reported findings on completion of the study.

3. 7 Data collection procedures and data analysis

Data collection took place during both school terms – namely, in November for the first term and in April for the second term. In the first term, data collection started with interviews and then classroom observations and follow-up interviews (stimulated recalls), and the second term started with observations and follow-up interviews. Then, the last interview followed and finally the questionnaires were completed.

		Description of the task
1 Pilot Study	October 2013	Interview questions, classroom observation scheme and follow-up questions were piloted.
2 Initial Interview	4-8 November 2013	Acquaintance with the teachers and students, familiarization with the school and interviews with the teachers.
3 Classroom Observations and Follow-up Interviews	11 November 2013 - 07 December 2013 <i>First Term</i>	Classroom observations, video recordings and follow-up interviews with the teachers after the observations. Analysis of the results.
4 Classroom Observations and Follow-up Interviews	31 March 2014 -12 April 2014 <i>Second Term</i>	Classroom observations, video recordings and follow-up interviews with the teachers after the observations. Analysis of the results.
5 Last Interviews:	13-14 April 2014	Interviews with Teachers
6 Questionnaire	5-27 January 2015-22 May 2015	Distribution of the questionnaire
Stages		
Method		

Figure 3.3: Data Collection Stages

3.7.1 Interviews

In this study the general perspective of the teachers was considered to be of particular importance. The first interviews were conducted in November 2013 and the final one in

April 2014 after the last class observations took place. Their nature, however, was different. More specifically, the first interviews with the two teachers were conducted prior to the observations according to a specific schedule agreed with them. The aim was to generate some raw data and general beliefs about their teaching and exams for both terms (see Appendix II). The purpose of the final interviews was to reassess teachers' beliefs about the exams and their teaching practices, as well as the research procedure as a whole (see Appendix III). The first two interviews lasted approximately 40 minutes and the two final ones 15 to 20 minutes (table 3.3). Both interviews were video recorded and subsequently transcribed with the responses analysed qualitatively using Atlas.ti.

Table 3.2: Hours of Interviews

Initial Interview	
4-8 November 2013	
Teacher 1: 45:53 minutes	BOTH TEACHERS
Teacher 2: 40:00 minutes	
<hr/>	
Last Interview	
13-14 April 2014	
Teacher 1: 14:24 minutes	BOTH TEACHERS
Teacher 2: 10:81 minutes	

Methods of analysis of the interview and the observational data differed although both sets of data were deemed as qualitative. Topic/thematic coding was used to analyze the interviews according to the categories previously used to design the interview questions and according to recurring issues (repetitive or similar frequently appearing ideas) or key items (closely related ideas) that were linked to the research questions. A coded scheme was prepared for the analysis of some of the data. However, new information from a detailed analysis of the text was added while coding the documents in Atlas.ti. The data was later collated into broad themes based on the interview questions and the framework, and these themes were then divided into sub-themes and sub-categories. The connection of the teachers' responses with the observation data, the stimulated recalls and the main key words (teaching strategies, activities, tasks and washback) was made after having coded everything.

3.7.2 Classroom observations

Classroom observations were also carried out in November 2013 and April 2014. Two teachers teaching both the multi-exam and the one-exam classes during the same period were

observed. A total of 48 lessons were observed, 24 lessons for each teacher in each term (Table 3.4). However, only 24 lessons in each term were used due to (i) poor sound quality in some of the recordings; (ii) teachers' request due to health issues (e.g. illness, allergies); (iii) the repetitive nature of some lessons (i.e. mock exams); and finally (iv) when the follow-up interviews were performed on the next day rather than immediately after the lesson.

Table 3.3: Total Lessons and Hours of Classroom Observations

	1st term	2nd term
	Classroom Observations	Classroom Observations
	11/11/2013- 07/12/2013	31/03/2014 – 12/04/2014
Multi-exam & one-exam classes	TOTAL: multi-exam class (ME): 12 lessons	TOTAL: multi-exam class (ME): 11 lessons
	TOTAL: one-exam class (OE): 12 lessons	TOTAL: one-exam class (OE): 12 lessons
	<i>Approximately 1 hour each lesson</i>	<i>Approximately 1 hour each lesson</i>
	Used: multi-exam class: 6 lessons / 304,48 mins. one-exam class: 6 lessons / 300,57 mins.	Used: multi-exam class: 6 lessons / 272,38 mins. one-exam class: 6 lessons / 221,78mins.
Teacher 1 & Teacher 2	Teacher 1: ME: 3 lessons: 154,21mins. Teacher 1: OE: 3 lessons: 99,9mins. TOTAL T1: 254,11mins.	Teacher 1: ME: 3 lessons: 162,51mins. Teacher 1: OE: 3 lessons: 135,05mins. TOTAL: 297,56mins.
	Teacher 2: ME: 3 lessons: 150,27mins. Teacher 2: OE: 3 lessons: 151,68mins. TOTAL T2: 301,95mins.	Teacher 2: ME: 3 lessons: 109,87mins. Teacher 2: OE: 3 lessons: 99,82mins. TOTAL: 209,69mins.
	TOTAL multi-exam class: 304,48mins. TOTAL one-exam class: 251,58mins	TOTAL multi-exam class: 272,38mins. TOTAL one-exam class: 234,87mins.
	TOTAL: 556,06mins.	TOTAL: 507,25mins.
	TOTAL multi-exam class: 576,86mins. TOTAL Teacher 1: 551,67mins.	TOTAL one-exam class: 486,45mins. TOTAL Teacher 2: 511,64mins.
Both terms		

24 lessons were observed in the first term, while a total of 21 lessons were observed in the second term, due to increased repetition in the material covered. The specific breakdown of observed teaching time was 6 lessons for T1 and 4 lessons for T2 in multi-exam classes, and 8 lessons for T1 and 4 lessons for T2 in one-exam classes (Table 14), due to T2's health issue and relatively frequent absence from class. 12 lessons in total from the first term and 15 lessons from the second term were transcribed and coded to be used for analysis. Extra hours were transcribed and coded in the second term as teachers did a lot of mock tests for the exams and information on both the mock tests and the actual lessons was deemed important. However, only some of the data were used due to time restrictions and data quality.

During each observation, real time field notes were taken and comments were made on the pre-designed coding sheets. For each observation, a digital camera was set up before the lesson in a corner of the classroom so as to minimize any interruptions and disturbance to the lessons and to ensure normal teacher and student interaction. The analysis comprised four categories covered in the coding sheets: teaching strategies, washback, activities and tasks.

During the first stage, data was adapted to the requirements of Atlas.ti, the software which was used for their analysis. A coding scheme had been prepared to this end (see Appendix VII), so as to compare data and search for any commonalities or differences between the lessons. Some more codes were also added since new information emerged in the transcriptions. Some useful facilities within Atlas.ti were "codes primary document table" which made it possible to find how many utterances each lesson had, as well as "query tool" and "co-occurrence table" which helped create and process queries that include combinations of codes (Appendix VIII).

The second stage focused on timing based upon the timings noted on the observation scheme for each activity and task. In addition, all classroom activities and tasks used by these two teachers were listed on a separate document so as to be classified. The information obtained could provide answers to the sub- questions of the first research questions. The same procedure was followed to calculate teacher talk. This procedure was repeated with each transcript and it is worth mentioning that the coding scheme was modified and refined into a final version which was used to analyse the data.

3.7.3 Follow-Up Interviews (Stimulated Recalls)

The purpose of the follow-up interviews with the two teachers was to confirm, clarify or further explore the findings from the classroom observations. Teachers were asked to justify their actions and explain the rationale behind their actions as well as their feelings, beliefs and perspectives. Follow-up interviews were used to investigate the factors that affect teachers' choices and how they decide to teach the way they do.

Follow-up interviews were held right after each class, for reasons of consistency, except for some of them which were held some days later due to the teacher's inconvenience. Most of the follow-ups were transcribed and the follow-ups of the lessons that were coded were used for coding as well. The time of follow-up recordings varied between 5 to 20 minutes depending on the lesson (if it was a mock exam or not).

Table 3.4: Total Lessons and Hours of Follow-up Interviews

	1 st term	2 nd term
	Follow-up Interviews	Follow-up Interviews
	11/11/2013- 07/12/2013	31/03/2014 – 12/04/2014
Multi-exam & one-exam classes	TOTAL: multi-exam class: 12 lessons	TOTAL: multi-exam class: 11 lessons
	TOTAL: one-exam class: 12 lessons	TOTAL: one-exam class: 12 lessons
	Used:	Used:
	multi-exam class: 6 lessons / 45,08mins. one-exam class: 6 lessons / 38,4mins	multi-exam class: 6 lessons / 36,69 m one-exam class: 6 lessons / 38,86mins
Teacher 1 & Teacher 2	Teacher 1: ME: 3 lessons: 26,52mins.	Teacher 1: ME: 3 lessons: 20,72mins.
	Teacher 1: OE: 3 lessons: 22,43mins.	Teacher 1: OE: 3 lessons: 17,84mins.
	TOTAL: 48,95mins.	TOTAL: 38,56mins.
	Teacher 2: ME: 3 lessons: 18,56mins.	Teacher 2: ME: 3 lessons: 15,97mins.
Both Terms	Teacher 2: OE: 3 lessons: 15,97mins.	Teacher 2: OE: 3 lessons: 21,02mins.
	TOTAL: 34,53mins.	TOTAL: 36,99mins.
	TOTAL: 83,48mins.	TOTAL: 75,55mins.
	TOTAL multi-exam class: 81,77mins.	TOTAL Teacher 1: 87,51mins.
	TOTAL one-exam class: 77,26mins.	TOTAL Teacher 2: 110,08mins.

The method of analysis of the follow-up data started with (i) reading each transcript several times and followed by (ii) noting comments on the teaching process and washback. The coding that was prepared for observations, together with descriptive and thematic coding, was used (Appendix IX). An effort was made to find a comment that was related to a theme from the observations. I gave the same code as in the observation to find the reasons and the factors that affected that specific theme, using the participants' own words. Again, attention was paid to items that were considered interesting for the research. Comments on anything that was related or nearly related to the research were also marked. Later, the codes inserted into the themes related to the research questions and the framework were collected. They were then fitted into sub-categories and sub-themes within each theme.

3.7.4 Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to explore the factors affecting teachers' choices. It was also to discover any differences among teachers in relation to the teaching practices used to prepare students for English language exams at a national level, as well as any washback effect on teachers' perceptions regarding their teaching practices. The questionnaire also serves as a point of reference for the rest of the study.

3.7.4.1 Design and validation procedures

In order to design and validate the survey conducted through this questionnaire, two main methods were used, namely qualitative input and piloting. These two methods ensure content validity and construct validity respectively, alleviating problems through questionnaire administration. To begin with, qualitative input consisted of the theoretical framework reviewed in chapter 2 and, more importantly, of qualitative data deriving from the follow-up interviews. The purpose of the qualitative input was to ensure that the research questions remain the focus of the study and that the responses are on par with the participants' teaching experience.

In addition, the pilot study was carried out for four months. The teachers who validated the previous instruments of the study, namely the observation scheme and the interview questions, along with 10 more teachers from different places in Greece and three research colleagues, all doctoral candidates in the area of language education, were invited to complete the questionnaire and voice their opinions. The pilot study had a multifold purpose

with its most important aspect being to determine whether the various items in the questionnaire were understood by teachers as intended by the researcher. It also aimed at pre-testing the items regarding ease of use, format and overall appearance. Throughout the piloting process, doubts were expressed about the terminology in the introduction of the Greek text. To illustrate, the teachers expressed the need for a third group in the selection of exam classes (Question 7) combining both choices, as well as some other changes to certain questions. As a result, the content and layout of the final version of the questionnaire was substantially adjusted and the wording of some questions, as well as the Greek text was modified.

3.7.4.2 Structure and content

The final version of the questionnaire included 48 questions in total, as shown in Table 3.6, which illustrates the different parts of the questionnaire (Appendix V).

Table 3.5: Structure and parts of the questionnaire

Structure	Content	Items
Part A	Background Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demographic information such as gender, age, place of work, professional qualifications • teaching situation such as current teaching situation, teaching experience 	6
Part B	Types of Exam Classes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • one-exam classes • multi-exam classes • both 	1
Part B1	One-exam Classes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • exam taught in one-exam classes • how teachers choose the exam taught • teachers' opinion about one-exam classes 	3
Part B2	Multi-exam Classes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • exams taught in multi-exam classes • teachers' opinion about multi-exam classes 	2

Part B3	Both one- and multi-exam Classes	5
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> all the questions from Part B1 and B2 	
Part C	Teaching Practices. The factors that affect:	6
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> activities tasks feedback language use stress in class group/pair work 	For 'both' answer in Part B: 12
Part D	Exam-related activities	2
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> how frequently teachers do exam-related activities why teachers choose exam-related activities 	For 'both' answer in Part B: 3

More specifically, as shown in this figure, the questionnaire consisted of four major parts and was designed in English, as follows:

- Part A regarded background information where general demographic characteristics on the subjects were collected.
- Part B consisted of one question regarding the types of exam classes that teachers taught with three options. Based on their selection, the teachers moved on to the relative subsections of Part B, (B1, B2 or both). The questions included information about the selection of the exams in each type of class, how teachers select the exams and the teachers' opinion on these types of classes. The third choice in Part B, which combined both choices, one and two (both one-exam and multi-exam classes), included more questions in the equivalent sub-section (B3), as well as in Parts C and D. Some of the questions were the same for both one-exam and multi-exam classes though the choices were different.
- Part C consisted of six questions which involved the factors that influence teachers' choices regarding the teaching strategies they use in the exam preparation classes. All the questions were designed using a five-point Likert scale which is one of the most commonly accepted scales in education (Cohen, 2007).
- Part D consisted of two questions which were related to the exam-related activities and why teachers choose them. These questions were again designed using a five-point Likert scale.

Data were entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, IBM SPSS Statistics, V20.0) software and analysed using descriptive statistics. The analysis was then performed in three parts according to the exam class groups formed. Specifically, the sample was classified into three distinctive groups (one, multi, one- and multi-exam classes) according to the type of exam classes the sample teachers teach. Initially, descriptive statistics are presented in order to investigate the proportions of the answers acquired. Thus, tables of relative frequencies illustrate the answers of the interviewees as presented in each group (see Chapter 5).

Nevertheless, it was useful to compare the results between the answers of the interviewees of one and multi-exam classes, at least regarding the shared questions. Thus, the sample was rearranged and two comparative groups were created. Comparisons of the frequencies of the answers were made between these groups. The chi-square test (distribution free test), which is used when the level of measurement of all the variables is nominal or ordinal, was conducted to check whether there are statistically significant differences among the two groups. The significance level is set to 0,05 which is the usual value. Only the statistical significant differences are presented and all variables are reported as counts and percentages (see Chapter 5).

In total, 318 questionnaires were collected from teachers working in frontistiria across Greece. However, 12 out of the 318 did not specify the exam classes they teach (one, multi, one- multi-classes) and did not continue the procedure of filling the questionnaires. Therefore, the total sample analyzed consists of 306 questionnaires. The first group consists of the teachers who teach in one-exam classes, both exclusively or not. This group accounts for the subsamples of 134 exclusively one-exam class teachers and 77 one- and multi-exam class teachers. From the subsample of the latter only the answers referring to questions regarding one-exam classes were considered. Likewise, the second group consists of the teachers who teach in multi-exam classes, both exclusively or not. This group accounts for the subsamples of 95 exclusively multi-exam class teachers and 77 one and multi-exam class teachers. From the subsample of the latter only the answers that concern questions regarding multi-exam classes were considered. Consequently, the comparative sample consists of 383 cases divided into two groups of 211 one-exam class teachers and 172 multi-exam class teachers.

Finally, the internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured with Cronbach's alpha separately for each group of participants (i.e. one exam, multi exam, one-multi exam).

- one exam group's cronbach's alpha is 0,922,
- multi exam group's cronbach's alpha is 0,869
- one-multi exam group's cronbach's alpha is 0,978

which indicate a high level of internal consistency for our scale with the three samples.

3.8 Triangulation

Various measures have been proposed to ensure the quality of qualitative research in terms of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Some of them are member checking, thick description, inquiry auditing, and triangulation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In the study, member checking was used since the participants were asked to confirm and disconfirm data, analysis and conclusions. There was also an interview conducted at the end of the data collection process discussing the findings of the study with them. Thick descriptions have also been used in the study, inasmuch as a detailed description of the study context is given so that readers can determine for themselves whether or not the results are applicable to another similar setting (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Most importantly, the principle of triangulation was used in the present study as it is particularly important when investigating human behavior, and appropriate in complex issues such as washback. Triangulation is "the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour" (Cohen and Manion, 2005, 112). In fact, in social research, triangulation "became synonymous with combining data sources to study the same social phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 43). This means that even though findings originate from different methods of data collection in a study, they lead to the same conclusions and therefore the data is more accurate and convincing. Denzin (1970) proposes four types of triangulation. One type is theory or theoretical triangulation in which more than one theory is used to generate research questions or interpret findings, or in other words "when multiple perspectives [are used] to analyze the same set of data" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 181). Another type is methodological triangulation in which two or more instruments are used to collect data and investigator triangulation in which two or more persons collect or analyze the data (Denzin, 1970; Cohen and Manion, 2005; Patton, 2002). Finally, data triangulation regards drawing data from more than one sources are used to answer one research question. According to Johnson (1992), "[t]he value of triangulation is

that it reduces observer or interviewer bias and enhances the validity and reliability (accuracy) of the information" (p. 146).

In the research, all four types of triangulation were adopted to elicit the data. In fact, different washback models and hypotheses were used in the construction of data collection instruments (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Cheng, 2005; Glover, 2006; Tsagari, 2009). Teacher cognition theory was also used in combination with the washback phenomenon to provide new and informative data (theory triangulation) (Borg, 2003). The use of different theoretical backgrounds could provide a stronger theoretical foundation for the research. In addition, methodological triangulation was adopted in the study since interviews, observations, follow-up interviews and questionnaires were used in collecting data, as well as data triangulation since two teachers were investigated in the same context and both multi-exam and one-exam classes. Finally, investigator or analyst triangulation was applied. Independent colleagues with an interest in the research study were used, together with the teachers who took part in the piloting of the instruments to analyse the data in order to reach similar conclusions in terms of themes and content.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Since different types of instruments were used to collect the data, participants were obliged to spend hours on the study, which apparently affected their lives and especially their work. Case studies like the present study pose substantial ethical risks since the researcher becomes heavily involved in the participants' personal and professional lives and circumstances. The importance of addressing ethical concerns to protect the rights and interests of participants, has been foregrounded by many writers (Cohen et al, 2005; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Dörnyei, 2007), so formal measures had to be adopted to ensure the ethical integrity of the study. More specifically, formal written permissions were secured both from the owner of the frontistirio and from the other participants (see Appendix VI). The participants gave their informed consent after holding meetings with the researcher, where the latter provided information as to the purpose and the nature of the study, as well as data collection process. During these meetings, both teachers were informed of their right to abstain or to withdraw their participation at any time during the process and were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of the data. In addition, the participants were fully informed about the data collection procedures and were allowed to make any necessary changes to accommodate their personal and professional needs and circumstances (obtrusiveness).

Furthermore, the students were informed about my presence in the class by the school owner, and it was agreed to video record only the teacher, as well as to protect the students' anonymity. With regards to the questionnaires, the participants did not give their names when their responses were collected so that they could not be identified. Last but not least, it was agreed to provide participants with the findings and conclusions of their particular cases upon formal completion of the study, and they were properly thanked for their participation with a letter.

3.10 Summary

This chapter aimed to introduce the specific research methods and instruments employed in this study as well as its research context. The first part of this chapter set out to formulate the research questions and sub-questions that informed the main purpose of this research – i.e. to examine washback on teaching strategies, activities and tasks in multi-exam preparation courses. Subsequently, it considered the main theoretical and methodological concerns and observations made in the existing literature in washback. Washback researchers seem to unanimously designated the mixed-methods approach as the most appropriate, which was indeed adopted for this study.

Then, the instruments that were employed for data collection were considered, with an emphasis on the type of data to be collected and the specific research questions each data collection method would address. Four types of data collection instruments were used and the design and piloting of them were also presented in this chapter. Next, a detailed account of the frontistirio and the participants that were the focus of the case study were presented in detail. The findings from the collected data will be presented in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 4: QUALITATIVE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to shed light on the three main questions of this study (Section 3.2). The first question which deals with what happens in multi-exam classes, the second question which focuses on the washback effect on multi-exam classes and the third one pertaining to teachers' beliefs and perceptions about their choice of teaching practices in the multi-exam classes. The relevant findings from the interviews, the 27-hour long classroom observations and the follow-up interviews with the two observed teachers are presented. Follow-ups invited teachers to comment, clarify and explain findings from observation data by commenting on the video recordings of their lessons. They provide interesting results in washback since "post observation interviews are becoming increasingly important, as a number of research results indicate that the teachers are prominent factors mediating the process of washback being produced" (Watanabe, 2004, p. 31). Empirical evidence is presented on what teachers said about what happens in their classrooms, during the interviews conducted at the beginning and at the end of the whole procedure, and what was actually happening in the classroom as this emerged from the observations.

After an initial analysis of the empirical data, it was deemed appropriate to present it according to the main topics or themes that emerged. More specifically, the analysis indicated that both the teachers' comments and the observed teaching procedure revolved around the content of the classes and specifically the tasks and the activities (exam-related or not) used in the classroom, as well as around the teaching strategies chosen by teachers and their evaluation of B2 level exam classes. The analysis will include findings of exam influence on the teaching practices and other factors that influence teacher's decisions.

4.2 Materials

Even though the focus of the content of classes was on tasks and activities the data reveals interesting information for the materials that teachers use. This section summarises the findings related to the use of teaching materials in exam preparation classes. It was found that the two teachers used the same kinds of materials since both teachers use coursebooks.

However, the types of books differ a lot since in multi-exam class teachers use a general B2 exam book whereas in one-exam class teachers use a TIE focused book.

Observation data shows that teachers make a great use of the coursebook to teach both multi-exam and one-exam classes. Table 4.1 presents the breakdown of materials used in both the observed exam classes.

Table 4.1: Use of materials in both multi-exam and one-exam classes

	Multi-exam	One-exam
Coursebook	13	3
Reader	0	2
Teacher Made	1	3
Student Made (Logbook)	0	3

Even though teachers use coursebooks in both classes there is a big difference in the amount of coursebook usage in multi-exam class and whether it is followed or supplemented with other materials. Teachers made use of readers, teacher-made materials such as photocopies with grammar exercises or questions for oral practice and student-made materials in one-exam class which deal with materials that students prepare for the TIE exam. The coursebooks are replaced by student-made materials in one-exam classes and practice tests books in multi-exam classes mainly in the second term.

Looking into each type of class more closely, in multi-exam classes both teachers use the coursebook in both terms (Table 4.2), with the exception of Teacher 1 who uses her own materials. This is done when Teacher 1 teaches speaking in the first term. The teacher gave students extra photocopies with pictures and questions to discuss. The coursebook however differs between terms. In the first term, as it is already mentioned above, it is a general B2 class book whereas in the second term it is a practice tests book.

Table 4.2: Use of coursebook in multi-exam class – differences between teachers and terms

Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	3
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	5
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	2
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	3

In one-exam class though there is a bigger variation of materials which differ between teachers and terms (Table 4.3). In the first term teachers use different materials to prepare students for the TIE exam for example Teacher 2 relies mainly on coursebook and the reader while Teacher 1 prepares students the students-made materials which they need for the exams using her own materials such as information on topics and grammar exercises. In the second term one teacher teaches only with student made materials, this means the materials the students have prepared for the examination and Teacher 1 works mainly with the reader and teacher made materials (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Use of materials in one-exam class

	Coursebook	Reader	Student-made materials	Teacher-made Materials
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	0	0	2	2
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	2	1	0	0
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	1	0	1
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	0	2	0

Information from interviews and follow-up interviews reveal that there are a lot of factors that influence teachers' choices regarding materials. Teacher 1 mentions parents' pressure to teach all the book and that is how she explains the extensive use of the coursebook in the first term (Extract 1). Teacher 2 refers to multi-exam class and she mentions another factor for using coursebooks. She believes that the book prepares students for any B2 level exams so it is helpful until students choose which exam they want to (Extract 2). Regarding the use of practice tests books Teacher 1 mentions exams and the best preparation for the exams that influence their choices (Extract 3). Exams are referred again when Teacher 2 explains the reasons why she does the TIE coursebook in one-exam class. She believes that a coursebook that is structured in the same way as TIE examination is unique to prepare students for the exam (Extract 4) The extracts below illustrate these factors.

Extract 1: Teacher 1: Materials (coursebook)

First of all, we have the books, of course. We have to finish the books because parents expect that since we buy the books, **we have to finish them**. If we have finished them, they think they are complete, they have learnt everything. If they fail at their exams it is going to be our fault, because "You didn't finish the book."

Extract 2: Teacher 2: Materials (coursebook in multi-exam class)

The On Screen book is a general B2 level book that **prepares students for the exams properly**. It contains tasks and activities which students can find in the exams and they can **have a go at various exam like activities before they decide which exam to take**.

Extract 3: Teacher 1: Materials (practice tests)

...because we try to **prepare them as much as possible**, and **since we have the past papers, we can refer to them at any time and say “This is what the actual test was like last year**. Let’s see how you would have done.” And since they know it’s the actual test, they tend to take it more seriously. Like: “This is going to happen again next year.” Not the exact same one, but similar one.

Extract 4: Teacher 2: Materials (coursebook in one-exam class)

We use **a book which prepares students for TIE exams only**. It contains investigation topics, news stories and extracts from literature books as well as questions and essay topics which the exams asks **for so it is unique to prepare students for the specific exam**.

The extracts prove that there are a lot of reasons why teachers use coursebooks to prepare students for the exams. In one-exam class and in the second terms of both classes though it seems that there is a stronger washback effect on materials since the book and the practice tests the teacher uses focus on exams. However, teachers do the whole books because of parent’s pressure to complete them all because parents believe that if teachers teach all the book then students can succeed. Therefore, not only exams but other factors such as parents influence the teaching materials teachers use.

When teachers were asked about the other materials they use or other materials that they would like to use but they do not use in exam classes revealed interesting points on what teachers believe about coursebooks. Teacher 1 considers coursebooks to be quite monotonous and by doing something that is not in the book, the lesson becomes more interesting. She refers that doing something outside the book made students feel happy and relaxed. Time and parent’s pressure to finish the book though are the reasons why Teacher 1 does not use materials outside the book. Extract 5 shows how teachers support it.

Extract 5: Teacher 1: Materials (other than the coursebook)

Students are more cheerful, they are happier, they were more relaxed. It was something that they enjoyed to do whereas with the coursebook it was **constant, monotonous, exercise, exercise.** But unfortunately **there is not time** to do more such activities plus **parents want us to finish the books.**

Even though teachers believe that doing tasks and activities outside the book can be more relaxing and happier for students they do not seem to do it. Reasons like the lack of time since they need to prepare students for the exams and the need not only to finish the book but do everything that the book has because of parents' pressure influence the materials they use.

In summary, it is clear that teachers' perceptions as far as materials are concerned are shaped mainly by what would benefit their exam preparation. The fact that teachers beliefs of materials use differs from what they actually do is apparent in the last extract. Exam preparation, time and parents' pressure to finish the coursebook do not allow teachers to make their lessons less monotonous and more fun and interesting. Teachers follow the book strictly in the first term but in multi-exam there are more reasons from simply follow it. The students have not decided yet what exam to sit for and they want to do a wide range of activities.

4.3 Tasks and activities

Activities (what students do in class to practise language) and tasks (final products which require a series of activities) are employed in both one-and-multiple exam preparation courses. More specifically, Table 4.4 displays the use of activities and tasks throughout the year in the observed classes. It appears that teachers in multi-exam classes exclusively use activities rather than tasks. On the other hand, teachers in the one-exam class make much more extensive use of tasks than teachers in the multi-exam class context. There is a solid ground for connecting the extensive use of tasks to the format of the TIE exam, as the latter focuses mainly on tasks. At the same time, this can be connected to the fact that the coursebook may only focus on one-exam and, therefore, contain less activities.

Table 4.4: Activities and Tasks in both exam preparation classes

	Activities	Tasks
Multi-exam class	102	4
One-exam class	41	10

Teachers were asked how they choose the activities and tasks they do and they mention that the exams and coursebook influence their choices. To be more specific, teachers have to do activities and tasks from the coursebook in order to finish it as parents wish. The extracts 6 and 7 illustrate it.

Extract 6: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks and Activities

The **exams** do cause us. We have another problem, though that the students are asked “Did you finish the book?” So, sometimes you do activities that you really don’t spend that much time on them but you have to go through them just in case you get complaints **from parents that the book wasn’t finished**.

Extract 7: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks and Activities

Let’s see. **First of all, we have the books**, of course. We have to finish the books because parents expect that since we buy the books, we have to finish them. And then it’s the **exams**.

It is obvious that teachers are influenced by the exams when choosing activities and tasks. However, the use of a coursebook influence them, too rather negatively though since teachers are obliged to teach activities and tasks that otherwise would not teach only to complete the book and please the parents.

However, comparing the first and second term in multi-exam classes it is obvious that teachers in the first term are more influenced by the coursebook and language learning. They are more interested in teaching students the language and completing the book. They do all the tasks and activities that the book has not only in order to do it all as parents wish but also in order students to do a variety of activities and tasks that the book offers since it is a general B2 level coursebook to be well prepared for any exam they decide to sit for. It is interesting that teacher’s 1 belief in extract 8 about what she wants to teach contradicts what she really does and she attributes it to exams. The second term is ‘determined’ and confined’ as teacher 2 also comments in Extract 9.

Extract 8: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks and Activities, 1st Term vs 2nd Term, multi-exam class

No, I think it goes back to the **coursebook** and **language what they should know**. The coursebook leads us up to the exams but really **I think for the teacher knowing what the student knows is more important than the exam itself** but all of the parents want a paper as I said again. So, we're forced into this, **instead of teaching the language that we want to teach, we end up training them to get their certificates**.

Extract 9: Teacher 2: Use of Tasks and Activities, 1st Term vs 2nd Term, multi-exam class

In the first semester they are **more influenced by the book**. We followed the instructions in the reading skills, for writing, whatever is in the book because we **were expected to complete a textbook** by the students and by the parents. We will **do everything in the book**, we will do all the skills. It maybe necessary **because they change their minds further down**.

In the second term we are **more determined and confined by the exams** because the school year goes by very quickly and we're already pressured to leave off a year because of the economy, the crisis, and so on, and parents pressure the students to finish earlier. So therefore we spend more hours teaching in a school year and we are more or less training and preparing them for the exams in the second semester.

4.3.1 Tasks

With reference to tasks, these are used throughout the year by both teachers, mainly in speaking and writing classes. This section analyses what tasks teachers do in both types of classes and terms as well as the factors that influence teachers in choosing the tasks in exam preparation classes. As can be seen in Table 4.6, teachers use more tasks in total in one-exam class rather than in multi-exam class. Observations showed that teachers in the multi-exam class did tasks when they taught writing or speaking skills which were exam like and not in the book. In one-exam class though the lesson especially in the second term was formulated around tasks on speaking and writing on the three student prepared topics that the exam required.

Table 4.5: Tasks in both exam preparation classes

Multi-exam class 1 st Term	1
Multi-exam class 2 nd Term	3
One-exam class 1 st Term	2
One-exam class 2 nd Term	8

Table 4.7 shows the types of tasks that teachers used throughout the school year. Teachers used to a great extent information gap tasks. Opinion exchange tasks and decision making tasks were also used. TIE examination includes such tasks and therefore teachers following the exam practiced these tasks extensively.

Table 4.6: Types of Tasks in both exam preparation classes

Information Gap	7
Opinion Exchange	4
Decision Making	3

Classroom observations showed that teachers do tasks that they create themselves, others are in the coursebook and in the majority are related or focused on the exams. That is the reason why task usage increases in the second term (Table 4.6). The past papers and practice tests books follow the exams and include tasks that the exams test. However, other factors, such as changing the classroom atmosphere, see students' progress and involve them influence teachers' choices. These are illustrated by what teachers commented in the following-up interviews. In extract 10 teacher had done a speaking task with students in order to practice personal questions and instead of the teacher asking the questions she got students to interview each other. The specific extract shows not only the influence of exams since answering personal questions is part of the exams but also teacher's intention to involve students in the whole process.

Extract 10: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks in multi-exam class

I wanted to get them talking as much as possible. I wanted to see what kind of questions they would come up with and I know they would ask/answer them in Greek automatically so **I wanted to see how well they would get their** – ha- I wanted to see how well they could express what they wanted to say. Of course here we had to rely on grammar, on tenses, on verb structures and everything. So I wanted them to see that it's not easy to just sit there and ask questions for a person, **I wanted them to participate** a little bit and I wanted to get used

to ask each other questions. Not only: Here's the question and just answer it. **I wanted to get them involved in everything.**

Interviewer: I see. **Did you want to do that because of the exam?**

Teacher: **Yes, yes.**

Extract 11 illustrates the exam factor again with relation to the book and the teacher's need to adopt the task in order to change the classroom's atmosphere and make students less bored. The mood of the class is also mentioned when teacher explains why she changes the tasks. The teacher mentions how monotonous and repetitive the one-exam class gets in the second term.

Extract 11: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks in one-exam class

They are questions based **only on the exams**. I got them out of the book, **out of the TIE book**. I'm guessing those are the questions the candidates are going to be asked, so, we are preparing these from the class.

Interviewer: Do you ask any questions that are not in the exams?

Teacher: Well, **sometimes yes just spice it up so it won't be boring, because it's only TIE** and we have to do specific things after a while **they get bored the same things over and over**. So, sometimes I ask them personal questions first or last. It depends on how it goes; **it depends on the mood of the class.**

In the second term in both classes though teachers did more tasks which were mainly taken from past papers and practice tests. They were influenced totally from the exams and aimed at helping students to get acquainted with the exam structure and requirements. They were done without supervision and under strict time limit to follow test procedures. Teachers want the students to be on their own and not have their help. Extract 12, which has several comments from both teachers explaining the reasons why they do exam tasks under such conditions prove the influence of the exams and teacher's attempt to help students pass the exams.

Extract 12: Teacher 1: Use of Tasks in the second term

Teacher 2: I want them to **time themselves** and see **how they work under pressure. Prepare themselves.**

Teacher 1: I wanted them to – no, not now- we've started for a while now since it's -you know- **a time limitation**, we have to follow it. So now every time if they have, if they have

to write a composition here at the school, it's only by time. **Just like in the exam so they're prepared.** So they don't think “oh, I'll get five more minutes. Oh I need ten more minutes to finish”. 30 minutes, you're done.

Teacher 2: We do a **mock test** every week, once or twice a week **without supervision** to **get acquainted with the exam.**

Teacher 1: Yes, just like in the TIE exams. I wanted them to **know the time limit**, and not just take their own sweet time and have to finish in a certain amount of time. They **are not going to have the teacher ask anything**, how do I do this, what does this mean, **you are on your own.**

4.3.2 Activities

With relation to activities, classroom observations show that there is a similar trend for their use to tasks, with the teachers alternating between exam-oriented and not exam-oriented activities depending on the type of class and the term. Table 4.8 below summarises the classroom activities organised by the two teachers in both multi-exam and one-exam classes. It demonstrates that the activities organised vary across the classes (multi-exam and one-exam classes) and the teachers: a certain activity may be carried out in one lesson, but not in another, even by the same teacher. For example Teacher 2 does a lot of grammar and vocabulary activities in multi-exam class but not at all in one-exam class. Another variation across teachers and types of classes is writing activities. Teacher 1 does a lot of writing activities in multi-exam class contrary to one-exam class in which Teacher 2 does more writing activities.

Table 4.7: Activities in both multi-exam and one-exam classes

	Teacher 1 Multi-exam Class	Teacher 2 Multi-exam Class	Teacher 1 One-exam Class	Teacher 2 One-exam Class
Speaking	6	4	7	5
Listening	1	0	1	0
Writing	27	4	7	12
Reading	0	15	0	7
Gram./Vocab.	11	34	2	0

According to the classroom observations and the follow-up interviews it is also interesting to note that teachers follow the coursebook chapters very closely and do not violate the order in which they are arranged. Within this framework, the activities in the first term were mainly taken from the coursebook regardless of the exams the students were going to sit for and of

whether the exams of their choice included such an activity (section 4.3). In the second term, activities are taken mainly from past papers and practice tests, just like in the case of tasks, so these are activities included in the format of the exams (section 4.3). The only case in both terms when teachers do activities which are not in the coursebook is during speaking practice. There, the materials used are prepared by the teachers themselves.

4.3.2.1 Speaking Activities

Linking the activities used with the skills they aim for and starting with the speaking activities, it is evident that both teachers use a wide range of activities in both classes (Table 4.8). What differs though is the kind of activities and their aims, as can be seen in Table 4.9. There is a range of speaking activities used that involved answering questions, practice sentence structure, describe pictures, role plays, discussions on topics and practice fluency. However, teachers mainly get students to answer questions in both classes in order to practice speaking. In multi-exam class teachers get students not only to answer questions but also to discuss various topics regardless of the exam choice but on topics that the exams have. In one-exam class teachers also do role plays since the last part of the speaking test of TIE examination requires students to discuss on pictures but they strongly practice TIE orals, which indicates a strong exam influence (Table 4.9).

Table 4.8: Speaking activities in both multi-exam and one-exam classes

	Multi-exam Class	One-exam Class
Discussion	4	0
TIE orals	0	5
Practice Fluency	1	0
Role Play	1	2
Describe pictures	0	2
Practice Sentence Formation	1	0
Answer Questions	5	4

Follow-up interviews include useful information on how and why teachers do speaking activities. In the first term in both classes teachers cared more for language learning and getting students to speak. They do not emphasize on correction and feedback and if so it is more general since they believe that in the first term they just want to get students to talk (Extract 13, 15 and 17). In multi-exam though teachers either have the exams in the back of their mind when they do speaking activities or they follow the exam requirements (Extracts 13, 14 and 15). Despite having the exams in mind they do not provide feedback or corrections

on exam but they rather make general comments (Extract 13). However, in multi-exam class they do not always focus on a specific exam but they do activities that all exams ask for such as interviewing the students and answering personal questions (Extract 14). In one-exam class, contrary to multi-exam class, teachers in the first term do not focus on exams at all and they only try to get students to talk, forget about their fear and practice language (Extract 16 and 17). They do not provide feedback and corrections because the level of the students is very low and she believes that it is more significant to get them to speak and use what they have learnt rather than practice for exams as Teacher 1 explains when she is asked to compare the first and second term (Extract 19).

Extract 13: Teacher 1, Speaking Activities, 1st Term, Multi-exam class

Teacher: I want them to start talking. I know what they have inside their minds maybe they are too shy, subconscious to say it. By asking the questions they start answering and if they start talking **they'll may go on and on and maybe start command by themselves without me getting little pieces every time.**

Interviewer: You continue like that and then you give feedback on the questions and the answers?

Teacher: Just **general comments** like "You need to provide more information, talk as much as possible". When they ask you for example "What kind of books do you like to read?" don't just say "adventure books", explain why, keep going by yourself.

Interviewer: Do you have exams in mind when you...?

Teacher: Yes, **this is basic for the interviews, for the test. I want them to start talking as much as possible without thinking** "I'm going to stop" the interview will say "Ok, move, keep moving on, keep talking, why" I don't want them to expect the other person. **I want them on their own to start talking just as much as they can.**

Extract 14: Teacher 1, Speaking Activities, 1st Term, Multi-exam class

Interviewer: Why did you do an activity that it is not in the coursebook? It was a teacher-made activity; you made it. It was because of speaking?

Teacher: **It was because of speaking, yes, because whatever test you take, you have speaking.** So, I want them to get used to the idea of answering questions and I thought instead of me asking the questions, it would be boring because that's what I always do, so I wanted them take lead. I want them to take the initiative and see what interesting questions they can come up with.

Interviewer: So, you didn't have any specific exam in mind?

Teacher: No.

Interviewer: Did you have the exams?

Teacher: Yes, indeed, because they ask you personal information, your interests, your hobbies.

Extract 15: Teacher 2, Speaking Activities, 1st Term, Multi-exam class

Interviewer: And then you did some speaking about music and free time, and you asked some questions to the students. **You made the questions, you didn't take them from the course book?**

Teacher: No.

Interviewer: Can you tell me about that? Why did you choose to do that?

Teacher: When they start their interviews, they think it's something very formal. When you are doing speaking in the classroom, like I did today, it's natural, it comes natural to them. So, through this way, **eventually you lead them into their oral interviews and the main purpose of all to use the language.**

Interviewer: Do you have the exams in mind when you do the speaking?

Teacher: In the back of my mind.

Interviewer: What I noticed is that you didn't use any error correction, or suggestions, or feedback in speaking. You just let them ...

Teacher: If you start correcting them too much, they'll stop and nobody will say anything. Now, that it's only natural that they make mistakes, but they might think it's more important to make a mistake than it is not to try to use the language you've been taught.

Extract 16: Teacher 2, Speaking Activities, 1st Term, One-exam class

Interviewer: I see. What I noticed while students were answering your questions, you didn't give any feedback or you didn't correct. So, you didn't correct at all.

Teacher: Yes. I wanted to listen. To get them speaking.

Interviewer: I see.

Teacher: To get them speaking and try and to forget the problems that grammar can create. Just get them use English.

Interviewer: Again I see that **you don't mind the exams at the moment.**

Teacher: No. I think we can **get them using the language in the beginning it will lead on correcting. We will go on the details later on.**

Extract 17: Teacher 1, Speaking Activities, 1st Term, One-exam class

At this point, **I just want them to start talking, start speaking, say whatever they want, even make mistakes-** I don't care, just as long as they start speaking. Just, you know, **get pass their fear** “ I don't know if I say it right, I don't know the word” . **Just start talking.**

In the second term, both teachers in both classes do exam-oriented speaking activities in the form of mock tests. Students in multi-exam class work individually as the format of the exams they sit for but on the one-exam class they work in pairs mostly as the TIE speaking test requires. Unlike in the first term, this time teachers correct students and give them a lot of exam tips. They explain the tasks step by step in both classes and in multi-exam class the teacher even compares the speaking tests and the techniques that each tests asks for. Teachers have the need to be precise about the exams and have students ready for the exams since the exam dates come closer that is reason why they give a lot of exam tips and correct the mistakes. The extracts 18, 19 and 20 illustrate these.

Extract 18: Teacher 1, Speaking Activities, 2nd Term, Multi-exam class

Interviewer: I can see in the video that you start doing the Michigan test, first with the one student, but first you explain the task to her.

Teacher: Yes, because **I didn't want to confuse both the oral exam.** I want them to **be clear that this is the Michigan and this is how we do it, step one, step two and be focused only on that.** Afterwards, it's a different oral exam.

Interviewer: Later on, before the exams do you explain the task again or you just do the mock exam again?

Teacher: We do the mock exams. But, now I want to be clear because we are going to do a second one completely different. So, I want them to compare in their heads but not get mixed-up. Because **we have to be precise, too, so they know exactly what they are going to be asked during the interview** and there should be any questions left.

Extract 19: Teacher 1, Speaking Activities, 2nd Term, One-exam class

Teacher: Yes. TIE exams, only TIE exams.

Interviewer: I see. I see that you start asking questions on the book. Can you tell me about the questions? Did you choose the questions by yourself or are they questions only for the exams?

Teacher: They are questions based only on the exams. I got them out of the book, out of the TIE book. **I'm guessing those are the questions the candidates are going to be asked,**

so, we are preparing these from the class. Only what is in TIE exams. They have to be prepared as much as possible.

Interviewer: I see here that you give them advice for exams.

Teacher: Of course.

Interviewer: I see. I remember in the first term you didn't ask them to speak, but you didn't correct them a lot, you didn't mind how much they will talk. What about now? You do correct some mistakes, you ask them to talk more, is it because of the exams?

Teacher: Yes. Because in the beginning they were at a very low level, to start with, so I didn't want to scare them off at the beginning "Oh, I'm not doing well, that's it, I'm going to fail." You know, we built it up a little bit so now that we are approaching to the TIE exam of course I have to correct them so they don't make the same mistakes, I want them to be able to speak as much as possible, just to get over their fear that use extended vocabulary, all the words that we've learnt from the book, whatever you remember just say it.

Interviewer: When you assess them, you ask them to answer something and you assess them, you listen to them. Do you think about the exams?

Teacher: Yes. I want them to be as clear as possible.

Extract 20: Teacher 2, Speaking Activities, 2nd Term, One-exam class

Interviewer: Oh, I see. OK. So the last part now of the class was about. It was about the 4th part of the speaking test, the TIE speaking test. It was a discussion.

Teacher: Yes, it was the word "chores" was hard for them to understand what was going on. But when they saw the picture, then it made it easier for them to realise what they were going to talk about. The work that we had done in class.

Interviewer: Before getting them to discuss, to do the actual task as in the examination you asked them some questions. Why did you do that? In order to understand the topic?

Teacher: So that they could lead themselves slowly into the topic. And maybe direct them as much as possible.

Interviewer: I see. And then you showed them the instructions and you reminded them to follow the instructions in the examination so you gave them some tips again for the exams and the exam procedure

Teacher: And to make sure that they are covering what it's being asked from them

Interviewer: So, why do you give them so many tips about the exams?

Teacher: Hopefully they will remember part of them.

By comparison teachers in multi-exam classes follow the exams when teaching speaking in both terms. However, in the second term they teach students how to accomplish the task successfully and they teach it step by step providing students with tips of the exams. There seems to be exam influence in both terms in multi-exam classes since exams is the only factor when choosing what to teach in speaking classes. In one-exam class, though teachers in the first term are influenced by the level of the students without caring for the exams as they do in the second term.

4.3.2.2 Grammar and Vocabulary Activities

Grammar and vocabulary activities are commonly used activities in multi-exam classes since the examinations, especially the Michigan exam, have parts that test grammar and vocabulary. For this reason grammar and vocabulary activities are used in a great extent multi-exam class and especially in the first term (Table 4.10). The coursebook offers two pages of grammar and two more of vocabulary in each chapter, so teachers teach them in detail. In the second term though, teachers get students to do grammar and vocabulary activities in the form of mock tests which is the reason why the table below shows fewer grammar and vocabulary activities in the second term. In contrast, in one-exam class teachers do minimal grammar and vocabulary activities and only in the first term (Table 4.10).

Table 4.9: Grammar and vocabulary activities in both multi-exam and one-exam classes

Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	2
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	33
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	2
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	0
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	9
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	2
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0

In the follow-up interviews, teachers confirm that the frequent use of grammar and vocabulary activities in multi-exam class is to a large extent for the sake of preparing their students for the Michigan exam. However, there is a difference between Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 when explaining why they do grammar and vocabulary activities. Teacher 1 is more influenced by the exams than Teacher 2 who says that activities do not strictly adhere to the exams but she believes that are necessary for students in order to practice and learn

more vocabulary since they are weak. Extracts 21 and 22 show what teachers believe when they teach grammar and vocabulary activities.

Extract 21: Teachers 1 – Vocabulary and Grammar Activities, 1st Term, multi-exam classes

Maybe if I didn't have the exams, I wouldn't spend so much time on it. I wouldn't over-analyze it so much... Maybe I would left out the exercise where you are supposed to use a word to fill in the blank in the right form. That's not something they are going to do on the test. We just use it for as grammar reference; just then you can revise and practice grammar a little bit.

Extract 22: Teachers 2 – Vocabulary and Grammar Activities, 1st Term, multi-exam classes

Grammar and vocabulary activities do not strictly adhere to the exam as students need more extensive practice by being exposed to a number of activities even if these are not included in the exams. Most of them are necessary, because they have a lot of vocabulary, and these students are taking the B2 from the fifth year. So, they are weak in their vocabulary and we have to be aware of that and remind them also of their grammar.

So, teachers spend time in class correcting, explaining and translating them to students although they would not do so if it were not for the exam. However, teachers believe that grammar and vocabulary activities are necessary for language learning and they do grammar and vocabulary activities that are not in the exams because of the level of the students. Teacher 2 mentions that the pressure to sit for exams sooner makes it more necessary because she feels that students are weak and need more practice. So, there is not direct washback effect regarding grammar and vocabulary activities in multi-exam classes in the first term. In the second term though the teachers in multi-exam classes are solely influenced by exams since all such activities have a clear and direct relationship to the Michigan exam taken for past papers and practice tests and done in the form of mock exams.

In one-exam classes teachers believe that grammar is important because students need them both in order to write and speak better. Extract 23 demonstrates the reason why Teacher 1 does some grammar activities in the first term. The influence of exams is much more evident in one-exam classes in the second term (Table 4.9) where teachers use fewer grammar and vocabulary activities because the TIE exam tests only speaking and writing. Teachers do not

do any grammar and vocabulary activities in the second term because the exam does not test them.

Extract 23: Teacher 1: Grammar and Vocabulary Activities, 1st Term, one-exam class

It's important because **they have to use grammar to actually talk, to write, to do the writing or the orals**. So it's very important ...

The differences between teachers and between terms regarding the factors affecting the choices in grammar and vocabulary activities are obvious. Teachers in the first terms are affected by the level of the students, the fact that students sit sooner for the exams and somewhat by the exams. In fact there is a difference between multi-exam and one-exam classes in the first term showing that multi-exam classes are influenced by the exams even in the first term since Michigan examination tests both grammar and vocabulary. There is no any variation between teachers and classes in the second term since both are influenced greatly by exams. In the multi-exam class teachers do a lot of grammar and vocabulary activities because of the exam while in one-exam class not at all because of the TIE examination that tests only speaking and writing.

4.3.2.3 Reading Activities

In the hours observed Teacher 1 did not do any reading skills compared to Teacher 2 who did most of the reading in both classes (Table 4.11).

Table 4.10: Reading activities in both exam preparation classes

Teacher 1 both classes	0
Teacher 2 multi-exam class	15
Teacher 2 one-exam class	7

This can be considered to be an unintended fact since teachers follow the coursebook and continue teaching the book page by page. Reading activities are done in both terms in multi-exam class. In the first term all the reading activities are taken from the coursebook whereas in the second term form past papers which follow the exam format. When teacher 2 was asked why she does all the reading activities in the coursebook she replied that she follows the book, she does not leave anything out and that is how they are organized in the book (Extract 24). This indicates the strong influence of the coursebook on the reading activities in the first term.

Extract 24: Teacher 2: Reading Activities, 1st Term, Multi-exam class

That's the way they are in the book. So that we don't leave out any of the activities I followed the way they are organized in the book.

There is a variation of reading activities in the multi-exam class as Table 4.12 shows. The teacher does a lot of different reading activities in multi-exam class. The multiple-choice reading activity is more frequently used because both exams (PTE and Michigan ECCE) include it. So, the teacher follows not only the coursebook but the exams as well when she teaches reading activities in multi-exam class. In one-exam class she translates mainly reading texts which are used in the TIE coursebook as model texts for the writing part of the exam.

Table 4.11: Reading activities in multi-exam class

True/False	1
Answer Questions	1
Reading Techniques	2
Translate	3
Scanning	1
Read Aloud	3
Skimming	2
Multiple Choice	4

In multi-exam class the teacher uses skimming techniques since the exams' reading activities ask for it but she also teaches students reading techniques. In fact, as observations showed the teacher, in an effort to teach reading skills appropriate for the exam, combines the activities such as a skimming activity with a multiple-choice one because, as she said, skimming is what the students need in order to complete the specific exam task within the time limit (Extract 25).

Extract 25: Teacher 2: Reading Activities, 1st Term, Multi-exam class

Teacher: With the Michigan exam your **pressure is time** and when they get to the passages because it's a lot of time on grammar and vocabulary, they are going to have **to learn to work with the passages very quickly**. Otherwise, they are not going to be able to finish on time.

Interviewer: I see, it's the time.

Teacher: The **time pressure** and **training them at the same time to ignore something that they don't need, and find the information that's really needed.** Skimming and scanning for information.

What is very interesting about the reading activities is the teacher's perception about the use of the students' L1 (in this case, Greek) during these activities. The teacher gets students to translate by reading aloud in both terms. Extract 26 exemplifies why the teacher uses translation to teach reading skills to students when preparing them for exams. She believes that translation is an effective tool and it helps students to understand the text better. It is teacher's educational beliefs than the exams, since they do not ask for translation that make her use translation to teach reading to students.

Extract 26: Teacher 1: Reading Activities and Translation

I believe translation **is a good teaching method**, because if you can translate it, you know what you are doing. If you are just guessing the words, it's guess- word and you don't really get to know the meaning of these words. They need to translate it, I believe. **I think translation is a skill, and a necessary skill.** – I tried to get them to think in English when they were writing, but when they are reading a passage for the first time **I think translation I very vital.** It's **a tool**; it's using the mother language to teach the foreign language.

Teachers use translation in both terms. Teachers believe that translation can help students with their reading skills and they consider it to be a tool when they do a reading comprehension activity. The texts that teachers taught and translated were texts in the book which follow the exam format but the method they used to teach it is not affected by the exams.

As for the one-exam classes, only one of the teachers carries out reading activities only in the first term (Table 4.10). Since reading is not a component of the TIE exam, the choice of these activities is not influenced by the exam. It is motivated by the teacher's desire to expose students to vocabulary and teach them how a text can be organised and analysed in the English language mainly for the writing section of the exam. Activities such as true/false and scanning are done because they are activities in the book and in order for students to collect information from model essays to use in the exams. In the case of one-exam class the teacher does reading in the first term even though it is not in the exam but in the second term she tends to ignore the skill since it is not in the examination. Within this framework, the

teacher mainly reads and translates the model essays that can be found in the book. Extract 27 demonstrates why Teacher 2 uses translation even in the one-exam class in the first term where students are not examined in reading comprehension.

Extract 27: Teacher 2: Reading Activities, one-exam class

They are **weak students**. They are not students they are going to look up words in a dictionary. So, we have to **spoon feed them in a way, giving them the information and hoping that they will learn it**. And, also, Greek students are very pressed on time. They have a lot of lessons after class and they don't have enough time to do it. Also, to see **who was paying attention** and **to see if they understand what was read**, but mainly who was paying attention.

This extensive use of translation in the case of the one-exam class aims at not only speeding up exam preparation, as in the case of the multi-exam classes, but also at dealing effectively with the students' low level. Students are very busy and teachers need to provide everything to them in order to study at home. Also, the teacher used reading activities and translation in order to control the class and check students' attention. Exams do not have any influence on the use of reading activities and translation in the one-exam class.

It can be deduced, therefore, that the influence of the coursebook on the selection of reading activities is quite strong, and the reading skills taught are geared towards the successful completion of the relevant exam task in multi-exam classes but not in one-exam classes. The same teachers use reading activities and translation for other reasons such as the level of the students which is low and they require more practice and to check students' attention. So, regarding reading activities and how they are taught there is a variation concerning the factors influencing reading activities which differentiate between terms, classes and the teacher herself.

4.3.2.4 Writing Activities

Both teachers conduct writing activities in both exam classes. Observations showed that in multi-exam classes, teachers sometimes combine writing with other skills, such as speaking, grammar and vocabulary. They also apply different teaching strategies to teach it, such as writing the tasks with the students on the board, getting students to write in groups and assigning writing tasks as homework to them. It is also worth noting that these teachers do more writing activities in the first term in both types of classes and in the multi-exam class

in both terms (Table 4.13). This is because teachers in the second term give writing tasks to students in the form of mock tests which they write in strict time limit and unsupervised. The writing tasks conform to the type of task assessed in the exams. In the first term in both classes teachers use the writing activities which are in the coursebooks and do all the activities that the books offer and in the second term give students writing tasks from past papers and practice tests.

Table 4.12: Writing activities in both multi-exam and one-exam classes

	1 st Term	2 nd Term
Multi-exam class	24	7
One-exam class	16	3

Observations showed that teachers combine writing activities with other skills in order for students to practise the English language, which means that teachers approach writing in such a way so as to first and foremost promote language learning. In the first term, both teachers used different teaching strategies to teach writing to students. The extracts below show the different teaching strategies used by teachers to teach writing in the first term in both classes. They do so in order students to understand, keep the notes for future reference, because the activities are totally different from their Greek lessons and unknown to students, or because they wanted to show students how to work and think when they have to write something. Also, for the reason that the level of the students is low requires more explanation which the use of first language and translation can provide.

Extract 28: Teachers 1: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

How to write a formal letter: In general, I just wanted to **explain to them how to write a formal letter**. I tried to explain them as much as I could, as possible and I took it one step at a time. I didn't have a particular order how to teach it. It just as came into my head. Just to get across how to write a formal letter.

Extract 29: Teachers 1: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

Asking Questions: Just **they can understand the exercise in depth. Understand it a little bit better with the questions**. I want to see if I ask the question who can answer them. Because when you ask you can see immediately who is going to respond, actually if they understand, if you see somebody kind of looking at you in a doubtful way, you know that they didn't understand. So, I want to do it as much as possible.

Extract 30: Teachers 1: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

Write on the board: We wrote it together on the board because usually when we give them the composition, for this case the letter, if we didn't do anything, I give them for homework, each child would understand it in a different way. So, when they come back and read their homework, the one would say: Oh, I didn't understand how to do it or would write one big paragraph and mix all the details. So, **in this way, they keep the plan for a future reference and know exactly what to write in each paragraph.**

Extract 31: Teachers 1: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

Use of Greek: Because, first of all **the level of this class is pretty low**, so if I asked them in English they **wouldn't be able to get their message across** and they wouldn't be able to express what they thought.

Extract 32: Teachers 2: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

Translation: Because, it is new, something that they haven't seen before, and if I give them just to read it I don't think they will learn more being brave I'd say 50 %. **If we translate it, we may gain up to 75%.**

Extract 33: Teachers 2: Writing activities and Teaching Strategy, 1st Term

True-False Activity: Mainly, the students in the Greek schools have never written a letter of acceptance or refuse. It's something we do in English; if you ask them to do something like that in Greek they will be almost as lost as they are with the English language. So, **there has to be some rules or regulations that help them organise their thoughts and what they are supposed to do. So, the True- False helps them out and they can go back and check it.**

Writing activities are influenced mostly by the coursebooks in both exam classes. Teachers focus on understanding and language learning more than anything in the first term when they teach writing however the fact that they need students to have information and notes for future reference appears that exams influence the teachers indirectly.

However, in the second term, teachers got students to practice writing either in the form of homework or alone unsupervised in the form of mock tests. There were some few cases, though, where teachers taught writing as in the first term for different reasons which aim at the exams and the success of the students in the exams. One of the teachers focuses on a

specific exam in the multi-exam class and that is the reason why she feels the need to explain things for the specific exam (Extract 34). So, the teacher writes something on board with the students, even in the second term, in order to guide students and check how much they have understood, and advise them on the exams.

Extract 34: Teacher 1: Writing activities, 2nd Term, multi-exam class

I wanted to give them feedback on PTE exams. Because we are focusing on the composition, the essay from PTE today, so yes, it had to be correct and I corrected it and - you know- they all had different ideas, so I just wanted to combine all their ideas together and show them that it's not only what you think, like this A, you can do A plus B. You know, expand your mind a little bit. Based on that expand your sentence a little bit. That was what I was trying to show them today. And it was a good group because we took ideas from everybody and we combined them all together.

Teacher 2 gets students to read out loud their essays in order the other students to listen to them and find the mistakes. The teacher uses peer-assessment which finds relaxing, an effective strategy and that it helps students to learn from each other. Also, the teacher discusses the mistakes with the whole class in order to correct some of them and give feedback (Extract 35). This can help their homework and use her feedback for future reference. The teacher aims at helping students with the exams and she believes that this strategy can help them in the exams.

Extract 35: Teacher 2: Writing activities, 2nd Term, one-exam class

Interviewer: The aim of the class was to correct the students' essays. What they wrote in the first hour. So, you started with a composition that the students wrote. A description of a present he got and he read it by himself.

Teacher: Yes. Out loud.

Interviewer: Yes, out loud. Why did he do that?

Teacher: In order for the other two students to listen to it and see if they could find mistakes that he had made.

Interviewer: Ok, I see. And then you discussed the mistakes with the students

Teacher: Yes.

Interviewer: So they told you what mistakes they found. You told them some other mistakes and at the same time you corrected them and you gave feedback.

Teacher: Yes. Not complete

Interviewer: yes

Teacher: because I wanted them to go home and work on it again and to try and correct the mistakes that we didn't go over in class and see if they can find them.

Interviewer: OK. How can that help them with the examination you think.

Teacher: I think **it helps them because if they realise what mistakes they are making, then they will stop making those mistakes.** No matter how much we talk about it, it's **the actual practice that makes them realise what they have to do.**

Interviewer: I see. Ok. And you let the other students to give feedback to the classmates.

Teacher: Yes.

Interviewer: So, we had peer assessment, lets say.

Teacher: **In hope that they'll learn from each other.**

Interviewer: I see. Ok. So they were laughing a lot. So it was an amusing thing for them.

Teacher: yes.

Interviewer: OK. So, did you do it at all because... Did you use peer assessment in order to relax them a little bit from?

Teacher: Of course. Because **it does relax them but a lot of times** I find that **students learn more from each other because they are peers than they receive from us as teachers.**

Exam influence on writing in the second term is more evident than in the first term in both the content and on the reasons why teachers use specific teaching strategies to teach writing. Teachers do writing tasks that resemble the exams and the way they teach writing aims at helping students to succeed in the exams. However, even if teachers' final aim is students to succeed in the exams the way they teach the writing skill is because they believe that can help students to understand and learn better. So, teachers' factors such as their educational beliefs and language learning are combined with exam success in the second term.

4.3.2.5 Listening Activities

Observations showed that listening activities conducted only in the multi-exam class. The TIE examination does not test the listening skill and this is the reason why teachers do not teach listening in the one-exam class. Listening activities in multi-exam class either strictly follow those in the coursebook, in the first term or they are drawn from past papers and practice tests, especially during the second term.

Follow-up interviews give valuable insight into the kind of activities both teachers use. More specifically, in multi-exam classes, in the first term, a variety of activities is conducted

closely following the coursebook, which is of a general B2 level, including listening activities which conform to the exam specifications of various B2 level exams. Extract 36 shows why teachers follow the book and do the all listening activities they find in the book.

Extract 36: Teacher 2: Listening activities (1st Term)

Teacher 2: In the first semester we are more influenced by the book. ...We will, we will do the skill. It's **maybe necessary because they change their minds further down.**

So teachers do listening activities although they are not in the exams targeted because they follow the book. In addition, teachers have to cover all possible exam task types in case students change their minds later on in the school year about which exam to sit for. This forces the teachers to do all the listening activities that are in the coursebook.

In the first term, teachers use translation to teach listening to the students. Teacher 2 uses translation in the listening activities because she believes that students should understand most of what the listening section asks for and practice step by step before letting them do the listening by themselves, which is done in the second term (Extract 37).

Extract 37: Teachers 2: Listening activities, 1st Term

Hopefully, we didn't translate the whole thing, but we tried to find words that were new to them. **So that they will build up their vocabulary gradually to a point where listening becomes much easier to them.** Because a lot of times, as soon as they hear something new, it throws them off. So, **preparing them little by little, to train them to do listening with things that they know and then eventually during the test - when they get ready for testing - we have to let them go and they have to be on their own after that.**

Teacher 1 also refers to listening in the speaking activities she does. Teacher 1 believes that students can practice listening through speaking and especially a listening activity that one of the exams has. Students need to complete words that are missing in one of the listening parts and the teacher practice it in combination with speaking. She believes that this will help students work on the listening technique. Even though it is the first term the teacher is influenced by the exams in the listening activities she does.

Extract 38: Teachers 2: Listening activities, 1st Term

I had the speaking in mind **so they can listen to each other**, but I also had **the listening a little bit where in level 3 you have to complete word that is missing**, listen and write only the key word, listen to what's missing. **I tried to combine these things**. We **have to work a little bit on the technique**.

The situation is even more exam-oriented in the one-exam classes. The teachers followed the coursebook even more closely in the first term, covering listening which is confined only to listening to the model texts of the writing model texts. So, students do not practice any listening activities since there is no listening comprehension in the exam. There is a case though that Teacher 1 refers to listening only with reference to speaking. She believes that students need to practice listening to their peers since in the speaking test they have to listen to the examiner. Extract 39 shows why the teacher practises speaking in combination with listening.

Extract 39: Teacher 1: Listening activities, 1st Term

Teacher: I think it's useful because, of course, **they're gonna be nervous when they'll be taking the exams so they can't remember everything so this, they can take some notes and then develop it**. Form it in sentences, or questions, whatever.

Interviewer: Because speaking is not only about speaking but listening as well.

Teacher: Yes

Interviewer: If they don't- if they cannot listen to their peers while they're in the examination that will prepare them for this

Teacher: Yes. Of course. **They won't be able to answer and they won't be able to do anything.**

Interviewer: Hm

Teacher: And it's **important just because when you're doing listening, you listen to the important part, you don't sit and write the entire sentence**. You write only the main parts, the key words.

This shows how much more influenced one-exam classes are by the exam throughout the year. There is no variation of activities as in multi-exam classes where students at least have the opportunity to be exposed to a larger variety of listening activities in the first term because they are preparing for a number of exams. Multi-exam classes experience a higher degree of washback during the second term. This trend is also apparent in the use of tasks,

as discussed in Section 4.2.2., by using mainly listening activities from past papers and/or practice tests and asking the students to complete them in a strict time limit.

Comparing to multi-exam classes, the listening activities were completely absent in one-exam classes, where the teachers spent time in other skills. This absence of the listening skill in one exam classes especially in the second term is highly due to the test as the teachers teach the materials assigned and considered in the final tests. In multi-exam classes though teachers following the book teach any listening activity since students have not decided yet what exam to sit for and they want to do a wide range of listening activities to prepare students properly for the exams.

4.3.3 Exam-Related Tasks and Activities

The discussion of tasks and activities in the preceding sections reveals the prominence of the use of exam-related tasks and activities for all skills taught even though the extent of their use depends on the type of the class and the term. This fact is directly related to the washback effect of exams on teaching, and it was therefore deemed necessary to present this type of tasks and activities in a separate section so as to consolidate the preceding analysis.

Exam-related tasks and activities are expected to be part of exam preparation classes so as to properly prepare students for the exams. Their main features are their adherence to exam specifications, such as the format of the exam and the strict time limit, as well as their contribution to familiarising students with test-taking strategies and the relevant exam tips. It therefore comes as no surprise that both teachers employ them heavily and especially in the second term when the exam date gets closer as can be seen in Table 4.14.

Table 4.13: Exam-related activities

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2
Multi-exam, 1 st Term	2	4
Multi-exam, 2 nd Term	33	22
One-exam, 1 st Term	10	7
One-exam, 2 nd Term	67	40

More specifically, and starting with Teacher 1, she uses many more exam-related activities in her one-exam classes than in her multi-exam classes, and this difference is more obvious during the second term (Table 4.14). For example, during this term she does only one activity

related to the exams and gets students to work in a strict time limit. However, this is not relevant to the exams but rather aims to make students realise that time will be an issue in actual exams, as well as to make them concentrate on the task without “goofing around”, as she puts it. This is a writing task included in the coursebook, and the teacher works on it with the students by putting it on the board. This shows that exam-related activities are used between terms for different reasons. Teacher 1, however, uses a lot more and different kinds of exam-related activities in the second term, especially in the form of mock tests. The reasons why Teacher 1 does the various exam-related activities are shown in the extracts below.

Extract 40: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Teacher 1: Mock Exams: ...because we have **to be precise**, too, so **they know exactly what they are going to be asked during the interview** and there should be any questions left...

Extract 41: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Mock Exams: ...because **they actually prepare you when you actually go and take the test**. You **know the time limitation**, you are used to it, you know how to work in a **specific time frame**, you know what the test is like, you are more acquainted to it so you are more focused when you go and actually take the test.

Extract 42: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Work under Time Limit: ...first to get acquainted with the procedure, how each section works...

Extract 43: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Exam techniques: Yeah. I don't want to get panicking, I don't want them to think just relax I know some words and they go there and they don't know any of the words and they are panicked. At least I'm trying to prepare them and in my own way I'm trying to tell them that it's vocabulary, learn the words, otherwise you are lost, you won't pass.

Extract 44: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Exam tricks: Yes, because I don't want them thinking “How easy is this test?” the sentences from the passage, see one here, that's the answer. I want them actually **think** and when they read the text I want them to be focused and actually understand it. If

they are not sure, go aback read it, understand it, find the meaning then answer the questions. Not just go and answer them randomly.

Extract 45: Teacher 1: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Exam Score: Yes. That's just for me. **I don't want them to get frustrated on anything like if one does really bad,** I don't want to say to him "That's bad, you are going to fail." **I don't want to disappoint them. This is just for me. To see and compare every time they do a score, if they are better, if they've improved, if they've fallen. So, I know what they are doing.**

As she explained in the follow-up interviews, she does so in order for the students to become more used to exam considerations such as time limits and of course the format of the exam. Therefore, mock tests are viewed by the teacher as "dress rehearsals" to keep students "on their toes" and not for them to be taken aback by the actual exam conditions. The teacher uses scores only to monitor her students' progress, so she does not discuss them with the students because she does not want them to be frustrated. She believes that students need time to learn how to work within a time limit, and that practising exam techniques and providing exam tips helps students not to panic. The teacher uses exam-related techniques to help students as much as she can in order to pass the exams. Also, the teacher spends time discussing the exam procedure because she wants to break the routine and help students relax.

In contrast, Teacher 2 uses approximately the same amount of exam-related activities in both types of class. More specifically, Teacher 2 uses less exam-related activities than Teacher 1 but approximately the same proportion in both multi-exam and one-exam classes (Table 4.14). However, most exam-related activities are given to students in the second semester in both multi-exam and one-exam classes.

Then in the second term, she most commonly gives students activities, tasks similar to the exam, and mock exams. She asks students to complete them in a strict time limit, while at the same time she provides students with exam techniques and tips. Extracts 46, 47 and 48 exemplify why Teacher 2 gets students to work in a strict time limit, gives exam techniques and tips and why she uses mock exams.

Extract 46: Teacher 2: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Work in a Strict Time Limit: It's hard for them to allocate their time effectively among the exercises they have to do. For example, how much time are they to spend on their composition, or how much time they're gonna spend on the reading that is based on the composition. And **once they have managed to work within the time limit, they will surely do better at the exam.**

Because I want them to **time themselves and see how they work under pressure.**

Extract 47: Teacher 2: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Exam tricks: ...they are students, they are teenagers, they are not college students or university students who have had extensive training with time management. So, **you have to help them along the way in order to prepare them so that they know what to do.**

Extract 48: Teacher 2: Exam-related activities, 2nd Term

Exam techniques: Exam is not only language learning, but **it's also techniques and how they are going to do it.**

Teacher 2 finds it very important to see how students work under pressure. Teacher 2 believes that mock exams train students for the exams and get them acquainted with the procedure so as to be prepared for the exams and to avoid exam-related stress as much as possible. As for exam techniques and tips, she believes that students need them because they are not acquainted with time management because of their age. By giving them the exam techniques helps them to be more prepared at the exam day. She also believes that exams are not only language learning but technique as well and students need to know it in order to perform better in the exams.

A comparison between the two teachers shows that both teachers give exam-related activities mainly in the second term. Looking into both teachers' comments on the use of exam-related activities, it is mainly students' success that makes them use so many exam-related activities since they believe this will help students prepare more effectively for the exams. Such an extensive use of exam-related activities in the second term shows clear evidence of negative and strong washback effect.

4.4 Teaching Strategies

This section focuses on the teaching strategies teachers use in exam preparation classes in order to do the tasks and activities such as the language they use (Greek or English), the type of feedback, the organisational patterns and the atmosphere that it is created in exam classes. Observations showed that teachers use a wide range of teaching strategies in their exam classes. Interviews indicate that teachers are influenced by the coursebooks on how to teach, and a number of other factors such as their experience, time and the level of the students. In the interview Teacher 2 stresses the importance of the teacher as a factor for the choice of teaching strategies in exam preparation courses referring to the teacher's educational background and his/her own experience as a language learner. According to Teacher 2 the more educated a teacher is the better teaching strategies will choose in order his/her teaching to be more effective. She also referred to the fact that she was a language learner herself and how this experience helped her to understand her students' needs. Students' abilities, and difficulties and so their level influence the teaching strategies the teacher uses. Also, the coursebook impose some influence but Teacher 2 believes that exams do not affect her teaching strategies (Extract 49).

Extract 49: Teacher 2: Teaching Strategies

Interviewer: Which factors do you think affect your teaching strategies? I mean the questions you use, the feedback you turn to your students- you give to your students, error correction you do, explanations and suggestions. Which factors do you think affect these teaching strategies in your classes?

Teacher: The abilities or the difficulties that they are having.

Interviewer: OK, I see.

Teacher: If they're having a lot of difficulties, we have to go more into detail and explain it. First of all, for them to understand in their native language what they should be doing and that way transfer it to the foreign language. If the ability is high, then you put* through it. It's much easier for the teacher and for the student.

Interviewer: Has your educational background helped you in your – the use of the teaching strategies?

Teacher: I think so. Learning first of all, a teacher that has had to learn a foreign language herself realizes what students are going through.

Interviewer: Hm, I see.

Teacher: Knowing the first and second language really helps the teacher. And more educated a teacher is the better they will be able to give that -to pass the information on to the other student.

Interviewer: OK. So, mainly the level of the students and the students' needs affect how you teach. OK

Teacher: And their social background and so on.

Teacher: I would say my experience and the course book.

Interviewer: Not the exams?

Teacher: No.

Extract 50: Teacher 1: Teaching Strategies

Interviewer: What are the factors that most influence your teaching strategies, interaction patterns, the language that you use, the feedback?

Teacher: The students basically. The level of the students. If they are at a lower point, I have to explain more, do extra effort. At a higher level the class is much more easier for me, too.

Interviewer: The exams do not affect you at all on your teaching strategies?

Teacher: No, it's basically the same. The child makes a mistake and I correct it no matter what. The compositions, the speaking.

Interviewer: Or the Greek or English language, the fact that they sit for the exams in the end. You told me that you speak more English, is it because of the exams?

Teacher: Yes.

Interviewer: So, exams affect your teaching strategies but not on everything. For example, the TIE examination needs cooperation between the students, pair work and group work, and you do that. So, the exam affects your interaction patterns...

Teacher: Yes, but up to a point.

Interviewer: What about your professional training, or your teaching experience that you have? Do these affect your teaching strategies or not?

Teacher: No, not really. I just want to teach as well as I can, the students understand what is going on and I help them pass.

Interviewer: How about the course book? Some course books give students some advice how to.

Teacher: Yes, we do that, too. We read it, we discuss it, if they have some questions, what they think.

Similarly, teacher 1 believes teaching strategies are affected by students' level. She believes that exams do not affect all her teaching strategies and if they do so it is up to a point. Contrary to Teacher 2 she mentions that the educational background and the teaching experience does not influence her. Teacher 2 refers to the coursebook as well regarding the choice of teaching strategies as Teacher 1 does.

The sections that follow contain information from observations and follow-up interviews for each teaching strategy separately and show what teaching strategies teachers actually use in exam preparation classes and how they choose them.

4.4.1 Language use

The analysis of the observations shows that teachers in both one-exam and multi-exam classes use both English and Greek, with the use of English being considerably higher than the use of Greek (Table 4.15). In fact, English is used almost twice as much as Greek.

Table 4.14: Language Use in multi-exam and one-exam classes

English	2202
Greek	1288

Looking into language use separately for each teacher and each term, in the framework of multi-exam classes, the results suggest that both teachers use more than double English in relation to Greek. It is of importance the fact that Teacher 1 rarely uses Greek in the first term while in the second term make more use of Greek (Table 4.16).

Table 4.15: Language Use in multi-exam class

	English	Greek
Teacher 1, Multi-exam, 1 st Term	285	33
Teacher 2, Multi-exam, 1 st Term	309	143
Teacher 1, Multi-exam, 2 nd Term	283	140
Teacher 2, Multi-exam, 2 nd Term	278	194

This is mainly due to the fact that students in multi-exam classes have a higher level of English and feel therefore more confident with it (Extracts 51 and 52). Teacher 1 in Extracts 51, 52 and 53 illustrates teachers' views on the use of English or Greek in the multi-exam class.

Extract 51: Teacher 1: Language Use, Multi-exam class

...when we do checking, **depending on the level**, I try to **use as much English as I can**. When we go further down and **I explain the lesson, or when we do grammar it's English and Greek, mostly Greek so that they can understand it**.

Extract 52: Teacher 1: Language Use, Multi-exam class

To be honest with you, **it's the level of the students**. Because **if the level is adequate**, it's very nice, it's very high, **I don't have a problem speaking in English**. And since they come here they want to learn English, they want to speak in English. But, **if I see the level is a little bit lower and I can't get through them only in English, of course I have to speak in Greek**.

Extract 53: Teacher 2: Language Use, Multi-exam class

First of all, the point is **to get them to use the language in communication**. However, **I do use even Greek because I think the native language can give them a lot of information and it's passed on quickly**. They do not have enough time to go through and search in the dictionary to find the word. **You have to give it to them ready**. Because they are pressured for time.

The extract shows that teachers use English or Greek depending on what they teach. For example, they use English to check students work but English and Greek in combination when they need to explain the lesson and especially grammar in order students to understand better. The level of students is a significant factor for the choice of the language in class, meaning that if the level is low then teachers explain using Greek (Extract 52). Teacher 2 highlights the importance of English since this is the language students learn and should practice. However, she feels the need to use Greek because she believes that using the students' native language helps them to understand and saves them time when doing their homework (Extract 53). So, a number of different factors as Teacher 1 mentions, influence the choice of language in a multi-exam class.

However, language use differ between the two teachers when it comes to one-exam classes, as can be seen in Table 4.17. More specifically, Teacher 1 heavily uses Greek during the first term, but in the second term, she prefers to use English. Teacher 2, on the other hand, uses some Greek in the first term and only English in the second term.

Table 4.16: Language Use in one-exam class

	English	Greek
Teacher 1, One-exam, 1 st Term	264	646
Teacher 2, One-exam, 1 st Term	183	78
Teacher 1, One-exam, 2 nd Term	253	52
Teacher 2, One-exam, 2 nd Term	347	2

Extracts 54 and 55 demonstrate the reason why teachers prefer English over Greek. Teachers prefer Greek in the first term mainly due to the level of the students in one-exam classes being lower. The teacher believes that the first term permits her to use Greek since the exams are not close in time enough (Extract 54). However, teachers have to use English more extensively during the second term because the format of the TIE exam involves a lot of speaking and students need to practice (Extract 55). In fact, the speaking section is half of the exam with writing being the other half. Exam format influences teachers significantly in the use of English because speaking skills favour the use of English.

Extract 54: Teacher 1: Language Use, 1st Term, One-exam class

Because, first of all, **the level of this class is pretty low, so if I asked them in English they wouldn't be able to get their message across and they wouldn't be able to express what they thought.** So, OK, I thought to do it in Greek; **we still have time, we can work on the English later.**

Extract 55: Teacher 2: Language Use, 2nd Term, One-exam class

As we are talking about orals, speaking, thinking, writing, **we try to use only the English language as much as possible. Because now they have to stop thinking in Greek and use the English language** in order to write their compositions for the exams.

Classroom observations and follow-up interviews reveal a lot of information with regard to the exact way the teachers use the two languages within the classroom. Teachers use Greek when they translate and explain the lesson, give feedback and explain or inform students for the exams. The extracts below are some examples of the use of Greek, taken from the classroom observations.

Extract 56: Teacher 1: Use of Greek- Translation

Κι αυτό μολυσμένο, αλλά για ασθένειες (It also means contaminated, but for diseases.)

Now look, όλες οι λέξεις εδώ έχουν να κάνουν με δηλητηρίαση (all words here have to do with poisoning) “contaminated” can be for water, “infected” can be most likely for a person with a disease, “poison” is something that it is deadly and “pollute” would be again for the water, for the environment and so.

Student: “Pollute” or “infect”?

Teacher 1: “infect”, “You should wash the wound so that it doesn’t get infected” What is wound in here?

Student: Τι είναι wound; (What is wound?)

Teacher 1: Λέει, να το πλύνεις ώστε να μην μολυνθεί (It says, you should wash the wound so that it doesn’t get infected.)

Probably it means with disinfectants and not with water.

Extract 57: Teacher 2: Use of Greek- Feedback

Teacher 2: (teacher gives definition in English). You have to make your main work done and then go for the details. **Μην τα ψειρίζετε πάρα πολύ και μετά δεν σας μένει χρόνος.** (Don’t look for details so much and then run out of time.) **Πρέπει να μάθεις να κάνεις τη δουλειά σου.** (You must learn to do your job.) **Μην ξεχάσεις το θέμα.** (Don’t forget the topic.) You have to ask about the trip, the weather, the activities and anything else that’s important for you to find.

Student: Για το καιρό; (About the weather?)

Teacher 2: **Ρωτάμε για το ταξίδι, για τον καιρό, τις δραστηριότητες και ότι άλλο είναι σημαντικό για εσένα.** (We ask about the trip, the weather, the activities and anything else that’s important to you.)

Στο καιρό θα ρωτήσεις τι ρούχα θα πάρεις. (About the weather you will ask what kind of clothes you should take with you.)

Extract 58: Teacher 1: Use of Greek – Exam-related Activities

Όχι, το investigation το λέτε και οι 2. (No, both of you will present your investigation.) Λες εσύ το investigation και σου λέω εγώ “What is your investigation about?” και μου το παρουσιάζεις. Θα έχεις το log book ανοιχτό, θα βλέπεις τις φωτοτυπίες σου, θα τις έχεις μπροστά σου, μπορείς να κοιτάς μέσα, να αναφέρεσαι κανονικά. Θα σε ρωτάω εγώ 2, 3 πράγματα. (You present your investigation and I’ll ask you “What is your investigation about?” and you present it. You will have your log book in front of you, you will have your photocopies, you can look inside and refer to it. I will ask you 2, 3 things.)

With regard to the Greek language, teachers use it mainly when they translate and they do so in all types of activities such as grammar, vocabulary, speaking, writing, as well as reading activities. They even use Greek when they give feedback and explanations on the lesson of the day or on exams. Extract 59 illustrates why teachers believe that it is important to use Greek especially in the latter case and that is better understanding.

Extract 59: Teacher 1: Use of Greek- Exam-related Activities

Because Greek is their mother language, the advice I'll give them I want to be sure they'll understand it, and especially the techniques and the strategies and the grammar. I have to say them in Greek, that's the way they understand it.

Also, teachers point out that if they feel a piece of information is very important for the exams, they believe that conveying it in Greek will help students remember it longer (Extract 60).

Extract 60: Teacher 1: Use of Greek, One-exam class, 2nd Term

Well, yes. The directions for this TIE group-yes, we have to do it in Greek. Because their English has improved compared to the last term but it's still not at the level where I can speak only English to them and I am sure that they understand everything.

Therefore, the use of language depend on what teachers do in class and other factors related to the level of the students and how much they understand. There is a washback effect especially in the second term because understanding and explaining the exam procedures and requirements stress teachers more because of the exam.

4.4.2 Instances of Laughter and Stress

Keeping a record of the instances of laughter gave a general indication of the atmosphere in the classes. The overall atmosphere between the two types of class and across terms was different, and counting the instances of laughter and stress or reprimand gives an indication of these differences. More specifically, more instances of laughter are recorded in the one-exam class, especially during the first term, than in the multi-exam one as can be seen in Table 4.18.

Table 4.17: Instances of laughter in multi-exam and one-exam classes

	1 st Term	2 nd Term
Multi-exam Class	15	13
One-exam Class	41	15

Laughter occurs more frequently during pair and group work and when students interact with one another in both classes. Extract 61 is an example that shows how students feel when they do pair work in a speaking lesson. In addition, there is more laughter and feelings of happiness and relaxation when students do speaking tasks as well as activities or tasks that are not in the coursebook (Extract 62).

Extract 61: Teacher 1: Instances of Laughter, Multi-exam class

Teacher: Put your books in your bag, we don't need our books today.

Students: Yeeeeehhh. (Laughter)

Teacher: **Take your notebooks out.** Close the door. Listen, there are four of you tonight because Georgia isn't here today, it doesn't matter. All four of **you will work together as a group.** You will find, come up with, think and write eight questions that you would like to ask each other.

Extract 62: Teacher 1: Instances of Laughter

They are more cheerful, they are happier, they were more relaxed. It was something that they enjoyed to do whereas **with the coursebook it was constant, monotonous, exercise, exercise.**

Laughter occurs more frequently in one-exam classes. The personalities of specific students of the class and the types of relationship which existed between students and the fact that they were adults could be expected to have affected instances of laughter in the classrooms. Laughter typically arises during pair and group work and in speaking, the very types of interaction which predominated in one-exam class. Laughter also arises when students make mistakes or cannot say something in English.

However, the atmosphere is less relaxed, and students experience stress during writing activities, as well as vocabulary ones, especially in multi-exam classes. These moments of stress are recorded mainly when teachers reprimand students because they talk among them, interrupt the lesson or do not pay attention. To illustrate, teachers' comments in interviews

can shed light into the emotional state of students as far as stress is concerned. Extracts 63 and 64 exemplify it.

Extract 63: Teachers 1: Instances of Stress

Let's see, **as time approaches for the exams they are kind of stressed out** because they don't know what to expect. That's when they start realising that they are the ones they are going to sit the exams.

Extract 64: Teachers 2: Instances of Stress

They're really - they're young students. They really don't have that much stress. Passing this exam is just the way for them to go on to the next level as most of them have already sat elementary exams in the past. So it's just a matter of advancing to the next level. **Then, just before the exams when they start doing mock interviews, they freeze up when you call them to go into the next room for their interview.** And it's like - you know - a strange teacher is (being) interviewing them.

It can thus be concluded that the amount of laughter in the classroom is influenced by the students' personalities and the relationship among them, as well as by the skill being practiced, especially if that skill involves pair work and group work. However, in the second term, exam stress becomes more frequent and intense, and thus instances of laughter are reduced. Instances of stress can also experienced depending the skill that is taught. Teaching practices, students' age and personalities and the skills can create pleasant atmosphere in the exam classes whereas exams cause stress. So, in the second term there is more stressed experienced because the exams get closer.

4.4.3 Organisation Patterns and Work Mode

There are some similarities between the ways Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 organise their classroom teaching in both multi-exam and one-exam classes, with teacher-to-student (T→S(s)) being the most frequently used pattern (Table 4.19).

Table 4.18: Organisational patterns in multi-exam and one-exam classes

	T→S(s)	S→T,C	Without Sup.
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	2	0	0
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	1	0	0
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	3	0	0
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	1	7	0
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	4	0	1
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	4	0	2
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	8	4	2
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	1	0	1

The observational data show that both teachers spend quite a lot of time on each skill in both classes by explaining activities and tasks, working on writing activities together with the students, presenting new vocabulary and grammatical points, as well as translating. Obviously, the teacher is the predominant focus of the classes. The difference is that teachers in one-exam classes get students to present and participate as well that is the reason why the table above shows S->T,C interaction (Table 4.19). This is because of the format of the TIE examination in which students are required to present their own work and answer questions on their topics and their peers' topic. However, this takes place only in the second term before the exams in order for students to get acquainted with the procedure. Moreover, teachers sometimes allow students to work by themselves without supervision (Without Sup.). This takes place mainly in the second term in both classes when students practice mock tests.

Teachers give specific reasons during the follow-up interviews as to why they use the specific organisational patterns. Extract 65 demonstrates teacher's reasons why it is teacher controlled. Teacher 1 mentions that it is the coursebook that guides her teaching in the specific way, and that if she did not have the book she would use more group work and let students work together.

Extract 65: Teachers: Organisational Patterns

Maybe **I would do a little more group work (if there was not the coursebook)** where they can work together by themselves and **not me guiding them what to do exactly**. I let figure it out on their own, see what they come up with.

Moving onto the teachers' preferred work mode, Table 4.20 illustrates that there is some variation in that area between teachers. Working with the whole class seems to be the preferable mode to a large extent, and that is why the teacher-to-student or -class organisational pattern is the most frequently used one (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19: Work mode in multi-exam and one-exam classes

	Group Work	Pair Work	Individual Work	Work with Class
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	2	2	0	2
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	0	0	0	12
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	0	2	1	6
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	1	1	3	1
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	0	0	2
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	0	4	3
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	5	0	0
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	0	1	0	1

Teacher 1 even writes essays with the students on the board rather than letting them do it by themselves. Teacher 2 translates model texts from the writing task and does reading texts, as well as grammar and vocabulary activities, most of the times with the whole class. Extracts 66 and 67 illustrate why teachers do so.

Extract 66: Teachers 1: Work Mode – Teacher-to-student

So, in this way, **they keep the plan for future reference and know exactly what to write in each paragraph.** So maybe they **learn a couple of new things** like new vocabulary, how to put their ideas in a correct order.

Extract 67: Teachers 1: Work Mode – Teacher-to-student

I think **it's important at the beginning to read the passages with them and guide them along.** And afterwards, little by little you leave them on their own. When they are ready to fly, you let them go. But, **up to that point you have to help them get where they are supposed to be.**

Teacher 1 uses these work modes in order to guide students, make sure they will do the work assigned, and have ready-made material to study for the exams. Teacher 2 chooses to work with the whole class in order for them to better understand the task at hand. So, the most common type of interaction is Teacher to Class/ Students, which means that the teacher is

the main focus for most of the lesson in order to guide and control students and assure that students understand.

Apart from working with the whole class, which is the preferred work mode, the use of group work and pair work by the teachers reveals interesting results. There are some differences in the use of pair and group work between the two types of classes across terms. For example, in multi-exam classes, teachers get students that sit for different exams to work together, and this is done mainly while practising writing and speaking only during the first term and only on topics that the teacher believes all exams include. Extracts 68 and 69 are examples of teacher's 1 beliefs about pair and group work in multi-exam class.

Extract 68: Teachers 1: Work Mode - Pair & Group Work

It was because of speaking, yes, because whatever test you take, you have speaking... I wanted them **to get used to working by themselves on the test and instead of me asking all the questions, I actually got them involved, I wanted them to participate a little bit and they asked each other the questions.** Also, **I want them to get used to the idea of asking questions** and I thought, instead of me asking the questions, which would be boring because that's what I always do, **they could take the lead. I want them to take the initiative** and see what interesting questions they can come up with.

Extract 69: Teachers 1: Work Mode - Pair & Group Work

I thought it would be fun for them. They actually talk to each other, **see what one would come up with and the other compare it.** And I noticed that one corrected the other. One said "That's a good idea, let's use that." So, **I wanted them to work together and see what each one can come up with so that they can work together.**

So, the teacher in multi-exam classes tries to combine the exams and find similarities to get students to work together. In addition, the teacher does group work to change the routine of the class by doing something that is not included in the coursebook. She uses pair work in order to involve students and make them participate. She believes that pair work helps students to take the lead and the initiative and get used of them asking rather than the teacher to do it which she finds boring. Pair work is a more interesting work mode than teacher to class one for teacher 1, it is fun for students that helps students learn from each other.

At this point, it is interesting to note that pair and group work are not used in the second term in multi-exam classes since the exam dates are getting closer and teachers place more emphasis on mock tests which constitute individual work without supervision. On the other hand, in one-exam classes, things are different because teachers keep on using pair work in the second term, as well since students are tested in pairs in TIE examination. Extracts 70, 71 and 72 contain both teachers' comment on why they use pair or group work in one-exam class.

Extract 70: Teachers 1: Work Mode - Pair & Group Work, One-exam class

It was more interesting because as I said, they [the students] **are weak** and if I let them do everything on their own, they wouldn't have accomplished much, they would have gotten stuck; I don't know a word, I don't know the grammar tense, I don't know how to start. **So in this way, in pairs, they, actually it felt like they were working with somebody so they can -you know- express their own opinion, the other one could say "I agree" or "No, I disagree", let's see what you have.**

Extract 71: Teachers 2: Work Mode - Pair & Group Work, One-exam class

Yes, I want them to work together in pairs **so that they could express their opinions to each other and decide on the best material to use.** One group did a bit better than the other one in separating the paragraphs and following instructions, and one of the best students had the hardest time organising his work because he's never done something like that before even though he is a good student and it's something we would normally think is easy. But just the thought of writing a letter of acceptance confused him a lot.

Extract 72: Teachers 1: Work Mode - Pair & Group Work, One-exam class

I wanted them to **get used to work by themselves** on the test- and **instead of me asking all the questions, I actually got them involved.** I wanted them to **participate a little bit and they asked each other the questions.**

Teachers believe that group work and pair work in one-exam class is interesting because of the level of the students. The students' level of English in the specific class is low and teacher 1 believes that pair work will help them more rather than work by themselves (Extract 70). Pair work helps students to collaborate, exchange ideas and express themselves better since both teachers mention that helps them express their opinion (Extract 71). Teachers choose group work and pair work in one exam class because they think that it will help students to

get involved in the lesson and participate (Extract 72). Teachers continue using pair and group work even in the second term because of the format of the TIE examination which is based on pair-work as students must present their work, as well as comment on their peers' work and ask him/her questions. However, this is not the only consideration when choosing pair-work for one-exam classes. Teachers refer to the level of the students being low, which leads them to believe that working together can actually help them. By comparison both teachers in both classes use pair and group work in order to involve students and make them participate. In one-exam class though pair work is used not only because of the exam format in the speaking section but also because of the level of the students which is low. In multi-exam class pair and group work makes the lesson more fun changing the routine of the class. Compared with teacher to class/student mode which is used because it can help students more pair and group work is used to make students participate and have fun.

Moving on to how teachers use individual work, it is obvious from Table 4.19 above, that they use it in both classes but only in the second term inasmuch as they leave students unsupervised to do mock tests. Some of the reasons teachers provided are given in the extracts below.

Extract 73: Teacher 1: Work Mode – Individual Work

We use it **to save some time**, too. I'm not going to sit here and supervise them during the class when I'm with them. **We can use it to do more beneficial things; talk about it, exam strategies, everything. They are not going to have the teacher ask anything, how do I do this, what does this mean, you are on your own.**

Extract 74: Teachers 1 Work Mode – Individual Work

The time limit as they are going to take in the exams, to pretend that they are actually taking the exams.

Extract 75: Teacher 2: Work Mode – Individual Work

Because I **want them to time themselves and see how they work under pressure.**
...see the procedure and prepare...

One reason that teachers let students work by themselves and unsupervised is the time limit which is something that the exams ask for (Extract 73). Teachers need to see students' progress and performance under pressure as they will be in the exam environment (Extract

74). Teachers believe that students should get used of the exam procedure and to work under pressure as the exams ask for. Another reason is the fact that students will have to learn to depend on their own knowledge and abilities since they will be alone in the exams (Extract 75). Another reason is that teachers feel that they do not have enough time to do everything so as Teacher 1 mentions she lets students do the mock tests alone and she uses the time she is with them to teach and talk about the exam (Extract 73).

As a whole, a close look into the above data shows that multi-exam classes are more teacher-dominated than one-exam classes. Adherence to the coursebook and the format of the exams influence the teachers' organisational patterns and work mode, while in the second term teachers are more influenced by the exams. Both teachers favour pair or group-work which may enhance the students' engagement with the material and offer them more opportunities to speak. This is especially true for one-exam classes where lessons are more interactive because of the format of the TIE exam. However, in multi-exam classes the format of the exams for which students are being prepared, does not allow teachers to organise more student-oriented activities and have a more active role.

4.4.4 Feedback

Feedback refers to all the comments that teachers make when learners say something or do a task or activity. Almost all the feedback came from the teacher except 1% that came from the students in the form of peer assessment. Findings from the observations show that teachers use a variety of feedback types (feedback on the item, feedback on exams, feedback for correction and feedback from students) as can be seen in Table 4.21. Teachers use more feedback on items, which means answers or comments on the activity or task students do, than any other form of feedback. Other forms of feedback aim at correcting students' mistakes and at providing them with feedback about exam requirements. However, teachers do not use feedback from students almost at all (Table 4.21).

Table 4.20: Total use of feedback

Feedback on Item	560
Feedback on Exams	304
Feedback for Correction	272
Feedback from Students	3

More specifically, the teachers give feedback on the taught item in order to reward students or to confirm that the answer is correct or not. Such feedback is a word like ‘bravo’, ‘well done’ or the repetition of the correct answer. Extract 76 exemplifies such a feedback.

Extract 76: Teacher 1: Feedback on Item

Student: “with”

Teacher: Bravo.

Student: Mr ...

Student: “Dear Sir/ Madam”

Teacher: “Dear Sir/ Madam”

It can also take the form of providing students with an answer to their question about something they do not know or understand. Even translation of words from English into Greek and vice versa are considered feedback on items. Extract 77 is an example of such feedback.

Extract 77: Teacher 2: Feedback on Item using translation

Student: (asks for unknown word “rise”)

Teacher: “rise” (teacher gives definition in Greek) “the sun rises”

Student: “declare” (asks for meaning)

Teacher: (gives definition in Greek) “Do you have anything to declare at customs?”

Student: “reject”?

Teacher: (gives definition in Greek)

Student: (student reads) “reject”?

Teacher: “reject” or “rejected”

Teachers in the first term provide mainly feedback on the item (Table 4.22). Feedback on exams is only provided in the second term in both classes, thus putting forward the influence of exams on feedback during the second term (Table 4.22).

Table 4.21: Feedback in both exam classes

	Feedback on Item	Feedback on Exams	Feedback for Correction	Feedback from Students
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	156	0	0	0
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 1 st Term	137	0	0	0
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	94	0	132	0
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 1 st Term	35	0	2	0
Teacher 1, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	51	118	4	3
Teacher 2, Multi-exam Class, 2 nd Term	45	129	55	0
Teacher 1, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	12	100	38	0
Teacher 2, One-exam Class, 2 nd Term	30	100	41	0

Teachers are more interested in teaching students how to write and speak than preparing them for the exams in the first term and that is the reason why there is not feedback on the exams. They are more interesting in making students understand and learn how to use the language. Follow-up interviews show how teachers think when provide feedback either on the item or for correction. Extract 78 and 79 show why teachers use feedback in the first term in both classes.

Extract 78: Teacher 2: Feedback, 1st Term

ME: I hope that it will help **them use the technique of the language**. I want them **to know not only the word, but how they will use it in the structure of the language**.

ME: I feel, basically, **they don't understand the meanings of the tenses** and so on in their native language.

Extract 79: Teacher 1: Feedback, 1st Term

ME: Yes, I **wanted to correct their mistakes so they wouldn't make them again during the interview**, of course. By the time we get to the interview hopefully half of these mistakes will have disappeared, so mainly yes, the interview now. I want them to get used to speaking, but not actually having the interview in mind. I don't want them to feel nervous "Oh, I have to say this. Did I include it?" I want it to come naturally, you know, your favorite book, and why, because I like this and this, as much as I can.

OE: No, I **just wanted to get it right**. Why we use comparative here, why use superlative here.

However, when teachers practice speaking with students provide feedback to them quite differently. Observations showed in reading, grammar, vocabulary and listening classes they provide feedback to the whole class or the student immediately. In speaking teachers allowed students to express themselves without interrupting them and provide more general comments and corrections in the end of the activity or the task. So, the way the feedback is provided differentiates between the skills taught rather than between teachers and classes. Extracts 80 and 81 show how teachers provide feedback in speaking classes.

Extract 80: Teacher 1: Feedback, 1st Term

When they make mistakes when they talk I think it's rude to interrupt them every two seconds to correct them because that knocks down their confidence. They think "I am making too mistakes, just forget it" and they will climb up and they won't say anything. For that I try to use my own way. **I let them finish till the end and then I make general comments.**

Extract 81: Teacher 2: Feedback, 1st Term

If you start correcting them too much, they'll stop and nobody will say anything. Now, that it's only natural that they make mistakes, but they might think it's more important to make a mistake than it is not to try to use the language you've been taught.

Feedback differs though between terms. In the second term teachers provide all kinds of feedback that comes from the teacher with an increase of feedback on exams (Table 4.21). Teachers in the second term have the exams in mind and they try to train students how to do their best in the exams. Considering the use of exam-related activities in the second term (see section 4.2.8) which includes doing mock tests and scoring according to the exams then there is a strong washback effect in the second term. Extract ? shows how Teacher 1 provides feedback on the exam. The teacher comments on student's performance taking into consideration the PTE exam requirements. Extracts 82, 83 and 84 prove how teachers think regarding feedback in the second term.

Extract 82: Teacher 1: Feedback on exams

Teacher 1: Thank you. Σχόλια. Τα ανέπτυξες πάρα πολύ καλά. Μίλησες πολύ καλά στα προσωπικά σου. Στο δεύτερο κομμάτι για τις μεγάλες πόλεις είχες επιχειρήματα, μια χαρά τα ανέπτυξες, μπράβο σου. Οι εικόνες ωραιότατα. Μπορείς αν πεις ότι το ένα είναι πιο μοντέρνο, το άλλο πιο εξεζητημένο, κάτι που θα μπορούσε αν φορέσει ένα αστέρι για να

τραβήξει την προσοχή. Και το τελευταίο μου άρεσε πάρα πολύ και το έκανες τελείως φυσικά. Μπράβο παιδί μου. Λοιπόν, μια χαρά τα πήγατε. (Comments. **You did very well with your personal information. In the second part about big cities you had a lot of arguments; you developed them very well, well done. The description was good. You could have said that the one is more modern, the other one is more extreme, it's something a star would wear to attract attention. And the last part I liked it very much and you did it naturally, well done. Do you have any questions about the oral exams for the PTE?**).

Extract 83: Teacher 1: Feedback, 2nd Term

Well, when I give them feedback, it's to correct the vocabulary or the grammar, so that's general. **But of course, now I have the exams in mind**, so I'm on that right now.

Extract 84: Teacher 2: Feedback, 2nd Term

Language is language **but now we have to train them to do their best in the time that they have for the exams.**

Teacher 1 explains that she gives this type of feedback in order to help students get the answers right and understand everything properly. She focuses on language, as in the first term, but she emphasises that she has the exams in her mind since it is the second term (Extract 83). As for the aim of providing feedback on exams especially during the second term, Teacher 2 says that she wants to help students do well in the exams by making them avoid the same mistakes and by making students realise the importance of doing everything correctly in the exam time limit (Extract 84). Feedback is influenced in both classes in the second term by exams.

Actually, in these rare occasions, the teachers ask students to provide feedback. Extract 85 shows why teachers choose to provide such a feedback.

Extract 85: Teacher 1: Feedback from students

I think that's **a funny moment for them**, because of course **they have to pay attention to the other student while they are talking**, and **I want to see how they think** compared to the grammar mistakes, the vocabulary. I want to hear their feedback, **if they actually understand what the other student said. Do they realise the mistakes the other student made? Are they in a position to correct them? I want to see what they think.**

The teacher asks students to give feedback because she finds it amusing for students. She manages to get students to pay attention and concentrate since they need to listen to their classmates carefully. The teacher does so also in order to see if students have understood and if they are able to correct the others' mistakes. The teacher considers understanding her students and what they think important and allowing them to comment on their classmates work she can understand it. She believes that it is important for students to be able to understand and identify others' mistakes and correct them. So, this type of feedback is not related to the exams.

On the whole, teachers generally give ad hoc feedback that often concentrated on language accuracy in order to help students understand and learn the language in both terms. In addition to these forms of feedback, teachers add feedback for exams in the second term when exam dates are getting closer. On the other hand, teachers do ask students to provide feedback in order to see how much they pay attention and what they think about the activity they do although student feedback is not used extensively. Feedback in general differentiate among terms but not classes and teachers and it has a strong washback effect in the second term however not on how teachers provide it to students but on what they tell them which focuses on exams as well rather than only the language.

Teaching practices, by and large, are influenced by a wide range of factors which differentiate between teachers, type of classes, terms and skills. Activities and tasks are influenced mainly by the coursebook and the exams and the teaching practices by students', teachers' and classes' characteristics. The factors influence the first and the second term differently as well presenting a stronger washback effect in the second term. Teachers differentiate between themselves and type of classes since they differ in the teaching practices. There is evidence that the exams are having impact on the teaching practices in classes but exams do not appear to influence all teaching practices in both terms directly. Activities and tasks as well as materials, the second term and one-exam class are strongly affected by the exams. Regarding teaching practices, the first term and the multi-exam class teachers' personal preferences, students' and social characteristics played major roles in their classroom practice, thus largely weakening the potential influence of the exams. Obviously, test effects on classroom teaching are –directly or indirectly.

4.4.5 Explanations, Suggestions and Instructions

Explanations, suggestions and instructions are comments that teachers make to students in order to help them understand something better. Teachers explain and give instructions about the lesson of the day such as on activities and tasks, language points, homework or things that students do not understand and on exams. Findings from the observations showed that teachers use a lot more explanations and suggestions regarding the lesson and the activities or tasks they do in class rather than the exam or exams (Table 4.23).

Table 4.22: Total use of explanations and suggestions

Explanations on exams	55
Explanations on Language Points	193

In the second term the explanations and suggestions were in the lesson of the day which was focused on exams and therefore the explanations and suggestions referred to exams or teachers had the exams on their mind. The main reasons that teachers explain and suggest ways to do something to students is in order to help them, when they feel they do not understand something and not to repeat the same mistake in the exam (Extract 86). Also, teacher 2 provides explanations and suggestion on exams in order students to learn how to answer the question in speaking for the exams (Extract 87).

Extract 86: Teacher 1: Explanations and Suggestions in the 2nd Term

So, sometimes when you explain to them when they are speaking, **they remember it a little bit better so they won't repeat the mistake.**

Extract 87: Teacher 2: Explanations and Suggestions in the 2nd Term

Yes, I provide suggestions on exams in order **to advise them on how to answer the questions, and not answer them briefly in the exams.**

Teachers provided a lot of explanations and suggestions in Greek and the reason for doing so is the level of the students and the fact that teachers believe that students would not understand it in English. The extract below provides teacher's 1 reasons for providing explanations in Greek.

Extract 88: Teachers 1: Explanations and Suggestions in Greek

Because certain-specific bunch we're dealing with today is **very very weak**. So, **they have a hard time understanding** and expressing themselves in English **so I have to explain everything in Greek so they know exactly what they are going to do**.

It is interesting that Teacher 1 considers providing explanations and suggestions to students in the first term a duty. This is shown in the extract below.

Extract 89: Teachers 1: Explanations and Suggestions

Now, at the beginning I can do that, you know, help them a little bit. Actually, I'm their teacher and I want to help them.

Finally, it was really interesting that teachers in the multi-exam class gave a lot of explanations on the exams because of the nature of the class. Teachers felt that they should explain each exams' requirements to students in order not to get confused since they should cope with more than one exam. The extract below is an illustration of it.

Extract 90: Teachers 1: Explanations and Suggestions on Exams in multi-exam class

Yes, because I didn't want to confuse both the oral exam. **I want them to be clear that this is the Michigan and this is how we do it, step one, step two and be focused only on that. Afterwards, it's a different oral exam.**

The data from observations and follow-up interviews shows that teachers in the first term explain and suggest to students on the lesson of the day while in the second term they provide suggestions and explanation related to the exams' needs. However, suggestions and explanations do not differentiate between multi-exam and one-exam class.

4.5 Teachers' Beliefs of B2 level Exam Classes

An additional contribution of the interviews conducted with the participating teachers was the insight they offered as to their perceptions about multi-exam and one-exam classes at the B2 level. Looking into their beliefs about planning exam classes and the English language exam system in Greece was a valuable complement to the data collected in other parts of the study. The teachers' experience of exam classes and their perceptions about any differences that exist between the two terms were also sought. In addition, they express their views about

exam classes in Greece in general. They put forward the students' level, their age, the exam format, as well as various social factors and parents' pressure as the conditions under which they make their decisions about how to organise their exam classes.

Teachers, throughout the two interviews and the follow-ups, commented on the fact that nowadays there are so many high-stakes exams to choose from in Greece. The extracts below are examples of how teachers characterise the exam culture in Greece.

Extract 91: Teacher 1: Multi-exam context

I think **it's better** because children, **based on how good they are in certain area, can choose what exam they want to do**. Whether they are good in grammar, they can choose Cambridge. It's good, though, **because they try all of them and see where they are better at**. Which one they are better at, they get that exam. I think it's good that **they have options to choose from**.

Extract 92: Teacher 1: Multi-exam context

There are so many choices to choose from, we see what child is stronger, we kind of push him to that direction. If somebody is really good in grammar, we push him towards Cambridge. If somebody has very good vocabulary, Michigan or PTE. For adults, now we have TIE, it's better. Because adults are not going to spend so many hours reading grammar all from the beginning, while for the students they are used to it. It's not something new to them; they are already in that concept. The adult doesn't have the luxury to sit down and actually do all the grammar exercises. He is mostly used to talk.

Extract 93: Teacher 1: Multi-exam context

Now, though, I think it's better because children based on how good they are in certain area, can choose what exam they want to do.

Extract 94: Teacher 1: Multi-exam context

That's good, though, because before when we only had the Michigan and the Cambridge, the first couple of years when I started teaching basically they all chose the Michigan, because Cambridge is all about grammar. So, **I was for two years every single now and then, every single school I went to, because we were at three, it was the Michigan book**. **We had to do the little black book and I had to do it for three hours in a row**. **Afterwards, I was sick of it**. So, now **I like it that we change books every two or three**

years based on what new certificate comes out. So, it's interesting for me to learn the new ways of test, how it is done, and I like the fact that we change books. We do something different, because you get tired after a while.

Extract 95: Teacher 2: Multi-exam context

...it was bad when we didn't have any to choose from. Now they're too many. And students have difficulty in choosing.

Extract 96: Teacher 2: Multi-exam context

In case they have a problem, let's say with the listening on the Michigan exam, they might want to take also the TIE exam which doesn't have listening. **That means that they won't miss let's say six months of preparing, they'll work a little harder but they will be prepared because their final point is to have a certificate at the end of the year to prove their knowledge.**

Extract 97: Teacher 2: Multi-exam context

And now I have a student that has already got his level 5 of the PTE and **because his brother is in Ireland he is interested in taking C2 because he wants to be prepared to go - if he goes to Ireland to have the qualifications for TIE.**

In this respect, teachers believe that multi-exam classes have a lot to offer students since they provide more opportunities for language learning and maximise success because they suit their needs and abilities. Being part of a multi-exam class gives students the opportunity to choose the exams that suit them depending on their needs and abilities. Therefore, such classes can save students time by getting an English language certification when and in the way they need it. Furthermore, the variation of English language exams give students the opportunity to become qualified to different varieties of English and therefore use them to different English-speaking cultural backgrounds that they need to live. Another positive characteristic of multi-exam classes is the fact that teachers can change books and learn about new tests and these make it more interesting because teachers do different things compared to one-exam classes that are boring and tiring after some time that teachers do the same things.

However, teachers believe that multi-exam classes have drawbacks as well. Extracts 98, 99 and 100 are examples of the negative characteristics that multi-exam classes have.

Extract 98: Teachers 1: Disadvantages of multi-exam context

It's kind of exhausting, to be honest with you.

Extract 99: Teachers 2: Disadvantages of multi-exam context

...you're constantly preparing students for an exam. You never have any free time because there's one-exam in one month and the other month something else. And it's a lot of work; it's a lot of work.

Extract 100: Teachers 2: Disadvantages of multi-exam context

Sometimes it helps but there are many choices. Other times, it confuses them and they only have -you know- certain schools that go out and say: Oh this exam is better than the other, or this is better than that. And it confuses the students and stresses them out.

Teachers however find multi-exam classes exhausting and they believe the exams require a lot of preparation on the part of teachers. Teacher 2 refers to the load of work that multi-exams class has. Teachers 2 also mentions how confusing it is for students when they have so many exams to choose from and when there is misinformation from frontistiria which English language certificate is the best. Both teachers also point out how difficult it is for them to assume the responsibility of choosing the right exam for each student since they are a lot to choose from. Extracts 101 and 102 are examples of it.

Extract 101: Teachers 1: Choice of exam in multi-exam context

Yes, there are so many to choose from and when you see that children are good in all skills, all sections, you don't know where to direct them. Or, let's say for example, you have to tell the students, the same students, that these are the strategies for this test, these are the strategies for that test. This is how you do GVR, this is how you do that one.

Extract 102: Teachers 2: Choice of exam in multi-exam context

You have to take the responsibility, then prepare them and the student may not be that helpful. Because a lot of times they've been affected by "Oh, I'm gonna take this exam because it is what my mother took" but things have changed. It's not the same as it was twenty years ago.

The choice of the English language certificate creates another burden in multi-exam classes since teachers not only have to choose the exam that best suits to the needs and level of the student but the one in which they will definitely succeed. In fact, there is not any distinction regarding the use and scope of these examinations as all serve as language certificates for the same purpose and therefore teachers try to choose the best for students only regarding the skills they test. Another interesting point is teachers' call for more extensive teacher training in order first of all to become more familiar with the specifications of the various exams, but also to deal with the difficulties of multi-exam classes more effectively. Extracts 103 and 104 demonstrate teachers' call for training.

Extract 103: Teachers 1: Need of teacher training

To be honest with you, **we don't have any special training when it comes to exams**. We are based on what we learnt when we went to school, our personal experience, sometimes the class you change things around and adapt it according to classes needs. But, **it would be nice if we had a special training, a guide**.

Extract 104: Teachers 2: Need of teacher training

Interviewer: I see. **Do you feel like, like teachers need training** maybe a special training about all these exams?

Teacher: Yes, especially if they are going to take part. I don't think that anyone takes part in all of them. Because they wouldn't do anything else except preparing for the exams. But 2 or 3 exams do give us a choice but **the teachers have to be trained**.

The discussion in interviews and follow-up with the teachers on multi-exam classes revealed interesting information about one-exam classes and the organisation of B2 level exam preparation classes. Teachers referred to time and compared it to the age and level of the students, the skills that learners need to learn and certainly the exams. The extracts below demonstrate teachers' beliefs on exam preparation classes and their organization in the school year.

Extract 105: Teacher 1: One-exam context

It's easier because you know they only have one-exam so you can do it in the order that you want to. You know that –Ok, you didn't have time to do it today, ok I'll do it the

next hour because this is the only thing they are going to do. So, **it's not that stressful as multi-exam ones.**

Extract 106: Teacher 1: One-exam context vs one-exam classes

They (multi-exam classes) need time, lots of time. You need time to write your composition, you need time to do your listening, another time to do your orals, another time to do your GVR. **Adults can't cope with that. They need a degree and not spend too much time in the classroom.** Something they can actually use. In one of the TIE exams, the orals they do is easy, because they know, they can speak. **Some adults find it easy to speak than do grammar exercises** because they are not going to sit and say "This is, I remember this is third conditional". They just use it in their practice.

Extract 107: Teacher 2: One-exam context vs one-exam classes

So, in the one-exam class, the TIE class, **there are older students, students that are weaker in a lot of points, that maybe haven't studied English for a while** and they have to be reminded to go over it like false beginners and we go through all of it, the exam again. **And we spend more time on the communicative part because most of them are trying to find a job where they are going to use English and it's absolutely necessary for them to be able to communicate.** They get very bored with it anyway and if you give them something that they are interested in, a book, an investigation or a news story like TIE asks, they work harder and they feel more confident about what they are doing.

Extract 108: Teacher 2: One-exam context

Interviewer: Do you teach TIE examination in a different class because they are adults or because it is a different examination in its format?

Teacher: Well. **It doesn't really helps us to put the younger students in with the older, so the ability is different and their attitude towards learning is different but the TIE exams don't fit in quite that well with the others.**

Extract 109: Teacher 1: One-exam classes and TIE exam

The TIE students are usually older and they want to get through as quickly as possible to make up for the time that is been lost.

Extract 110: Teacher 1: One-exam classes and TIE exam

For adults, now we have TIE, it's better. Because adults are not going to spend so many hours reading grammar all from the beginning, while for the students they are used to it. It's not something new to them; they are already in that concept. The adult doesn't have the luxury to sit down and actually do all the grammar exercises. He is mostly used to talk.

Extract 111: Teacher 2: One-exam classes and TIE exam

They get very bored with it anyway and if you give them something that they are interested in, a book, an investigation or a news story.

Interviewer: Like TIE.

Teacher: **Yes, like TIE asks, they work harder and they feel more confident about what they are doing.**

Teachers believe that in one-exam classes the fact that they should prepare students only for one-exam provides them with more time. They do not feel pressure since they feel that they have time to do everything and so they are easy going classes (Extract 105). Contrary to one-exam class, a multi-exam class need a lot of time in order all the skills of all the exams to be taught. Teachers also believe that adult students do not have much time to spend and they need an English language certificate as quick as possible (Extracts 106 and 107). The age factor is crucial for teachers to organize their exam classes. They believe that adults need a certificate quickly because of the age. Also, their attitude towards learning, their abilities, their level and the fact that they have not had lessons for some time are factors that do not permit teachers to group them with teenagers (Extract 109). Another factor that confine teachers to include them in the multi-exam class which prepares students for language certificates that test each skill separately rather than for a more communicative exam like TIE, is their need for communicative English since most of the students try to find a job (Extracts 110 and 111). Finally, it is the exam format which teachers believe that does not fit with the other exams (Extract 108).

In the specific school year teachers attribute the division between multi-exam and one-exam classes to pressure by the characteristics of stakeholders. Adult students have different needs both as learners and as to which exam suits them so teachers decide to separate them. Teachers believe that TIE examination is ideal for adults because it does not test grammar separately something that it is difficult for adults while something usual for teenagers and it

promotes communication. Also, according to the teachers TIE examination is more interesting for adult students because they prepare topics for the exam they are interested in which makes them feel confident and not bored. Factors such as students' characteristics, such as age and level of language, and the type of the exam influenced the organization of the exam classes.

4.6 Factors

A number of factors have to be considered before the potential washback of the test can be ascertained. The comparison between the two terms, between the two types of classes and the two teachers has offered significant results regarding the factors that influence teachers in exam preparation classes. The factors vary between the type of classes, the terms and the teachers and in most cases factors may affect one another.

The first group of factors is students' factors which encompass students' characteristics relating learning, motivation and progress. This group involves students' collaboration, participation and understanding, students' needs, level, aims of taking the exam and students' feelings. Another factor is teachers' factors and characteristics. This involves teachers' educational background whether they have a degree or a certificate that permits them to teach, as it happens in Greece, or they have any training. Teachers' years of experience and whether they have learned a foreign language themselves. Also, the teaching practices they prefer as well as their responsibility to make students choose the appropriate exam for their level and needs and their success. Third, the coursebook teachers use and whether they follow it, the way they teach it, the pressure to finish it and what it includes also have an impact. Fourth, social factors include the public school's hours and the frontistirio's hours, students' load of work or work commitments and financial crisis and the financial problems that creates, all of which may affect test preparation. In my study, because Greece was in financial crisis students and their parents faced economic problems resulting in applying pressure to teachers to take the certificate the sooner possible. Feelings of students and teachers and the general classroom atmosphere is another factor that influences teaching practices. Perceptions of the lesson and the quality of the lesson also affect teaching practices. The fact that teachers wanted their lessons to be interesting, motivating and less routinized as well as they were concerned about the content of the lesson, the tasks and activities, makes the lesson a factor itself. Another factor is language learning which has many components which all show teachers' willingness and attempt to make students learn

the language. All components refer to students' progress, understanding and progress regarding English language and teachers' attempt to explain, assess, correct and guide students. School and class characteristics which include the number and the age of students, the term and the type of exam class, whether a multi-exam or one-exam class, and how intensive a class is also influence teaching practices.

The last factor is the exam factor which affects not only teaching practices but all the other factors. Its influence may vary between terms, types of classes and teachers and it comprises a series of components. The components of test factors may also affect one another. Components that are related with students' success on the exams can be grouped together. This group denotes that washback is determined by the use of exam-related activities and materials. Another component is the time in the exams and the time before the exams. Getting closer to the exam dates changes the washback effect significantly. Other components, such as the exam format and the number of exams in exam preparation courses, can generate an impact on teaching practices. Components such as the stake of the exam and the impact of test's difficulty should also be taken into account. Lastly, the purpose of exams could affect teachers and exam preparation classes and teaching practices indirectly.

Table 4.23: Factors that Influence Teaching Practices in Groups

<p>Students' Factors</p> <p>Students collaborate and learn from each other</p> <p>Students' difficulties</p> <p>Students' attention</p> <p>Students' needs and level</p> <p>Student participation</p> <p>Make the lesson interesting for students</p> <p>Matter of understanding</p> <p>Relieve students from stress</p> <p>Help students organise themselves</p> <p>Get students to study more</p> <p>Students work together</p> <p>Students' future career and goal</p>	<p>Teachers' Factors</p> <p>Educational background</p> <p>Teaching experience</p> <p>Ex Language learner</p> <p>Teachers' preferences</p> <p>Responsibility for success</p> <p>Choice of exams</p>
<p>Coursebook</p> <p>Follow the coursebook</p> <p>Pressure to finish book</p> <p>Type of coursebook</p>	<p>Social Factors</p> <p>Financial problems</p> <p>School hours</p> <p>Family problems</p>

Practice tests and past papers	Students' work Work commitments Parents' pressure
Feelings Fun – happy Motivate students Relax students Interesting lesson Encourage bored students Success	Lesson Less routinised lesson Make the lesson more interesting Make the lesson less boring Types of tasks Types of activities
Language Learning Language learning Help students – Guide students Check students' attention Check students' progress Check students' understanding Acknowledge mistakes - Correct students Clarify in order not to be confused Be sure students know Explain to students - Give examples Assess students - Give feedback Go back and check it again Teach something new	School/Class Characteristics Number of students Mood of the class Intensive classes Students' Age Multi-exam class One-exam class 1st term 2nd term
Exams	
Use of exam-related materials Use of exam-related activities Use of exam-related tasks Number of Exams Exam format	Get closer to exam date Impact of tests' difficulty Stake of exam Time in the exam Purpose of exam

These factors present an interesting variation between classes and terms. Results have shown that there is a variation in the factors that affect teachers between multi-exam and one-exam classes. In multi-exam classes, more factors influence teaching practices and to a greater extent, whereas fewer factors influence teachers' choices in one-exam classes (Table 4.24). However, exam influence is stronger in one-exam classes than in multi-exam ones. In fact, multi-exam classes allow teachers a variation of activities and tasks as well as teaching strategies. Consequently teachers are influenced by a variety of factors. As far as one-exam classes are concerned, they are influenced more by exams since both terms are dedicated to

one exam. However, it is noteworthy that the format of the exam plays a significant role in the selection of both activities and tasks as well as teaching strategies.

There is a variation of factors not only on the type of class but also on each term. To illustrate, in the first term the main factors which influence teaching practices are the students' level, language learning, the students' understanding of the lesson and their participation, as well as the fact that students should have ready materials to use in the exams later on. Therefore, there is little exam influence on teaching practices in the first term, a situation which changes to a great extent in the second term when teachers are influenced mainly by exams, including the time constraints of the exam format. It is during this term that teachers focus mostly on preparing students for the exams and providing them with the appropriate materials. Thus, there is a greater degree of washback in the second term, with the intensity of the washback effects on teachers in the second term differing dramatically from those of the first term.

The results indicate that teachers teach to the exam, and their teaching appears to be influenced to a great extent by the assessment procedures especially in the second term. Results also show that the exam format plays a significant role since in multi-exam classes the exams restrict teachers to content-based teaching whereas in one-exam classes the TIE exam allows them a more communicative language teaching approach. In addition, teachers choose to ignore skills that are not tested in the exams in the second term, but they do quite the opposite during the first term. As for their teaching strategies, these are influenced by factors concerning students and their abilities, as well as the learning process, rather than exam-related factors. We could tentatively say from the results that among the different aspects of teaching and learning, teaching content, the second term and the one-exam class have received the most intensive washback effect.

4.7 Summary

This chapter has focused on the findings from interviewing and observing teachers in classroom settings and from talking to the teachers about their lessons and their opinions on the choices they make on the teaching practices they use in exam preparation classes. It reports exam preparation classes carried out by two teachers, who teach both multi-exam and one-exam classes. At a general level, the lessons were roughly similar across the two teachers.

Both teachers relied on coursebooks, so they used activities suggested by the textbook writers. The one-exam teachers used a coursebook focused solely and entirely on the TIE exam whereas in the multi-exam class the coursebook was a general B2level coursebook. As a result multi-exam class students did a wider range of activities and tasks. Both teachers in both types of classes used practice tests and past papers which prepared students for the exams.

Multi-exam class teachers used a broader range of skills and covered the four skills more evenly than one-exam class teachers who left out skills that were not tested in the exam. Tasks were done in both classes for different reasons though. In multi-exam class teachers did tasks to make the lesson more interesting and less monotonous. In the second term both classes did more tasks which resembled the tasks tested in the exams. However, one-exam class did more tasks than multi-exam class since TIE exam is a task-based examination. Teachers did a wide range of activities in both classes, too. They taught them in a way though, using translation for example, they would not do so if it were not for the exams. Other factors such as students' level and students' learning and motivation influence teachers regarding the activities they choose. Nevertheless, there was an exam influence on tasks and activities especially in the second term. This was justified as well by the growing use of exam-related activities which were used mainly to make students' succeed in the exams.

The teaching strategies used in exam preparation classes varied between teachers, terms and types of classes. The use of English was considerably higher than the use of Greek which was higher in the first term because the exams were not close enough. Teachers used Greek to make students understand and because of students' level even though it varied depending what they taught. Exam influence was little and only in the second term considering the use of language. With regards to the instances of laughter, more laughter occurred in one-exam class in the first term. This was due to the personalities of specific students and the type of activities or tasks teachers did in the class. However, there is more stress experience in the second term by both classes either because of the type of activities or tasks they did or the exams. Teacher-to-student interaction was the most frequent one by both teachers who favoured it because of the exams. Even though they found group/pair work interesting they did not often make use of it because of the format of the exams. Preparation for the exams made teachers leave students working individually to get acquainted with exam procedures. Finally, teachers do not differentiate regarding the use of feedback which is influenced by different factors between terms. In the first term teachers mainly give feedback to help

students understand and learn the language and in the second term they do it both to help students to understand and learn and pass the exams.

The study found that the washback effect on multi-exam class was not clear cut but it varied between terms and types of classes rather than between teachers. In total, teachers' factors, student's factors and social factors played major roles in the classroom practices, thus largely weakening the potential influence of exams at least in the first term. The next chapter aims to look at the results of the questionnaire which focuses on the factors influencing the teaching practices teachers use when teaching exam preparation classes in Greece.

CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Although case study research is suitable for examining washback, its results cannot be generalized to all educational settings. This disadvantage is applicable to the present study because it examined solely two teachers in a frontistirio whose nature of exam preparation classes might vary significantly from that of other frontistiria. So, this questionnaire aims to examine teachers' beliefs from large number of teachers around Greece. The purpose of administering the questionnaire was to explore the factors that influence teachers' choices regarding teaching practices in exam preparation classes in Greece, primarily in those who teach in a multi-exam class and, secondly to compare their responses to teachers who teach in a one-exam class. Results from the case study aimed to form the questionnaire, as far as both the questions and the different responses are concerned. This chapter discusses the results of the teacher questionnaire and provides information to the second and third research questions of the study.

The survey focused on teachers from all over Greece. The distributed Teacher Questionnaire consists of three parts: (see Appendix V). In part one participant teachers were asked about demographic information, in part two about factors that may influence teaching practices in exam preparation classes and in part three about exam-related activities used in exam preparation classes.

Replies were received from 318 respondents. However, 12 out of the 318 did not specify the exam classes they teach (one, multi, one- multi-classes) and were omitted. Therefore, the total sample analysed includes 306 questionnaires. Questionnaires were divided in three distinctive groups: teaching in one-exam classes was stated by 134 out of the 306 interviewees. Teaching in multi-exam classes was reported by 95 out of the 306 interviewees. Teaching in both one and multi-exam classes was reported by 77 out of the 306 interviewees. Descriptive statistical analysis is presented below.

Teaching in multi-exam classes was compared to teaching in one-exam classes. To do so, two groups were formed; the first group consists of the teachers who teach in one-exam classes, both exclusively or not. This group accounts for the subsamples of 134 teachers

exclusively one-exam and 77 both one- and multi-exam classes. From the subsample of the 77 both one- and multi-exam classes only the answers referring to questions regarding one-exam classes were considered. Likewise, the second group consists of the teachers who teach in multi-exam classes, both exclusively or not. This group accounts for the subsamples of 95 exclusively multi-exam and 77 both one- and multi-exam classes. From the subsample of the 77 both one- and multi-exam classes only the answers referring to questions regarding multi-exam classes were considered. Differences between answers of both groups, were evaluated with chi-square test and $p < 0.05$ was considered to indicate a significant difference.

This chapter aims at highlighting the broad themes that have emerged from the results of the data analysis of the case study. Emphasis will be placed on the key findings, which will be examined in comparison to the findings of the case study (Chapter 4). The presentation of the results will be organized according to the topics in the questionnaire and the case study. The results of the questionnaire will be presented both separately for each group and in comparison in order the research questions to be answered properly.

5.2 Demographic information

Analysis of 306 questionnaires showed that the majority of teachers participant of all three groups (one-exam, multi-exam, both one and multi- exam) in the research are female (84%). Ages range between 20 and 50 and over but most of the teachers are between 30-39 years old. The majority of the teachers are frontistirio owners or teachers in a frontistirio. The participant teachers are qualified academically (around 36.6% hold a BA and 31.4% hold an MA). However, a 25.2% of the teachers have a certificate of proficiency. The majority of teachers have 6 to 10 years of experience. (Table 5.1)

Table 5.1: Background information frequency (N) and relative frequency (%) of all participant teachers

Gender	N	%
Female	257	84.
Male	49	16.0
Age		
20-29	67	21.9
30-39	121	39.5

40-49	89	29.1
50 and over	29	9.5
Current teaching information		
Frontistirio owner	110	35.9
Other (please specify)	12	3.9
Private lessons	86	28.1
Teacher in frontistirio	98	32.0
Professional qualifications		
Certificate of Proficiency	77	25.2
BA	112	36.6
MA/MEd/MSc	96	31.4
PhD	11	3.6
Other	10	3.3
Experience		
1-5	49	16.0
6-10	77	25.2
11-15	66	21.6
16-20	41	13.4
over 20	73	23.9

All three groups were homogenous without any statistical significant differences in any demographic characteristics (i.e. gender, age, current teaching information, professional qualifications and experience). Therefore, a comparative analysis was carried out between one-exam and multi-exam groups.

5.3 Type of exam classes

The next question referred to the type of exam classes that teachers teach in Greece whether they prepare students for one exam or a lot of exams. Table 5.2 shows that the majority of the teacher participants teach one-exam classes and therefore prepare students for only one exam at a time. A considerable number of teachers (31%) teach multi-exam classes and a 25.2% of teachers divide their exam classes into multi-exam and one-exam class. The last group of teachers that teach both types of classes organizes the exam classes similar to the teachers in the case study.

Table 5.2: Distribution of types of exam classes

Types of Classes	%
One-exam classes	43.8%
Multi-exam classes	31%
Both (one- and multi- exam classes)	25.2%

5.4 Teachers' Beliefs of B2 level Exam Classes

Teachers choose to prepare students only for one exam and therefore to teach only one-exam classes because they are influenced by the level of students, time availability and the format of the exam (53.7%, 36.6% and 35.1% of teachers find these factors extremely important to their judge when choosing the type of class, respectively) (Table 5.3). As for the characteristics of one-exam classes in other words how teachers characterize one-exam classes, most teachers also agree that one-exam classes increase chances for success and they are easy going classes for both teachers and students (81.4% and 56.7% of teachers agree or strongly agree respectively) (Table 5.4).

Table 5.3: Reasons for teaching one-exam classes

Characteristics	Not at all important	Not very important	Neutral	Very important	Extremely important
Format of the exam	0.7%	0.7%	13.4%	50.0%	35.1%
Time available	-	3.7%	8.2%	51.5%	36.6%
Level of students	0.7%	-	7.5%	38.1%	53.7%
Difficulty of the exam	0.7%	1.5%	21.6%	44.0%	32.1%
Students' age	1.5%	6.7%	26.1%	49.3%	16.4%
Number of students	9.0%	11.2%	39.6%	29.9%	10.4%

Table 5.4: Rate of characteristics in teaching one-exam classes

Characteristics	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Are easy going classes for both teachers and students	1.5%	14.2%	27.6%	38.8%	17.9%
Increase chances for success	0.7%	3.7%	14.2%	54.5%	26.9%
Entail more work for students	3.0%	29.1%	38.8%	20.9%	8.2%
Entail more work for teachers	3.0%	33.6%	41.8%	14.9%	6.7%

Provide more opportunities for language learning	0.7%	21.6%	34.3%	26.9%	16.4%
Maximise stress for exams	13.4%	41.0%	27.6%	13.4%	4.5%

Most of the teachers who teach only multi-exam classes strongly agree that these classes increase chances for success (42.1%), provide opportunities for language learning (40%), entail more work for teachers (34.7%) and are safer for students' needs (34.7%) (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5: Rate of characteristics in teaching multi-exam classes

Characteristics	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Satisfy students' needs	2.1%	3.2%	20.0%	40.0%	34.7%
Increase chances for success		2.1%	17.9%	37.9%	42.1%
Entail more work for students	3.2%	16.8%	12.6%	40.0%	27.4%
Entail more work for teachers		5.3%	8.4%	51.6%	34.7%
Provide more opportunities for language learning		4.2%	12.6%	43.2%	40.0%
Maximise stress for exams	14.7%	21.1%	28.4%	24.2%	11.6%

However, when teachers teach both classes consider exam classes differently. When teachers teach in one-exam classes, more than half teachers (50.6%) consider the level of the students extremely important in order to prepare students for only one exam. The format of the exam (46.8%) and the time availability follow in their estimations. Also, teachers find in a lesser degree, but still very important, students' age (54.4%) and the difficulty of the exam (54.4%) as characteristics to prefer one-exam classes (Table 5.6). Teachers teaching both types of classes strongly agree that one-exam classes are easy going classes for both teachers and students (31.2%) and that increase the chances for success (28.6%) (Table 5.7).

Table 5.6: Rate of important characteristics in teaching in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Characteristics	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Format of the exam	1.3%	3.9%	10.4%	37.7%	46.8%
Time available	2.6%	1.3%	10.4%	48.1%	37.7%
Level of students	2.6%	1.3%	6.5%	39.0%	50.6%

Difficulty of the exam	2.6%	1.3%	18.2%	54.5%	23.4%
Students' age	3.9%	1.3%	28.6%	54.5%	11.7%
Number of students	11.7%	9.1%	27.3%	41.6%	10.4%

Table 5.7: Rate of characteristics in teaching in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Characteristics of one-exam classes	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Are easy going classes for both teachers and students	1.3%	11.7%	18.2%	37.7%	31.2%
Increase chances for success	3.9%	7.8%	23.4%	36.4%	28.6%
Entail more work for students	2.6%	26.0%	36.4%	24.7%	10.4%
Entail more work for teachers	6.5%	28.6%	31.2%	20.8%	13.0%
Provide more opportunities for language learning	7.8%	20.8%	27.3%	27.3%	16.9%
Maximise stress for exams	11.7%	32.5%	32.5%	7.8%	15.6%

Teachers who teach both classes strongly agree that multi-exam classes entail more work for teachers (41.6%) and teachers agree that multi-exam classes entail more work for students (48.1%), satisfy students' needs (46.8%) and increase chances for success (31.2%) (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8: Rate of agreement in teaching in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Characteristics of multi-exam classes	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Satisfy students needs	3.9%	9.1%	28.6%	46.8%	11.7%
Increase chances for success	5.2%	9.1%	31.2%	31.2%	23.4%
Entail more work for students	3.9%	6.5%	23.4%	48.1%	18.2%
Entail more work for teachers	3.9%	5.2%	15.6%	33.8%	41.6%
Provide more opportunities for language learning	5.2%	11.7%	31.2%	32.5%	19.5%
Maximise stress for exams	6.5%	26.0%	27.3%	31.2%	9.1%

There are slight differences between teachers teaching only one-exam or multi-exam classes and those who teach both. These differences even though very small create interesting results. Having both types of classes to teach most teachers find the format of the exams extremely important in one-exam classes and most teachers strongly agree that multi-exam classes entail more work for teachers. The fact that teachers choose to organize two exam classes show that they consider different factors as more important ones from those teaching only one- or multi- exam classes.

5.5 Exam choices between classes

The questionnaire provides interesting results regarding the exams that teachers prepare their students for in both exam groups. Teachers teaching one-exam classes and teachers teaching multi-exam classes were asked to answer on the frequency of several exams taught in exam preparation classes in Greece. The results are presented in Table 5.9, after regroupement of all questionnaires in two groups (one- and multi-exam), as mentioned before.

Table 5.9: Exam classes (one and multi) versus exams taught, p-value (statistically significant <0,05)

Exam classes	Never	Seldom	Not so often	Quite often	Always	p-value
First Certificate in English (FCE)						
One	20.4%	27.5%	20.9%	15.2%	16.1%	0.032
Multi	15.1%	18.0%	20.9%	21.5%	24.4%	
English Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE)						
One	10.0%	6.6%	9.0%	31.3%	43.1%	0.203
Multi	4.7%	8.1%	5.8%	36.6%	44.8%	
Pearson Test of English (PTE General)						
One	61.1%	8.1%	6.6%	14.7%	9.5%	0.013
Multi	43.0%	11.6%	9.3%	20.3%	15.7%	
English Speaking Board (ESB)						
One	73.0%	9.5%	4.7%	7.6%	5.2%	0.006
Multi	56.4%	13.4%	4.1%	15.1%	11.0%	
Test of Interactive English (TIE)						
One	73.5%	6.2%	8.5%	6.6%	5.2%	0.009
Multi	68.6%	12.8%	2.3%	7.0%	9.3%	
City and Guilds, Certificate in ESOL International						

One	70.6%	14.7%	6.2%	7.6%	0.9%	0.020
Multi	63.4%	18.6%	9.3%	3.5%	5.2%	
Educational Development International (EDI)						
One	85.8%	6.6%	2.8%	3.3%	1.4%	0.693
Multi	81.4%	8.7%	4.1%	2.9%	2.9%	
Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC)						
One	29.4%	23.7%	14.2%	28.9%	3.8%	0.674
Multi	32.0%	26.2%	16.3%	22.7%	2.9%	
Trinity College London, Certificate in Integrated Skills (ISE II)						
One	94.3%	3.3%	9%	1.4%	0%	0.680
Multi	92.4%	5.2%	6%	1.2%	6%	
Michigan State University (MSU)						
One	61.1%	11.4%	10.0%	13.7%	3.8%	0.226
Multi	51.2%	14.0%	11.6%	15.1%	8.1%	
Kratiko Pistopiitiko Glossomathias (KPG)						
One	50.7%	24.2%	15.6%	5.2%	4.3%	0.129
Multi	44.2%	26.7%	11.6%	11.0%	6.4%	
National Open College Network (NOCN)						
One	70.6%	14.7%	6.2%	7.6%	9%	0.020
Multi	63.4%	18.6%	9.3%	3.5%	5.2%	

Table 5.9 shows that, the majority of teachers regardless whether they teach in one-exam or in multi-exam classes choose always to prepare students for ECCE exams (4.31% and 44.8% respectively, $P > 0.05$) whereas almost never for EDI and ISE II exams (1.4% and 2.9% respectively for EDI and 0% and 6% respectively for ISE, without any statistically significant difference in the percentages referred). Regarding the FCE exam most teachers in one-exam classes declared choosing seldom this exam (27.5%) while most teachers in multi-exam class declared choosing it always (24.4%). In addition to this, it is shown that teachers in one-exam classes choose less frequently this type of exam rather than teachers in multi-exam classes and this difference is statistical important ($P = < 0.05$). PTE General, ESB, TIE, ESOL International, TOEIC, MSU, KPG and NOCN were less chosen from both groups of teachers (teaching in one- or multi-exam classes); indeed, less than 11% of teachers chose any of the referred type of exam always. However, TIE, PTE General, ESB, ESOL International and NOCN were chosen more often by teachers teaching in multi-exam classes ($P < 0.05$).

5.6 Tasks and Activities

As discussed in Chapter 4 teachers used tasks and activities in exam preparation classes for a lot of reasons. Questions on tasks and activities were designed to explore the extent to which teachers perceived the reasons that affect teachers' choices on tasks and activities regarding the type of class that they teach.

5.6.1 Tasks

Teachers teaching only one-exam classes regarded extremely important the fact that tasks encourage students to participate in the lesson (43.3%). Other reasons for using tasks in one-exam classes that were also extremely important was the fact that tasks make the lesson more interesting (41.8%) and less routinized (40.3%). Teachers consider very important the fact that tasks encourage students to work together (44.8%). Also, teaching according to the exam is considered very important by 39.6% of teachers. However, teachers teaching only one-exam classes find somewhat important to follow the book (43.3%) when choosing tasks (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10: Reasons for using tasks in one-exam classes

Reasons for using tasks	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	0.7%	6.7%	17.9%	39.6%	35.1%
Follow the coursebook	9.0%	17.2%	43.3%	22.4%	8.2%
Encourage students to participate	0.7%	0.7%	9.0%	46.3%	43.3%
Encourage students to work together	1.5%	3.0%	14.2%	44.8%	36.6%
Make the lesson more interesting	0.7%	3.0%	9.0%	45.5%	41.8%
Have fun	1.5%	9.7%	16.4%	38.8%	33.6%
Make the lesson less routinised	1.5%	4.5%	14.2%	39.6%	40.3%

It is shown that, making the lesson more interesting and the encouragement of students to participate and work together were considered as the most important factors to use tasks by

teachers teaching in multi-exam classes (by more than 50% of teachers). Having fun is also a very important factor (considered extremely important by 37.9% of teachers and very important by 41.1%). Finally, less but still somewhat important is considered following the coursebook (44.2%)

Table 5.11: Reasons for using tasks in multi-exam classes

Reasons for using tasks	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	2.1%	9.5%	13.7%	35.8%	38.9%
Follow the coursebook	9.5%	13.7%	44.2%	24.2%	8.4%
Encourage students to participate			5.3%	42.1%	52.6%
Encourage students to work together		1.1%	12.6%	35.8%	50.5%
Make the lesson more interesting			5.3%	38.9%	55.8%
Have fun	1.1%	4.2%	15.8%	41.1%	37.9%

Similar to results regarding teachers teaching only multi-exam groups, results of the teachers teaching both classes show that when teachers teach one-exam classes they use tasks because they believe that it is extremely important the fact that tasks encourage students to participate in the lesson (49.4%), encourage students to work together (42.9%) and make the lesson more interesting (42.9%). Teaching according to the exam is very important (51.9%) and the coursebook is of somewhat importance (54.5%) when they do tasks (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12: Reasons for using tasks in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Reasons for using tasks	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	2.6%	6.5%	11.7%	51.9%	27.3%
Follow the coursebook	2.6%	23.4%	54.5%	10.4%	9.1%

Encourage students to participate	2.6%	5.2%	6.5%	36.4%	49.4%
Encourage students to work together	3.9%	2.6%	15.6%	35.1%	42.9%
Make the lesson more interesting	3.9%	3.9%	6.5%	42.9%	42.9%
Have fun	6.5%	6.5%	14.3%	35.1%	37.7%
Make the lesson less routinised	7.8%	7.8%	9.1%	35.1%	40.3%

Likewise, results of the teachers teaching both classes show that when teachers teach multi-exam classes they use tasks because they believe that it is extremely important the fact that tasks make the lesson more interesting (49.4 %), encourage students to participate (48.1%) and encourage students to work together (39.0%). The exams are very important (39.0%) and the coursebook is of somewhat importance (59.7%) when they do tasks (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13: Reasons for using tasks in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Reasons for using tasks	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	6.5%	5.2%	22.1%	39.0%	27.3%
Follow the coursebook	3.9%	18.2%	59.7%	14.3%	3.9%
Encourage students to participate	3.9%	1.3%	13.0%	33.8%	48.1%
Encourage students to work together	3.9%	1.3%	22.1%	33.8%	39.0%
Make the lesson more interesting	5.2%	1.3%	6.5%	37.7%	49.4%
Have fun	5.2%	5.2%	18.2%	35.1%	36.4%

Despite the fact that some factors were considered important to a different extent for teachers teaching in one- , multi- or both-exam classes, the comparison between one- and multi-exam classes, conducted when all questioners were gathered together, did not show any statistical significant difference. Thus, the three most important reasons for using tasks are considered

by all teachers, no matter what type of class they teach, that tasks make the lesson more interesting, they encourage students to participate and to work together. Having fun and teach according to the exam follow. For both types of classes the coursebook is of somewhat importance when teachers choose tasks and the exams are very important without being the main factor (Table 5.14).

Table 5.14: Reasons for choosing tasks depending on the type of exam-class (one- versus multi), (statistically significant p-value <0.05)

Exam classes	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	p-value
Teach according to the exam						
One	1.4%	6.6%	15.6%	44.1%	32.2%	0.406
Multi	4.1%	7.6%	17.4%	37.2%	33.7%	
Follow the coursebook						
One	6.6%	19.4%	47.4%	18.0%	8.5%	0.780
Multi	7.0%	15.7%	51.2%	19.8%	6.4%	
Encourage students to participate						
One	1.4%	2.4%	8.1%	42.7%	45.5%	0.560
Multi	1.7%	6%	8.7%	38.4%	50.6%	
Encourage students to work together						
One	2.4%	2.8%	14.7%	41.2%	38.9%	0.449
Multi	1.7%	1.2%	16.9%	34.9%	45.3%	
Make the lesson more interesting						
One	1.9%	3.3%	8.1%	44.5%	42.2%	0.119
Multi	2.3%	6%	5.8%	38.4%	52.9%	
Have fun						
One	3.3%	8.5%	15.6%	37.4%	35.1%	0.666
Multi	2.9%	4.7%	16.9%	38.4%	37.2%	

5.6.2 Activities

Analysis of teachers' choices regarding the activities they use in one-exam classes shows that the two major reasons considered as extremely important to choose teaching via activities are to motivate students to participate in the lesson (41%) and the fact that activities are included in the exam (40.3%). Teachers also find very important to choose activities that make the lesson interesting (44%) and promote language learning (41%). The coursebook is of somewhat importance when choosing activities (46.3%) (Table 5.15).

Table 5.15: Reasons for choosing activities in one-exam classes

Reasons for choosing activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam	1.5%	2.2%	14.2%	41.8%	40.3%
Make the lesson more interesting	3.0%	4.5%	31.3%	44.0%	17.2%
Are included in the coursebook	4.5%	14.9%	46.3%	27.6%	6.7%
Promote chances for language learning	2.2%	3.7%	20.9%	41.0%	32.1%
Motivate students to participate	7%	7.5%	16.4%	34.3%	41.0%

Similarly, for teachers who teach only multi-exam classes, motivate students to participate in the lesson (45.3%) and the fact that activities are included in the exams (41.1%) are also considered to be extremely important reasons to choose this type of teaching method. Other factors such as promote chances for language learning (47.4) and make the lesson more interesting (41.1%) are very important. Again, the coursebook is of somewhat importance for multi-exam teachers (36.8%). (Table 5.16).

Table 5.16: Reasons for choosing activities in multi-exam classes

Reasons for choosing activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam			20.0%	38.9%	41.1%
Make the lesson more interesting	1.1%	13.7%	18.9%	41.1%	25.3%
Are included in the coursebook	3.2%	14.7%	36.8%	31.6%	13.7%
Promote chances for language learning	1.1%	4.2%	12.6%	47.4%	34.7%
Motivate students to participate	4.2%	9.5%	8.4%	32.6%	45.3%

Teachers who teach both classes either teaching one-exam classes or multi-exam classes consider as extremely important to use activities in the class in order to motivate students to participate during the lesson (54.4% and 53.2% respectively). As well as to promote chances for language learning (40.3% and 41.6% respectively). The fact that activities are included in the exam is a very important reason for teachers (46.8% for the one-exam and 39.0% for the multi-exam group). The coursebook is of somewhat importance reason for choosing activities for both groups (37.7% for the one-exam and 45.5% for the multi-exam group) (Tables 5.17 and 5.18).

Table 5.17: Reasons for choosing activities in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi classes

Reasons for choosing activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam	5.2%	2.6%	7.8%	46.8%	37.7%
Make the lesson more interesting	3.9%	6.5%	26.0%	32.5%	31.2%
Are included in the coursebook	5.2%	16.9%	37.7%	35.1%	5.2%
Promote chances for language learning	3.9%	5.2%	15.6%	35.1%	40.3%
Motivate students to participate	3.9%	7.8%	9.1%	24.7%	54.5%

Table 5.18: Reasons for choosing activities in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Reasons for choosing activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam	3.9%	2.6%	18.2%	39.0%	36.4%
Make the lesson more interesting	3.9%	7.8%	22.1%	31.2%	35.1%
Are included in the coursebook	2.6%	18.2%	45.5%	26.0%	7.8%

Promote chances for language learning	2.6%	10.4%	16.9%	28.6%	41.6%
Motivate students to participate	2.6%	10.4%	9.1%	24.7%	53.2%

Comparisons between one- and multi-exam classes on activities (Table 5.11) show that teachers of both type of classes consider as a reason of extreme importance to choose activities the fact that activities motivate students to participate (48.8% of teachers in one-exam and 46% in multi-exam class). Other reasons of equal importance for both groups are the fact that the activities are included in the exams (39.3% of teachers in one exam and 39% in multi-exam, $P>0.05$) and promote chances for language learning (35.1% of teachers in one-exam and 37.8% in multi-exam). For both types of classes the coursebook is of somewhat importance (43.1% in one-exam group and 40.7% in multi-one group, $P>0.05$). However, it was shown that making the lesson more interesting was more important for the multi-exam classes group rather than for the one-exam group (considered extremely important for 29.7% vs 22.3% for multi-exam and one-exam classes group respectively, $P<0.05$) (Table 5.19).

Table 5.19: Reasons for choosing activities depending on the type of exam-class (one- versus multi-exam) (statistically significant p-value <0.05)

Exam classes	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	p-value
Are included in the exams						
One	2.8%	2.4%	11.8%	43.6%	39.3%	0.276
Multi	1.7%	1.2%	19.2%	39.0%	39.0%	
Make the lesson more interesting						
One	3.3%	5.2%	29.4%	39.8%	22.3%	0.045
Multi	2.3%	11.0%	20.3%	36.6%	29.7%	
Are included in the coursebook						
One	4.7%	15.6%	43.1%	30.3%	6.2%	0.444
Multi	2.9%	16.3%	40.7%	29.1%	11.0%	
Promote chances for language learning						
One	2.8%	4.3%	19.0%	38.9%	35.1%	0.551
Multi	1.7%	7.0%	14.5%	39.0%	37.8%	
Motivate students to participate						
One	1.9%	7.6%	13.7%	30.8%	46.0%	0.428

Multi	3.5%	9.9%	8.7%	29.1%	48.8%
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5.7 Exam-related activities

Teachers were asked what types of exam-related activities used in exam preparation classes and for what reasons. In one-exam classes teachers always familiarize students with exam content (64.2%) and encourage revision for the exam (64.2%). Teachers also always discuss test procedures with the students (58.2%) and provide students with exam tips (56.7%) (Table 5.20). Teachers in one-exam classes do these exam-related activities because it is extremely important for them to help students (71.6%) and prepare students properly for the exams (68.7%). Also, teachers consider extremely important to familiarize students with the exam (64.2%) and increase students' autonomy as exam takers (58.2%) (Table 5.21).

Table 5.20: Types of exam-related activities/tasks used in one-exam classes

Activities/tasks	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	3.0%	7.5%	22.4%	46.3%	20.9%
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	.7%	.7%	7.5%	45.5%	45.5%
Provide students with test-taking strategies	.7%	3.0%	6.7%	40.3%	49.3%
Provide students with exam tips	.7%	1.5%	6.7%	34.3%	56.7%
Do mock tests	1.5%	6.7%	20.1%	28.4%	43.3%
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	1.5%	9.7%	13.4%	28.4%	47.0%
Review answers to mock tests	.7%	8.2%	17.9%	33.6%	39.6%
Familiarise students with exam content	.7%		9.0%	26.1%	64.2%

Discuss test procedures with students	.7%	4.5%	6.0%	30.6%	58.2%
Encourage revision for the exam	4.5%	2.2%	8.2%	20.9%	64.2%

Table 5.21: Reasons for choosing exam-related activities in one-exam classes

Activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly	0.7%	0.7%	1.5%	28.4%	68.7%
Help students	0.7%		2.2%	25.4%	71.6%
Get them to study more	1.5%	6.0%	20.9%	41.8%	29.9%
Practise working within time limits	0.7%	1.5%	3.0%	39.6%	55.2%
Familiarise students with time limits	0.7%	1.5%	1.5%	41.8%	54.5%
Familiarise students with the exam	0.7%	0.7%		33.6%	64.9%
Encourage studying	0.7%	2.2%	17.9%	41.8%	37.3%
Increase their autonomy as exam takers	0.7%		7.5%	33.6%	58.2%
Teach them how to study	2.2%	0.7%	19.4%	36.6%	41.0%
Release stress and anxiety	3.0%	1.5%	12.7%	36.6%	46.3%
Have ready-made material to help students in the exam	0.7%	4.5%	13.4%	38.1%	43.3%

In multi-exam classes teachers tend to always familiarize students with exam content (71.6%) and discuss test procedures with students (66.3%). Teachers also provide students with exam tips (63.2%) and encourage revision for the test (62.1%) (Table 5.22). Teachers in multi-exam classes do these exam-related activities because they find extremely important to prepare students properly for the exams, help students and familiarize students with the exams

(70.5%, 66.3% and 66.3% respectively). Also, teachers consider extremely important to familiarize students with time limits (64.2%) (Table 5.23).

Table 5.22: Types of exam-related activities/tasks used in multi-exam classes

Activities/tasks	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits		3.2%	16.8%	56.8%	23.2%
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams			7.4%	45.3%	47.4%
Provide students with test-taking strategies		1.1%	6.3%	43.2%	49.5%
Provide students with exam tips			3.2%	33.7%	63.2%
Do mock tests		2.1%	13.7%	33.7%	50.5%
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	1.1%	5.3%	9.5%	29.5%	54.7%
Review answers to mock tests	1.1%	1.1%	11.6%	37.9%	48.4%
Familiarise students with exam content			5.3%	23.2%	71.6%
Discuss test procedures with students			10.5%	23.2%	66.3%
Encourage revision for the exam		1.1%	8.4%	28.4%	62.1%

Table 5.23: Reasons for choosing exam-related activities in multi-exam classes

Activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly		1.1%	4.2%	24.2%	70.5%
Help students			5.3%	28.4%	66.3%

Get them to study more	1.1%	5.3%	21.1%	45.3%	27.4%
Practise working within time limits			9.5%	33.7%	56.8%
Familiarise students with time limits			6.3%	29.5%	64.2%
Familiarise students with the exam			5.3%	28.4%	66.3%
Encourage studying	1.1%	5.3%	14.75%	44.2%	34.7%
Increase their autonomy as exam takers		3.2%	7.4%	37.9%	51.6%
Teach them how to study	1.1%	4.2%	7.4%	36.8%	50.5%
Release stress and anxiety	1.1%	8.4%	11.6%	33.7%	45.3%
Have ready-made material to help students in the exam			20.0%	40.0%	40.0%

The majority of teachers who teach both classes either teaching in one-exam classes or in multi-exam classes always familiarize students with exam content (66.2% one-exam and 68.8% multi-exam classes) and discuss test procedures with students (61.0% one-exam and 67.5% multi-exam classes). The third exam-related activities that teachers choose to do always is to provide students with test taking strategies (58.4%) is in one-exam classes while in multi-exam classes encourage revision for the exam (61.0%) (Table 5.24 and 5.25). Teachers in both classes declared using exam-related activities because they find equally extremely important the fact that exam-related activities prepare students properly (63.6%), familiarise students with the exam (63.6%) and increase their autonomy as exam takers (63.6%) (Table 5.26).

Table 5.24: Types of exam-related activities/tasks used in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi classes

Activities/tasks	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	1.3%	5.2%	19.5%	48.1%	26.0%
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	1.3%		5.2%	51.9%	41.6%
Provide students with test-taking strategies	1.3%	2.6%	2.6%	35.1%	58.4%
Provide students with exam tips	1.3%	1.3%	14.3%	35.1%	48.1%
Do mock tests	5.2%		19.5%	40.3%	35.1%
Mark correct and give feedback using exam band scores	1.3%	1.3%	11.7%	41.6%	44.2%
Review answers to mock tests	5.2%		14.3%	42.9%	37.7%
Familiarise students with exam content	1.3%		15.6%	16.9%	66.2%
Discuss test procedures with students	1.3%		16.9%	20.8%	61.0%
Encourage revision for the exam	1.3%		11.7%	33.8%	53.2%

Table 5.25: Types of exam-related activities/tasks used in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Activities/tasks	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	1.3%	3.9%	24.7%	42.9%	27.3%

Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	1.3%	3.9%	11.7%	41.6%	41.6%
Provide students with test-taking strategies	1.3%		13.0%	32.5%	53.2%
Provide students with exam tips					
Do mock tests	5.2%		20.8%	37.7%	36.4%
Mark correct and give feedback using exam band scores	1.3%		15.6%	37.7%	45.5%
Review answers to mock tests	5.2%		19.5%	36.4%	39.0%
Familiarise students with exam content	1.3%	7.8%	5.2%	16.9%	68.8%
Discuss test procedures with students	1.3%		14.3%	16.9%	67.5%
Encourage revision for the exam	1.3%		13.0%	24.7%	61.0%

Table 5.26: Reasons for choosing exam-related activities in exam preparation classes

Activities	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly	1.3%		2.6%	32.5%	63.6%
Help students	1.3%		1.3%	37.7%	59.7%
Get them to study more	1.3%	18.2%	16.9%	29.9%	33.8%
Practise working within time limits	1.3%		3.9%	37.7%	57.1%
Familiarise students with time limits	1.3%		2.6%	36.4%	59.7%
Familiarise students with the exam	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	32.5%	63.6%
Encourage studying	1.3%	10.4%	16.9%	39.0%	32.5%

Increase their autonomy as exam takers	1.3%		7.8%	27.3%	63.6%
Teach them how to study	1.3%	13.0%	9.1%	37.7%	39.0%
Release stress and anxiety	1.3%	9.1%	7.8%	35.1%	46.8%
Have ready-made material to help students in the exam	3.9%	10.4%	13.0%	28.6%	44.2%

Comparisons between teachers teaching in one- and multi-exam classes on exam-related activities (Table 5.27) show that teachers in both groups tend to always familiarize students with exam content, discuss test procedures with students and encourage revision of the exams. However, it was shown that to familiarize students with exam content was taught more often for the multi-exam classes group rather than for the one-exam group (always taught for 70.3% vs 64.9% for multi-exam and one-exam classes group respectively, $P < 0.05$) (Table 5.27). Regarding the factors there was not made a comparison between one- and multi-exam classes since teachers teaching both classes did not differentiate their answers concerning factors. So, summarizing each group individually teachers use exam-related factors mainly to prepare students properly for the exams, help them and familiarize students with the exams.

Table 5.27: Frequencies of exam-related activities regarding the type of exam classes (one and multi), (statistically significant p-value < 0.05)

Exam classes	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always	p-value
Have students do the tasks/activity within set time limits						
One	2.4%	6.6%	21.3%	46.9%	22.7%	0.375
Multi	6%	3.5%	20.3%	50.6%	25.0%	
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams						
One	.9%	.5%	6.6%	47.9%	44.1%	0.579
Multi	6%	1.7%	9.3%	43.6%	44.8%	
Provide students with test-taking strategies						
One	9%	2.8%	5.2%	38.4%	52.6%	0.940

Multi	6%	1.7%	5.2%	40.7%	51.7%	0.474
Provide students with exam tips						
One	9%	1.4%	9.5%	34.6%	53.6%	
Multi	6%	0%	7.6%	33.1%	58.7%	0.366
Do mock tests						
One	2.8%	4.3%	19.9%	32.7%	40.3%	
Multi	2.3%	1.2%	16.9%	35.5%	44.2%	0.533
Mark. correct and give feedback using exam band scores						
One	1.4%	6.6%	12.8%	33.2%	46.0%	
Multi	1.2%	2.9%	12.2%	33.1%	50.6%	0.117
Review answers to mock tests						
One	2.4%	5.2%	16.6%	37.0%	38.9%	
Multi	2.9%	6%	15.1%	37.2%	44.2%	0.015
Familiarise students with exam content						
One	0.9%	0.0%	11.4%	22.7%	64.9%	
Multi	0.6%	3.5%	5.2%	20.3%	70.3%	0.087
Discuss test procedures with students						
One	9%	2.8%	10.0%	27.0%	59.2%	
Multi	6%	0%	12.2%	20.3%	66.9%	0.378
Encourage revision for the exam						
One	3.3%	1.4%	9.5%	25.6%	60.2%	
Multi	6%	6%	10.5%	26.7%	61.6%	

5.8 Teaching Strategies

5.8.1 Feedback

Most of teachers teaching only one-exam classes gave feedback to students because they regarded by far as extremely important factor the fact that feedback helps students when they do not understand (70.9%). Another reason which was considered also extremely important to give feedback in one-exam classes, was the fact that feedback helps students with the exam (56.7%). Also, many teachers give feedback in order to check students' difficulties (53.7%) and provide students with information on the exam (50.7%) (Table 5.28).

Table 5.28: Reasons for providing feedback in one-exam classes

Reasons for providing feedback	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam	-	1.5%	4.5%	37.3%	56.7%
Help students when they do not understand	-	0.7%	-	28.4%	70.9%
Promote language learning	-	2.2%	3.0%	49.3%	45.5%
Involve students in the lesson	0.7%	1.5%	9.7%	40.3%	47.8%
Check students' difficulties	1.5%	2.2%	3.0%	39.6%	53.7%
Check students' attention	1.5%	4.5%	25.4%	37.3%	31.3%
Check students' understanding	1.5%	0.7%	1.5%	47.8%	48.5%
Provide students with information on the exam	-	3.7%	10.4%	35.1%	50.7%

The majority of teachers teaching only multi-exam classes answered that they considered of extreme importance to provide feedback to students in order to help them when they do not understand (74.4%). Multi-exam teachers also provide feedback because they find extremely important the fact that feedback helps them to check students' difficulties (68.4%) and understanding (67.4%). Other reasons for providing feedback in multi-exam classes are to promote language learning (63.2%) and involve students in the class (62.1%) (Table 5.29).

Table 5.29: Reasons for providing feedback in multi-exam classes

Reasons for providing feedback	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam			6.3%	35.8%	57.9%
Help students when they do not understand				25.3%	74.7%

Promote language learning	1.1%			35.8%	63.2%
Involve students in the lesson		3.2%		34.7%	62.1%
Check students' difficulties				31.6%	68.4%
Check students' attention	1.1%	1.1%	10.5%	46.3%	41.1%
Check students' understanding			2.1%	30.5%	67.4%
Provide students with information on the exam			4.2%	36.8%	58.9%

67.5% of teachers who teach in one-exam classes and 75.3% of them teaching in multi-exam classes consider as first extremely important reason to give feedback in the class the fact that, in that way, students will be helped when they do not understand. The next important factors differentiate between groups; 66.2% of teachers teaching in one-exam classes find also extremely important the fact that with feedback they can check students' difficulties and 62.3% of them that feedback promotes language learning. Teachers teaching multi-exam classes though find extremely important the fact that feedback promotes language learning and the fact that it checks students' understanding, follows in preference (66.2% and 64.9% respectively) (Tables 5.30 and 5.31).

Table 5.30: Reasons for providing feedback in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Reasons for providing feedback	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam	3.9%	2.6%	6.5%	41.6%	45.5%
Help students when they do not understand	3.9%	1.3%	1.3%	26.0%	67.5%
Promote language learning	3.9%	3.9%	2.6%	27.3%	62.3%
Involve students in the lesson	3.9%	1.3%	2.6%	39.0%	53.2%

Check students' difficulties	3.9%	1.3%		36.4%	58.4%
Check students' attention	3.9%	13.0%	13.0%	44.2%	26.0%
Check students' understanding	3.9%	1.3%	2.6%	26.0%	66.2%
Provide students with information on the exam	5.2%	1.3%	11.7%	35.1%	46.8%

Table 5.31: Reasons for providing feedback in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Reasons for providing feedback	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam	3.9%	1.3%	15.6%	35.1%	44.2%
Help students when they do not understand	3.9%	1.3%		19.5%	75.3%
Promote language learning	3.9%	3.9%	2.6%	23.4%	66.2%
Involve students in the lesson	3.9%	1.3%	1.3%	42.9%	50.6%
Check students' difficulties	3.9%	1.3%	1.3%	36.4%	57.1%
Check students' attention	3.9%	11.7%	7.8%	42.9%	33.8%
Check students' understanding	3.9%	2.6%	2.6%	26.0%	64.9%
Provide students with information on the exam	3.9%	1.3%	18.2%	31.2%	45.5%

Comparisons between one- and multi-exam classes on feedback (Table 5.12) show not any statistical significant difference in how much important teachers consider different reasons to use feedback, except for checking student's attention which was chosen as more important for teachers of multi-exam classes than teachers of one-exam classes ($P=0.026$). Major reason is, according to almost 70% of teachers, no matter the type of class they teach, to help

students when they do not understand, via feedback and check students' understanding and difficulties. Exam factors are considered more than 50% extremely important in both groups showing an exam influence to some extent (Table 5.32).

Table 5.32: Exam classes (one and multi) versus feedback, p-value (statistically significant <0.05)

Exam classes	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	p-value
Help students with the exams						
One	1.4%	1.9%	5.2%	38.9%	52.6%	0.280
Multi	1.7%	6%	10.5%	35.5%	51.7%	
Help students when they do not understand						
One	1.4%	9%	5%	27.5%	69.7%	0.684
Multi	1.7%	6%	0%	22.7%	75.0%	
Promote language learning						
One	1.4%	2.8%	2.8%	41.2%	51.7%	0.088
Multi	2.3%	1.7%	1.2%	30.2%	64.5%	
Involve students in the lesson						
One	1.9%	1.4%	7.1%	39.8%	49.8%	0.199
Multi	1.7%	6%	2.3%	38.4%	57.0%	
Check students' difficulties						
One	2.4%	1.9%	1.9%	38.4%	55.5%	0.372
Multi	1.7%	6%	6%	33.7%	63.4%	
Check students' attention						
One	2.4%	7.6%	20.9%	39.8%	29.4%	0.026
Multi	2.3%	5.8%	9.3%	44.8%	37.8%	
Check students' understanding						
One	2.4%	9%	1.9%	39.8%	55.0%	0.213
Multi	1.7%	1.2%	2.3%	28.5%	66.3%	
Provide students with information on the exam						
One	1.9%	2.8%	10.9%	35.1%	49.3%	0.568
Multi	1.7%	6%	10.5%	34.3%	52.9%	

5.8.2 Use of Greek

Teachers teaching only one-exam classes find extremely important to use Greek in exam preparation classes when they realize that students do not understand because of their level

(39.6%). The use of Greek is very important when teachers need to explain things (31.3%) and give feedback (30.6%). The use of Greek is of somewhat importance when teachers teach students something new (29.9%) and help students with certain activities or tasks (28.4%). Teachers in one-exam classes do not find at all important to use Greek when they provide examples to students (31.3%) and when they correct students (29.1%) (Table 5.33).

Table 5.33: Use of Greek in one-exam classes

Use of Greek	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	13.4%	16.4%	22.4%	31.3%	16.4%
Provide examples	31.3%	23.1%	17.9%	19.4%	8.2%
Help students with certain activities or tasks	18.7%	14.2%	28.4%	28.4%	10.4%
Give feedback	17.9%	20.1%	19.4%	30.6%	11.9%
Correct students	29.1%	20.1%	19.4%	20.1%	11.2%
Teach students something new	19.4%	17.2%	29.9%	20.9%	12.7%
Realise that students do not understand because of their level	7.5%	8.2%	17.9%	26.9%	39.6%

Almost half of teachers find extremely important to the highest degree to use Greek when they teach only multi-exam classes when they realize that students do not understand because of their level (50.2%). It is very important for teachers teaching only multi-exam classes to use Greek in order to explain things (27.4%). Teachers find the use of Greek of somewhat importance in order to teach students something new (29.5%) and help students with certain activities or tasks (28.4%). Nearly a third of teachers do not find the use of Greek important when they provide examples (27.4%) and correct students (27.4%) (Table 5.34).

Table 5.34: Use of Greek in multi-exam classes

Use of Greek	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	15.8%	20.0%	14.7%	27.4%	22.1%
Provide examples	27.4%	23.2%	21.1%	24.2%	4.2%

Help students with certain activities or tasks	11.6%	16.8%	28.4%	25.3%	17.9%
Give feedback	21.1%	12.6%	22.1%	23.2%	21.1%
Correct students	27.4%	16.8%	27.4%	22.1%	6.3%
Teach students something new	22.1%	7.4%	29.5%	22.1%	18.9%
Realise that students do not understand because of their level	4.2%	2.1%	21.1%	22.1%	50.5%

As for teachers who teach exclusively in one- or in multi-exam classes, most of teachers teaching both types of classes use Greek in both one- and multi-exam classes when they realize that students do not understand because of their level (45.5% one-exam and 40.3% multi-exam respectively). Teachers who teach both classes find very important to use Greek in order to explain things (22.1%) while in multi-exam classes is of somewhat importance (32.5%). When teachers teach multi-exam classes they find very important that the use of Greek can help students with certain activities and tasks (26%) while when they teach one-exam classes it is of somewhat importance (29.9%). Again, for these teachers it is not important at all the use of Greek to provide examples to students in both classes (40.3% one-exam class and 37.7% multi-exam class) or to correct students (32.5% and 23.4% respectively (Table 5.35 and 5.36).

Table 5.35: Use of Greek in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Use of Greek	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	18.2%	24.7%	22.1%	22.1%	13.0%
Provide examples	40.3%	31.2%	16.9%	9.1%	2.6%
Help students with certain activities or tasks	27.3%	16.9%	29.9%	19.5%	6.5%
Give feedback	28.6%	20.8%	23.4%	19.5%	7.8%
Correct students	32.5%	37.7%	13.0%	13.0%	3.9%
Teach students something new	22.1%	24.7%	28.6%	19.5%	5.2%

Realise that students do not understand because of their level	5.2%	15.6%	15.6%	18.2%	45.5%
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Table 5.36: Use of Greek in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Use of Greek	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	14.3%	19.5%	32.5%	22.1%	11.7%
Provide examples	37.7%	28.6%	14.3%	13.0%	6.5%
Help students with certain activities or tasks	15.6%	28.6%	22.1%	26.0%	7.8%
Give feedback	19.5%	39.0%	19.5%	15.6%	6.5%
Correct students	23.4%	49.4%	7.8%	11.7%	7.8%
Teach students something new	22.1%	28.6%	24.7%	10.4%	14.3%
Realise that students do not understand because of their level	5.2%	18.2%	10.4%	26.0%	40.3%

Despite the fact that some factors were considered important to a different extent for teachers teaching in one-, multi- or both-exam classes, the comparison between one- and multi-exam classes, conducted when all questioners were gathered together, did not show any statistical significant difference regarding the use of Greek in exam preparation classes. Thus, comparisons between one- and multi-exam classes on the use of Greek (Table 5.37) show that teachers of both classes consider extremely important to use Greek when they realize that students do not understand because of their level (41.7% one-exam class and 45.9% multi-exam class respectively). Nevertheless, for both types of classes the use of Greek to provide examples is of not at all importance according to the teachers (34.6% one-exam class and 32% multi-exam class). There is a differentiation of importance in other factors such as teachers in one-exam class consider the use of Greek helpful to explain things very important (28.0%) while teachers in multi-exam class find very important that the use of Greek helps students with certain activities and tasks (25.6%).

Table 5.37: Exam classes (one and multi) versus use of Greek, p-value (statistically significant <0.05)

Exam classes	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	p-value
Explain things						
One	15.2%	19.4%	22.3%	28.0%	15.2%	0.960
Multi	15.1%	19.8%	22.7%	25.0%	17.4%	
Provide examples						
One	34.6%	26.1%	17.5%	15.6%	6.2%	0.902
Multi	32.0%	25.6%	18.0%	19.2%	5.2%	
Help students with certain activities or tasks						
One	21.8%	15.2%	28.9%	25.1%	9.0%	0.082
Multi	13.4%	22.1%	25.6%	25.6%	13.4%	
Give feedback						
One	21.8%	20.4%	20.9%	26.5%	10.4%	0.414
Multi	20.3%	24.4%	20.9%	19.8%	14.5%	
Correct students						
One	30.3%	26.5%	17.1%	17.5%	8.5%	0.744
Multi	25.6%	31.4%	18.6%	17.4%	7.0%	
Teach students something new						
One	20.4%	19.9%	29.4%	20.4%	10.0%	0.305
Multi	22.1%	16.9%	27.3%	16.9%	16.9%	
Realize that students do not understand because of their level						
One	6.6%	10.9%	17.1%	23.7%	41.7%	0.860
Multi	4.7%	9.3%	16.3%	23.8%	45.9%	

5.8.3 Stress

Teachers who teach only one-exam classes strongly agree that parents' pressure for success in the exams is what causes stress in exam preparation classes (48.5%). However, teachers of one-exam classes agree that stress is caused by the difficulty of activities and tasks that students are obliged to do (45.5%), social factors (40.3%) and the fact that the exam classes are intensive classes (40.3%) (Table 5.38).

Table 5.38: Causes of stress in one-exam classes

Causes of stress	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	6.7%	11.9%	26.1%	40.3%	14.9%
The types of activities students do	4.5%	21.6%	44.0%	26.1%	3.7%
The types of tasks students do	3.7%	20.1%	46.3%	26.1%	3.7%
The difficulty of activities and tasks	3.0%	8.2%	24.6%	45.5%	18.7%
Parents' pressure for success		3.0%	11.9%	36.6%	48.5%
Social factors	0.7%	5.2%	17.2%	40.3%	36.6%
Students sitting for only one exam	20.9%	25.4%	22.4%	23.1%	8.2%

Teachers who teach only multi-exam classes strongly agree (54.7%) that a cause of stress for students of multi-exam classes is the parents' pressure for success. Other frequently mentioned causes of stress are social factors, (40.0% strongly agree), the fact that exam classes are intensive classes (45.3% agree) and the difficulty of activities and tasks (45.3% agree). Teachers of multi-exam classes also agree the types of tasks students do in the class (43.2%) cause stress in multi-exam classes (Table 5.39).

Table 5.39: Causes of stress in multi-exam classes

Causes of stress	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	1.1%	7.4%	20.0%	45.3%	26.3%
The types of activities students do	2.1%	15.8%	34.7%	35.8%	11.6%
The types of tasks students do	3.2%	15.8%	28.4%	43.2%	9.5%

The difficulty of activities and tasks	2.1%	3.2%	23.2%	45.3%	26.3%
Parents' pressure for success	1.1%		11.6%	32.6%	54.7%
Social factors	2.1%		14.7%	43.2%	40.0%
Students sitting for more than two exams	7.4%	3.2%	24.2%	35.8%	29.5%

Teachers teaching both types of classes differentiate regarding the cause of stress in each type of class. In one-exam classes teachers strongly agree that parents' pressure cause stress (51.9%) while in multi-exam classes teachers strongly agree that social factors cause stress (41.6%). However, for one-exam classes the next most important factor that teachers strongly agree is the social factors (41.6%) and for multi-exam classes parent's pressure for success (39.0%). Teachers for both types of classes agree that the difficulty of activities and tasks is another factor that causes stress (57.1% both classes) (Table 5.40 and 5.41).

Table 5.40: Causes of stress in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Causes of stress	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	3.9%	5.2%	23.4%	41.6%	26.0%
The types of activities students do	7.8%	19.5%	48.1%	18.2%	6.5%
The types of tasks students do	7.8%	18.2%	49.4%	18.2%	6.5%
The difficulty of activities and tasks	3.9%	7.8%	24.7%	57.1%	6.5%
Parents' pressure for success	3.9%	1.3%	11.7%	31.2%	51.9%
Social factors	3.9%	2.6%	11.7%	40.3%	41.6%
Students sitting for only one exam	11.7%	24.7%	19.5%	20.8%	23.4%

Table 5.41: Causes of stress in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Causes of stress	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	2.6%	6.5%	22.1%	31.2%	37.7%
The types of activities students do	5.2%	13.0%	35.1%	31.2%	15.6%
The types of tasks students do	5.2%	13.0%	37.7%	31.2%	13.0%
The difficulty of activities and tasks	2.6%	9.1%	15.6%	57.1%	15.6%
Parents' pressure for success	2.6%	2.6%	16.9%	39.0%	39.0%
Social factors	2.6%	5.2%	13.0%	37.7%	41.6%
Students sitting for more than two exams	6.5%	11.7%	37.7%	22.1%	22.1%

Comparisons between one-exam and multi-exam classes show that many teachers from both groups strongly agree that parents' pressure for success (49.8% one-exam classes and 47.7% multi-exam-classes) and that social factors such as financial and family problems (38.4% one-exam classes and 40.7%) cause stress in exam preparation classes. Teachers of both classes also agree that the difficulty of the activities and tasks students do cause stress (49.8% one-exam classes and 50.6%). However, it was shown that there was statistically significant difference results for some factors between teachers of each group. For example, more teachers in multi-exam classes strongly agree that the fact that the exam classes are intensive cause stress (31.4%) comparing to teachers of one-exam classes (19%). Also, multi-exam classes' teachers are more convinced that the types of activities and tasks students do cause stress rather than one-exam classes' teachers ($P < 0.001$) (Table 5.42).

Table 5.42: Exam classes (one and multi) versus causes of stress, p-value (statistically significant <0.05)

Exam classes	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	p-value
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes						
One	5.7%	9.5%	25.1%	40.8%	19.0%	0.024
Multi	1.7%	7.0%	20.9%	39.0%	31.4%	
The types of activities students do						
One	5.7%	20.9%	45.5%	23.2%	4.7%	0.001
Multi	3.5%	14.5%	34.9%	33.7%	13.4%	
The types of tasks students do						
One	5.2%	19.4%	47.4%	23.2%	4.7%	0.001
Multi	4.1%	14.5%	32.6%	37.8%	11.0%	
The difficulty of activities and tasks						
One	3.3%	8.1%	24.6%	49.8%	14.2%	0.298
Multi	2.3%	5.8%	19.8%	50.6%	21.5%	
Parents' pressure for success						
One	1.4%	2.4%	11.8%	34.6%	49.8%	0.870
Multi	1.7%	1.2%	14.0%	35.5%	47.7%	
Social factors (e.g state school hours of working, financial problems, family problems)						
One	1.9%	4.3%	15.2%	40.3%	38.4%	0.851
Multi	2.3%	2.3%	14.0%	40.7%	40.7%	

5.8.4 Group/Pair Work

The last question of the questionnaire referred to group/pair work and the factors that influence teachers use them in exam preparation classes. Almost all the factors mentioned in the questionnaire are considered important for teachers teaching only one-exam classes. Thus, teachers use group/pair work in one-exam classes in order to motivate students (56.0%) and make students participate in the class (53.0%). It is extremely important also that group/pair work maintain students' attention (50.7%) and make the lesson more interesting (50.0%). However, the number of students is of somewhat importance when teachers use group/pair work in one-exam classes (35.8%) (Table 5.43).

Table 5.43: Importance of factors when using group/pair work in one-exam classes

Factors when using group/pair work	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	0.7%	1.5%	3.0%	41.8%	53.0%
Students' motivation		0.7%	3.7%	39.6%	56.0%
Students' collaboration		1.5%	9.0%	41.8%	47.8%
Students practising for the exam		5.2%	19.4%	38.1%	37.3%
Making lessons more interesting		2.2%	6.7%	41.0%	50.0%
Making lessons more fun		3.7%	16.4%	37.3%	42.5%
Making lessons less routinised		3.7%	17.2%	38.1%	41.0%
Maintaining students' attention		1.5%	9.0%	38.8%	50.7%
Number of students	0.7%	7.5%	35.8%	29.1%	26.9%

Most of the factors mentioned in the questionnaire are considered extremely important when teachers use group/pair work when they teach only multi-exam classes. This is similar to teachers teaching only one-exam classes. The two factors which teachers consider extremely important when they use group/pair work are students' motivation (67.4%) and students' participation (65.3%). Teachers also find extremely important that group/pair work maintain students' attention (58.9%), make the lesson more interesting (57.9%) and help students to collaborate (57.9%). The number of students (45.3%) is a very important factor for teachers teaching only multi-exam classes and the number of exams is of somewhat importance (34.7%) (Table 5.44).

Table 5.44: Importance of factors when using group/pair work in multi-exam classes

Factors when using group/pair work	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation			2.1%	32.6%	65.3%
Students' motivation				32.6%	67.4%

Students’ collaboration		6.3%	35.8%	57.9%	
Students practicing for the exam	1.1%	12.6%	45.3%	41.1%	
Making lessons more interesting	1.1%	6.3%	34.7%	57.9%	
Making lessons more fun	1.1%	6.3%	40.0%	52.6%	
Maintaining students’ attention		4.2%	36.8%	58.9%	
Number of students	2.1%	6.3%	22.1%	45.3%	24.2%
Number of exams	9.5%	9.5%	34.7%	29.5%	16.8%

Almost all the factors mentioned in the questionnaire are considered important when teachers use group/pair work and teach both classes. Teachers teaching both classes consider students' participation (66.2%) and students' motivation (64.9%) of extreme importance when they teach one-exam classes. However, they consider students' collaboration (71.4%) and students' motivation (70.1%) extremely important when they teach multi-exam classes. The next more important factors for one-exam classes are student's collaboration (63.6%) and making the lesson more interesting (62.3%). Other factors of extreme importance in multi-exam classes are making the lesson ore interesting (67.5%) and students' participation (66.2%). So, teachers consider the same factors when they use group/pair work in both classes but to a different degree of importance. The factor regarding the exam influence is considered very important for teachers of both classes (45.5% one-exam class and 41.6% multi-exam class).

Table 5.45: Importance of factors when using group/pair work in one-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Factors when using group/pair work	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	5.2%		3.9%	24.7%	66.2%
Students' motivation	5.2%		5.2%	24.7%	64.9%
Students' collaboration	5.2%	1.3%	3.9%	26.0%	63.6%

Students practicing for the exam	3.9%	5.2%	7.8%	45.5%	37.7%
Making lessons more interesting	5.2%		2.6%	29.9%	62.3%
Making lessons more fun	5.2%		5.2%	33.8%	55.8%
Making lessons less routinised	5.2%		9.1%	26.0%	59.7%
Maintaining students' attention	3.9%		2.6%	36.4%	57.1%
Number of students	10.4%	10.4%	20.8%	33.8%	24.7%

Table 5.46: Importance of factors when using group/pair work in multi-exam classes for teachers teaching in both one and multi-exam classes

Factors when using group/pair work	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	5.2%	1.3%	5.2%	22.1%	66.2%
Students' motivation	3.9%	1.3%	2.6%	22.1%	70.1%
Students' collaboration	3.9%	1.3%	6.5%	16.9%	71.4%
Students practicing for the exam	2.6%	9.1%	7.8%	41.6%	39.0%
Making lessons more interesting	3.9%	1.3%	2.6%	24.7%	67.5%
Making lessons more fun	3.9%	2.6%	7.8%	26.0%	59.7%
Maintaining students' attention	3.9%	1.3%	3.9%	27.3%	63.6%
Number of students	7.8%	3.9%	7.8%	36.4%	44.2%
Number of exams	7.8%	9.1%	22.1%	28.6%	32.5%

Comparisons between the two types of classes show that teachers use group/pair work for most of the factors which the questionnaire includes. The two of extreme importance though for both types of classes are students' motivation (59.2% one-exam classes and 68.6% multi-

exam classes) and students' participation (57.8% one-exam classes and 65.7% multi-exam classes). The exam factor is very important for both types of classes (40.8% one-exam class and 43.6% multi-exam class). The number of students is considered to influence more the group/pair work for teachers teaching in a multi-exam class.

Table 5.47: Exam classes (one and multi) versus pair/group work, p-value statistically significant <0.05)

Exam classes	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	p-value
Students' participation						
One	2.4%	9%	3.3%	35.5%	57.8%	0.583
Multi	2.3%	6%	3.5%	27.9%	65.7%	
Students' motivation						
One	1.9%	0.5%	4.3%	34.1%	59.2%	0.224
Multi	1.7%	0.6%	1.2%	27.9%	68.6%	
Students' collaboration						
One	1.9%	1.4%	7.1%	36.0%	53.6%	0.318
Multi	1.7%	0.6%	6.4%	27.3%	64.0%	
Students practicing for the exam						
One	1.4%	5.2%	15.2%	40.8%	37.4%	0.723
Multi	1.2%	4.7%	10.5%	43.6%	40.1%	
Making lessons more interesting						
One	1.9%	1.4%	5.2%	37.0%	54.5%	0.670
Multi	1.7%	1.2%	4.7%	30.2%	62.2%	
Making lessons more fun						
One	1.9%	2.4%	12.3%	36.0%	47.4%	0.358
Multi	1.7%	1.7%	7.0%	33.7%	55.8%	
Maintaining students' attention						
One	1.4%	0.9%	6.6%	37.9%	53.1%	0.527
Multi	1.7%	0.6%	4.1%	32.6%	61.0%	
Number of students						
One	4.3%	8.5%	30.3%	30.8%	26.1%	0.006
Multi	4.7%	5.2%	15.7%	41.3%	33.1%	

5.9 Summary

It can be seen from the findings of the teacher questionnaire that most teachers prepare students for one exam since the vast majority of teachers teach one-exam classes. However, the findings show that a great number of teachers teach multi-exam classes and both types of classes as well. The results show that teachers choose one-exam classes whether they teach only one exam or both types of classes because of the level of the students, the format of the exam and the time availability. However, teachers who teach only one-exam classes believe that these classes increase chances for success whereas teachers who teach both type of classes consider that one-exam classes are easy going classes. The most likely explanation for this is that teaching both types of classes entails more work and preparation so this is the reason why teachers consider one-exam classes easy going ones. Teachers teaching only multi-exam classes consider them to provide chances for success reasonably because of the variety of exams while teachers who teach both classes believe that multi-exam classes entail more work for both teachers and students. Teachers who teach both classes seem to compare them and conclude that one-exam classes are easy going classes while multi-exam classes are more demanding.

Questionnaire responses showed why teachers do tasks and activities in their exam preparation classes. The factors that influence teachers when they use tasks in exam preparation classes differ between one- and multi-exam classes. In one-exam classes teachers use tasks because they encourage students to participate in the lesson whereas in multi-exam classes teachers believe that tasks make the lesson more interesting. This is an indication that teachers use tasks for different reasons depending on the type of class. In one-exam class tasks help teachers to make students participate may be because they lose their interest more easily. In multi-exam class though teachers may find the lessons boring and by doing tasks can make it interesting. Teachers are influenced in both types of classes by exams when they do tasks and to some extent by the coursebook, too (see section 5.6.1).

Nevertheless, the factors that influence activities are the same between both types of classes. According to the teachers, activities motivate students to participate in the lesson. There is a great influence of exams on activities in both types of classes. It seems that there is a stronger exam influence on activities rather than tasks in both types of classes. Another reason why teachers choose activities in both types of classes is because they promote language learning.

This means that teachers do activities not only because of the exams but taking into consideration other factors related to students and language learning (see section 5.6.2).

Needless to say that teachers in exam preparation classes use exam-related activities with the most common ones being that teachers familiarize students with exam content, discuss test procedures with students and encourage revision of the exams. Teachers do so mainly because they want to prepare students properly for the exams, help them and familiarize students with the exams. The use of exam-related activities indicates the exam influence on teachers who adopt such activities in order to make students succeed in the exams (see section 5.7).

Teachers' feedback provided several insights into the factors that influence teaching strategies in exam preparation classes. Mainly students' factors influence teachers in both types of classes when they provide feedback to students. The majority of teachers in both one-exam and multi-exam classes use feedback because they believe that it helps students when they do not understand. Teachers also use feedback in exam classes because it helps them to check students' difficulties and understanding. There is a washback effect to some extent on feedback since more than half of teachers believe that feedback helps students with the exams and provides information on the exams (see section 5.8.1).

Teachers use Greek in the exam preparation classes of both types mainly when they realise that students do not understand. However, in one-exam classes teachers also use Greek to explain things to students while in multi-exam classes to help students in certain activities or tasks. This might link with the level of the students of one-exam classes since the level of the students is the main factor that teachers form one-exam classes (see section 5.8.2).

The study highlighted the fact that parents' pressure for success is the major factor that causes stress in exam preparation classes of both types of classes. This is connected with exams since parents press teachers to make students succeed in the exams regardless the time, their abilities and progress throughout the year. Social factors cause stress in both exam preparation classes and this is related to the economic situation in Greece. The difficulty of activities and tasks which are influenced by the exams, as the questionnaire showed, also cause stress in both exam preparation classes. However, it is also stressful according to the teachers teaching multi-exam classes the fact that the exam preparation classes are intensive

classes and therefore there is not enough time to prepare students properly for the exams (see section 5.8.3).

The questionnaire results showed that teachers of both one- and multi-exam classes do group/pair work because it increases students' motivation and participation. Teachers also believe that group/pair work makes the lesson more interesting and helps students to collaborate. Teachers also do group/pair work in order to practice for the exams. Exams are not of extreme importance comparing to students' motivation and participation but teachers take them into consideration (see section 5.8.4).

Various factors can influence both the tasks and the activities and the teaching strategies teachers use in exam preparation classes. Findings from the questionnaire conclude that these factors differentiate between one-exam and multi-exam classes. Not only exam factors but also students' and teachers' factors as well as social ones can influence teachers' choices regarding teaching practices.

This chapter has analyzed the teacher questionnaires. The other study that was carried out in the current research was a case study which shaped teachers' questionnaire. The next chapter will analyze the findings of both the case study and teachers' views as expressed in the teacher questionnaire and discuss the research topics from their perspective.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter synthesizes the findings presented in the previous chapters (Chapters 4 and 5) to establish their connection to the relevant washback studies and models articulated by notable scholars in the field (see Chapter 2) and the research questions guiding this study, especially the washback effect on teaching practices (see Section 3.3). The case study consisted of an investigation into the teaching practices used by teachers in multi-exam preparation classes, the washback effect on teaching practices and the factors that influence teachers' choices beyond exams. To that end, an one-exam class and a multi-exam class, administered by the same teachers were comparatively examined. The research methods employed in the case study were interviews, classroom observations and follow-up interviews.

The results of the case study, which were detailed in Chapter Four, tackled the first research question: what kind of teaching practices do teachers use in multi-exam classes? Are there any differences between the first and second term? The question was split into sub-questions which addressed the content of the exam classes under scrutiny, the relevant activities and tasks as well as the teaching practices adopted in each. All these were approached in a comparative manner to determine points of convergence and divergence between different terms and types of classes. Moreover, Chapter Four grappled with the second major question of this thesis, which involved the investigation and delineation of the nature and scope of washback effect on teachers' teaching practices in multi-exam classes. This question further regarded the following aspects of teaching: (i) the content of the exam-preparation classes with a focus on in-class activities and tasks, (ii) the teaching strategies employed by teachers, such as the use of L1 vs. L2, (iii) organizational patterns and work mode, (iv) feedback and class atmosphere. Crucially, the adopted teaching strategies were investigated not in isolation but in relation to class content, classroom management and teachers' attitudes towards multi-exams classes (see Chapter Three). Teachers' beliefs in B2 level exam classes, both multi-exam and one-exam, were discussed taking into consideration not only the results from the case study (see Chapter Four) but also the results from the questionnaire (see Chapter Five).

This chapter brings all the aforementioned aspects together to allow for critical observations and conclusions to emerge. The discussion is, therefore, organized around the washback effect of multi-exam classes on all the above. An enquiry into teachers' criteria in selecting tasks and activities, as well the concomitant teaching strategies that emerge is further conducted to determine the extent to which these deviate between the two types of classes and the two terms of the school year. The nature, type and scope of the washback observed in this study is further elaborated upon. The last part of this chapter concerns the diverse set of factors that influence teachers' teaching practices in exam preparation classes apart from washback.

6.2 Washback on the content of the class

This section reports on the findings the study rendered on exam washback on materials, skills, tasks and activities in both one-and-multi-exam classes.

6.2.1 Content of exam classes: materials used

Materials can be the subject of negative washback inasmuch as exams can narrow down the curriculum thus restricting teachers' choices of content (Ren, 2011; Smith, 1991) and putting pressure on them to cover the exam material. As seen in Chapter Four, teachers depend heavily on course books especially during the first term (Section 4.2). This trend is more pronounced in the multi-exam class. On the other hand, the use of teacher-made or student-made material is more prominent in the one-exam classes that follow the exam format which asks students to prepare their own materials (logbook) (see Section 4.2).

Findings of the study at hand suggest that the use of exam-oriented course books is engendered by the desire to 'please the parents' (Section 4.3) who demand that the whole course books is taught within the school year (Section 4.3). Consequently, this practice does not seem to originate in the requirements of the exam but can be traced to the interests or pressure exerted by one of the stakeholders, i.e. parents. These believe that the course book selected by the teacher should pay off. Although not directly linked to exam influence, stakeholders' demands, such as parents' opinion, therefore, seem to impact on the material used for instruction. In her washback model, Tsagari (2009) also observes a correlation between exam and the local community, of which parents are a part. This is a serious restriction imposed on teachers, who admit that they could have chosen more effective

additional material if they were not pressurized into covering everything in the course book or they were not influenced by the exams (Section 4.2).

Within this context, exams limit the teaching materials that can be used in class forcing teachers to select coursebooks that closely reflect the examination. This study verifies the above-mentioned findings noted by scholars Lam (1993), Hamp-Lyons (1996, 1998), Hawkey (2004) and Watanabe (1996). Exam influence in combination with parents' demands can seriously restrict teachers' creativity while also imposing a limit on teachers' feelings and experimentation with what could possibly work better for each individual class. The study carried out by Shohamy et al. (1996) also saw teachers suppressing their creativity in order to teach to the exam. This is not necessarily the case, however, in multi-exam classes, which, as opposed to one-exam classes, are not oriented towards one specific type of exam, especially during the first term. Rather, the use of a general B2 level course book may be more effective allowing more focus on language learning. In such a context, students are taught a variety of activities and tasks and thus reflect the real use of language.

Moreover, to compensate for any potential shortcomings of the course book, teachers can use additional materials. However, the main criterion for the selection of these materials appears again to be exam- related (i.e. coverage of exam practice), as supported by Watanabe (1996), Al-Jamal and Ghady (2008) and Tsagari (2009) (see Chapter Two). Selection of supplementary materials, therefore, tallies with the general tendency to cover material that rehearse exam format and exam-related language skills, reinforcing exam impact on material and syllabus. An indicative example of this tendency in one-exam class is when students are asked to prepare a reader of their choice as required by the relevant exam (see section 4.2).

Last but not least, it was found that both one-exam and multi-exam classes heavily use past exam papers during the second term (Section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2) in an effort to improve students' time management skills in completing the exam. As a matter of fact, washback is more evident in the use of this type of materials than in any other previously mentioned. The main aim is for students to be exposed to the actual exam as much as possible, as it is generally believed that in so doing, they will be better prepared for the actual exam. Thus, as exams approach, the washback effect on materials becomes increasingly more evident. This is in line with the results of previous studies on washback (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Cheng, 1997; Saif, 2006; Azadi and Gholami, 2013; Aftab et al, 2014).

As evidenced in Azadi and Gholami (2013), as well as Aftab et al. (2014), washback on material is evident on two levels: (i) the choice and adaptation of in-class material and course books, which are seen to reflect the content and skills of the relevant exam and (ii) the pressure to cover the textbook in its entirety. The extensive use of past examination papers as practice materials, particularly in the second term, further supports exam washback. These findings are confirmed by previous research on washback (Azadi and Gholami, 2013; Aftab et al, 2014). However, the present study indicated that, apart from the exam itself, parents also play an important role in the teachers' choice to follow the textbook faithfully and without exception (Section 4.2). In light of the documented loyalty to the exam, it becomes evident that the type of exam towards which each class is oriented to a great extent determines the quality of supplemental materials used. In the case of the TIE exam in the one-exam class under scrutiny, students used more materials such as a reader or a news story from a newspaper or the internet which is an example of positive rather than a negative washback, as it actively engages learners with the materials and therefore they participate in the process of learning. The use of other material except the coursebook or practice tests in an exam class is a stark contrast to traditional styles of teaching to the test and can motivate students and make the lesson more interesting since students have the opportunity to make decisions about what they learn and how they use that knowledge.

6.2.2 Content of exam classes: tasks and activities

As has already been established (Section 5.2.1), exam specifications and layout influence teachers' choice of materials and eventually influence the selection of tasks, activities and skills to be covered in class. The previous section demonstrated how the material selected for in-class use tends to reflect the type of tasks encountered in the exams and to provide ample opportunity for practicing the relevant skills and activities. This tendency was evident in the one-exam class which was observed in this study and which neglected the listening component due to its absence from the exam. Generally, exam unrelated activities and tasks will not be covered in class at all or only to a limited extent (Section 4.3.2.5) in an effort to increase the time allotted to skills that are included in the exams (Zhan and Andrews, 2013; Ren, 2011; Akpinar and Cakildereb, 2013; Azadi and Gholami, 2013; Pan, 2011; Alderson and Wall, 1993; Shohamy et al, 1996). Therefore, an asset of multi-exam classes is that they prepare students for a number of exams, thus covering a wider range of skills compared to one-exam classes, especially during the first term. This study further found that the extent and length of skill practice, especially in the second term, depends on the role each skill plays in the exam (Section 4.3). This corroborates Li's (1990) study on the MET test where

positive washback was evident as students were not only exposed to grammar and vocabulary but also practised all language skills. In essence, although exam washback on material selection can be negative, as it limits appropriate materials to those that rehearse specific tasks, activities and skills practised, this seems to be positive in multi-exam classes where a greater range of skills is practised.

As to the nature of the chosen tasks and activities, they are mostly exam-oriented especially during the second term. As can be seen in Section 4.3.1, the number of tasks in the multi-exam class slightly increases during the second term. Taking under consideration that both pedagogical and exam-oriented activities are taught, it is evident (Section 4.3.2) that pedagogical activities are increasingly less frequently used in the second term, giving their place to more exam-oriented activities, especially past exam papers. A similar trend is also observed in the types of activities chosen for practising language skills. For instance, in the multi-exam context studied for this project, speaking is mainly practised through describing pictures and through role-play. These are two of the main speaking activities in the PTE and ECCE examinations for which most of the students in multi-exam classes prepare (Section 4.3.2.1). Exam washback on these activities can be positive or negative. In the case of role-play activities washback can be positive since students can be highly motivated because they are different from regular lecture based or answering to questions exercises which are monotonous for them. For testing linguistic ability, Van Ments (1999) points out that “by devising scenes of everyday life, in particular those situations which make use of the vocabulary to be learnt, the students can be encouraged to use language in a free and interesting way” (p. 19).

Positive exam washback on activities relates to the pedagogical usefulness of such activities, whereby students practise language in a constructive manner in order to improve overall performance in language use and not with a view to performing well in the exam. This is in line with Taylor’s assertion (2005) that positive washback leads to the use of a teaching procedure that leads to effective teaching practices. In the context of positive washback as evidenced within this study, the most positive impact can be observed in speaking activities which are deemed to foster extensive speaking practice and linguistic development (Section 4.3.2.1). Speaking practice involves extensive use of discussions on a topic either in the form of answering questions or using prompts, such as pictures (Section 4.3.2.1). Role play, which promotes pair work, is also an effective way to develop learners’ fluency and can be both an interesting pedagogical tool and a good way to prepare for the speaking component of

various examinations that include role play (Long and Porter, 1985). In fact, as the findings of this study reveal, teachers use role play and pair work mainly in the one-exam classes that prepared students for the TIE exam, as this particular exam tests for such skills. Thus, this is a case where the exams have had beneficial effects on learners since they have caused desired changes in the learners' linguistic ability, as per Pearson (1988, p. 101) and have prepared students for more critical, real life skills, as per Daly (2011).

Beyond the listening component, the writing component, which forms part of all the examinations relevant to multi-exam classes, has been found to encourage extensive writing practice especially during the first term (Section 4.3.2.4). Practising different types of writing tasks, such as letters, essays, reports or articles exposes students to what can be considered relatively realistic communicative instances of language use. The same applies to the development of learners' listening skills since all examinations include a listening component. Practice on exam tasks which usually include a range of types of oral texts, such as dialogues and lectures, and different kinds of accents related to British and American English can be beneficial in better developing the students' listening skills. Due to this diversity, all the above can be considered instances of positive washback.

On the other hand, negative washback can be observed in the choice of grammar and vocabulary classroom activities. More specifically, as can be seen in Table 4.10, Section 4.3.2.2, multi-exam classes rely heavily on grammar and vocabulary activities mainly during the first term. This is assumed to relate to the ECCE examination which tests for grammar and vocabulary in the form of multiple-choice questions. Bearing that in mind, teachers feel that extensive practice on similar activities better prepares their students for that particular examination (Section 4.3.2.2). Crucially, this is considered negative since grammar and vocabulary practice usually takes place in a poor communicative framework and usually in the form of multiple-choice questions (see e.g. Boyle and Suen, 1994, p. 41; Hamp-Lyons, 2001, p. 3). For the same reason, it can be tiresome for students. Critically, however, and to the detriment of effective language learning, extensive focus on specific skills is witnessed to lead to the neglect of other skills, such as reading, which are virtually absent from the first term in multi-exam classes (Table 4.8, Section 4.3.2). In this light, language learning becomes lopsided and fragmentary through what can be characterized as exaggerated emphasis on the exams.

At the same time, certain activities can be assumed to reflect both a positive and a negative washback. Reading activities serve as typical examples (see Table 4.12, Section 4.3.2.3). Thereby, students are exposed to some useful practice (i.e. reading techniques, such as skimming and scanning). However, most of the activities they engage with are not open-ended, which would incite critical thinking and language production, but rather true/false or multiple-choice. To be in a position to answer these questions successfully, students are nevertheless exposed to reading techniques, which to a certain extent renders the whole task more in line with real-life use of language (e.g. scanning a newspaper article, reading a story to get the gist).

This study confirms a general trend of heavy use of exam-related materials, that has been documented by a number of washback studies (Mickan and Motteram, 2004; Hayes and Read, 2008; Ren, 2011; Aftab et al, 2014). This trend seems to arise from the need to raise students' awareness regarding aspects of the exam, such as time limits and the format of the exams, and to prevent or manage students' stress. Exam-related materials are used conservatively in the first term and for different reasons, i.e. to provide variety and a break from the course book routine. The questionnaire used for the purposes of this study revealed that the teachers who teach both classes and those who teach exclusively one-exam or multi-exam classes, use exam-related activities mostly to familiarise students with the exam, increase students' autonomy as exam takers, and prepare them properly for the exams.

Additionally, teachers become increasingly stressed, as the exams approach, a factor which also contributes to the use of exam-related activities. Feelings of pressure on behalf of teachers have been recorded by a variety of scholars, such as Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Cheng (1998), and more recently Shih (2009) and Deng and Carless (2010). In these studies, teachers are also reported to feel pressure to teach exam-related items. In the current study, however, a difference in the use of exam-related activities is noted between terms and between multi-exam and one-exam classes (Section 4.3.3). Accordingly, exam influence is more intense in the second term and much more so in one-exam classes.

It gradually becomes apparent that the washback effect on activities and tasks is not a straightforward question but rather complicated, as it does not merely relate to teachers but also to class type and term (how close the exams are). The multi-exam class seems to register a more positive washback effect on activities overall. However, the study found that the washback effect of task based tests, as in the case of the TIE examination in the one-exam

class, appears more positive in relation to in-class speaking activities and tasks. The multi-exam class, though, presents a positive washback effect in other activities such as speaking, writing and reading. It was also observed that the degree of washback varied between terms because the teachers' aim, especially in the first term, was to focus on language learning rather than on exam preparation, which was not the case during the second term with the exam dates approaching. Therefore, there was a significantly higher degree of washback in both types of classes in the second term, where the materials used were based solely on exam specifications (practice tests and past papers) leading to more routinized classes. A higher degree of negative washback – i.e. mismatch between exam aims and course objectives; narrowing of the curriculum (Shohamy et al., 1996; Wall, 2000), was also observed in the second term since teachers left out language skills not tested by the exams. Apart from the differences in the washback effect between classes and terms, it was evident that teachers themselves differed in the degree to which they were influenced by the exams in a mediated rather than a direct way. The findings of this study so far suggest that the washback effect on activities and tasks does not merely depend on the presence of exams. Rather, it also depends decisively on (i) class type – i.e. whether it is multi - or - one-exam, (ii) exam type – what language skills are cultivated, what tasks and activities are prioritized, (iii) teachers – the extent to which their teaching is exam-driven, and (iv) the specific term – i.e. proximity to the exam date.

6.3 Washback on how teachers teach

So far, the discussion has focused on what teachers teach through the selection of material to be taught in terms of activities, tasks and skills. Another important aspect to examine is the teaching strategies employed in multi-exam classes as these emerge from the interviews conducted in this study. These findings will contribute towards determining whether the exams influence the way teachers teach the selected materials. This section, therefore, addresses the overall interaction within the multi-exam class as well as the teaching strategies employed therein. Teaching strategies, as defined within the methodological framework employed for this study (see Chapter Three) regard (i) L1 and L2 use, (ii) feedback, and (iii) classroom management. This section further addresses the sub-question of the extent to which the washback effect on teaching strategies differs between the multi-exam and one-exam teaching context, as well as between terms. Teaching strategies are further examined in relation to class content and classroom interaction.

6.3.1 Teaching strategies relating to tasks and activities

As was presented in the previous chapter (Section 4.3), teachers tend to rely heavily on the course book regarding tasks and activities to be covered in the multi-exam classes. Since course books used in exam preparation classes tend to closely reflect the exams (Tsagari, 2011; Lam, 1993; Hamp-Lyons, 1996, 1998; Hawkey, 2004; Watanabe, 1996), it can be assumed that the related teaching strategies will also be influenced by the exams to a great extent. However, since the multi-exam class targets multiple examinations, which involve different activities, tasks and skills, students are inevitably exposed to a variety of pedagogical tasks and activities. Thus, they have more opportunities to practise their language skills more comprehensively. This study found that teachers employ various strategies in multi-exam classes, unlike one-exam classes, especially during the first term when students have not yet chosen which exam to sit for (Section 4.4).

When deciding on the appropriate teaching strategies to use, teachers' main aim is to familiarise students with various exam tasks so that students can perform them within the designated time limit (Section 4.3.3). This aim, however, becomes more relevant in the second term in multi-exam classes when students have decided which exam to take. During the first term, teachers are mainly concerned with exposing students to techniques on how to best handle a range of exam tasks and mainly rely on the techniques included in their course book which covers tasks from various examinations (Section 4.4). Tsagari (2012) also observes extensive teaching of exam preparation techniques in her research. It is assumed that the availability of a variety of tasks to be performed in class is likely to benefit students in their language learning process. The different exam tasks that test grammar and vocabulary encountered in the ECCE examination (multiple choice questions) and in the PTE examination (sentence-completion) serve as an example of the above-mentioned variety. The existence of such variety requires of students to acquaint themselves with diverse exam techniques and might, therefore, benefit them by exposing them to more communicative tasks. Within a communicative approach to language teaching and learning (see Breen and Candlin, 1980), and within a learning context where communication in the foreign language is given priority, communicative tasks are seen to greatly benefit both linguistic and communicative performance and are pedagogically significant (Richards, 2002, p. 154). By extension, the more an exam task fosters learning in a communicative way the higher its pedagogical usefulness is assumed to be.

The exam techniques to which students are exposed include many ‘exam tips’, as the participating teachers choose to call them. For example, in the case of the multiple choice tasks, students are exposed to the elimination process as one of the methods that will help them identify the correct answer. Although this practice may be effective in completing the task at hand correctly, it limits the learners’ deeper understanding of how sentences as units of language are constructed (Mickan and Motteram, 2009). Consequently, the linguistic knowledge-driven cognitive process of selecting the correct word missing for the completion of a sentence may not be employed by the learner and the correct answer may be attributed to guessing, which has been suggested by Alderson, Clapham and Wall (1995). On the other hand, sentence completion tasks are considered as meaningful and more suitable for assessing students’ knowledge. So, when teachers approach a sentence-completion task, they employ techniques that will help learners grasp the inner workings of an utterance. This is considered more systematic as correct answers cannot be attributed to guessing but rather to a deeper understanding of the structure at hand. The latter case is deemed to foster learning to a greater extent comparatively to the former. Mickan and Motteram (2009) in fact associate more meaningful tasks with positive washback on the teaching practices employed.

Teachers in this study concentrate on exam technique focus less during the first term as to avoid exerting pressure on the students right from the beginning (Section 4.3.3). They are more concerned with the actual process of language learning than with the end product, i.e. success in the exam. As a case in point, when teaching reading, the teachers mainly aim for their students to actually understand the text at hand. They encourage students to read the text as many times as they need to in order to grasp the main points and the related vocabulary (Section 4.2). In this case, accurately answering the questions is considered the outcome of developing the students’ reading skills efficiently. As a consequence, exam washback seems to be weaker in the first term, since it does not influence the teachers’ priorities. If focus is on the end product – passing the exams, correct answers could be the outcome of the implementation of effective exam tips. This increases exam washback in the second term since success in the exam becomes a priority.

This picture changes in the second term, when students have selected which exams to take and systematic teaching of exam tips tailored to exam specifications takes place. The most pressing specification appears to be the time limit set by each exam and which students need to observe (Section 4.3.3). This corroborates Mickan and Motteram’s (2009) findings on an IELTS preparation class where teachers talked extensively about the exam and practised

exam techniques with their students. As it emerges from the interviews, classroom observations and the questionnaire of the current study, especially in the case of mock exams, emphasis is on how well the students have grasped the exam tips and not on the reasons why students have failed to answer the questions correctly. Working on as many past papers as possible is believed to contribute towards students passing the exam which is the primary aim of such a class. Consequently, actual language learning seems to become a secondary consideration, which stands in opposition to an understanding of a good language learning process as one that can engender good language production and performance.

On a par with the previous discussion is the teachers' major concern with time limits. Teachers seem to develop particular strategies to help students observe time limits. Specific to the writing component, this study corroborates observations made by Brown (1998), whereby teachers provide students with set phrases or even whole paragraphs, which the latter can memorize and later retrieve, and, whereby students are exposed to potential examination topics through past papers (Section 4.3). Such a practice may be beneficial as in the case of providing the appropriate phrases for beginning or ending a letter, or useful language chunks for an argumentative essay. This is seen as beneficial in sight of the significance of pragmatic competence in language production (see Abdulrahman, 2012; Evans, Anderson and Eggington, 2015). According to the teachers participating in the study, students are encouraged to use different phrases every time they work with a specific type of writing, which can enrich their pool of useful phrases. Having such phrases readily available in their linguistic repertoire and, therefore, an enhanced pragmatic competence, students can dedicate more time and effort to producing and formulating ideas to develop the topic in their writing. In this case, time considerations can have a positive impact on learning, as they instigate the memorization of phrases that improve students' pragmatic knowledge. However, sometimes exam tips related to time management can lead to a more sterile approach to language learning, since time is not always essential in real-life use of language (Mickan and Motteram, 2009). For example, completing a reading section, which is often composed of texts students would not normally read otherwise and within a specific time limit does not reflect accurately on how learners would use their reading skills in real life. Apart from the fact that students would presumably choose texts that are closer to their own interests, processing texts within a given time frame is not always of primary importance in real language use. As a result, being taught to perform a reading task within a specific time frame does not necessarily show that learners have grasped the specific task or feel confident with the result of their work (Cheng and DeLuca, 2011).

The observational data and the interviews conducted for this study revealed the different teaching strategies teachers selected for the multi-exam class between the two terms. As can be seen in Table 4.3, Section 4.2, Teacher 2 does not use any materials supplementary to the course book, whereas Teacher 1 does so during the first term. Teacher 1 feels they will make the lesson more interesting and encourage pair and group work which will make the lesson more engaging for the students. Such individual variations between teachers, which indicate that exam washback can also be related to teachers' perceptions, were also found in Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996). They investigated TOEFL exam classes and concluded that the exam itself is not the only source of washback, as it may not have the same bearing on all the stakeholders, such as the administrators, material writers or, in this case, the teachers themselves.

6.3.2 Teaching strategies related to classroom interaction

Exams have been found to exert influence on interaction patterns, such as group or pair work, lockstep or individual work, in most studies comparing exam to non-exam classes (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Watanabe, 2004). The situation is somewhat different in the multi-exam teaching context, due to the existence of considerable variation between the two terms of the school year (Section 4.4). Exam washback is more evident during the second term, which seems to be dominated by teacher-student interaction patterns, whereby the teacher initiates and controls interaction through increased teacher talk and teacher-initiated questions aiming to elicit specific answers (Pan, 2011). However, interaction patterns during the first term are largely student-centred, and the teachers' main concern is to encourage their students to use language to the greatest extent possible (Section 4.4). This 'containment' of teacher-led communication to one term can be interpreted as a positive characteristic of multi-exam classes because negative exam washback appears to be limited to one term, the second term, which prepares students for different types of exams. The other aspects of interaction patterns to be discussed in the next sections of this chapter are (i) L1 vs L2 use, (ii) feedback and (iii) classroom management because they offer interesting insight into the role of exam washback in the multi-exam teaching context.

6.3.2.1 L1 vs. L2 use

Findings on the use of L1 or L2 in the classroom seem to be diverse. Certain studies (Tsayari, 2012; Wall and Alderson, 1993; Nikolov, 1999) found considerable L1 use when providing input in exam classes especially in the form of explanations and translation. Actually,

Nikolov (1999) points out that such practices limit the chances of students using the L2, which has a negative effect on their learning. On the other hand, certain studies (Cheng, 2004 and Wall and Horak, 2007) observed a more extensive use of the L2 in exam classes. Finally, Turner (2009) found that teachers constantly switched between L1 and L2 with an emphasis on L2 on the part of both teachers and students. This is also the case in multi-exam classes, as the results of the present study indicate (see Table 4.16, Section 4.4.1).

In fact, English is favoured over Greek especially in multi-exam class that the level of students is higher by both participating teachers because they strongly believe that the level of students in multi-exam classes is higher than the students' level in the one-exam classes (Section 4.4.1). This tendency to associate L1 use in the classroom with the level of the students has also been observed by Kourou (2008:6). Kourou embraces Papaefthymiou-Lytra's (1990) suggestions that teachers may make use of the L1 according to the learners' specific needs and language level. This is further corroborated by Ellis and Sinclair (1989: 9-10), who suggest that for lower-level students it might be better to partly use the mother tongue in the activities to make students feel more at ease with the learning process.

In multi-exam classes, the teachers participating in the study claim that students have a higher language level. In view of that, teachers have higher expectations of their students and are confident that those can understand and produce utterances in English. The use of L2 is, therefore, more extensive in the multi-exam class observed in the present study. On the one hand, greater exposure to the L2 may appear to render the multi-exam class a more suitable learning environment due to the great number of opportunities for communication it affords students. Students might, therefore, become more successful language learners, apart from preparing for and passing the relevant exam. As a result, although the end product, namely passing the exam, is still the driving force in multi-exam classes, the learning process, which involves more meaningful L2 communication, exerts positive exam washback on the multi-exam class. According to Levine (2011, p. 5), extensive or exclusive use of L2 in the classroom is desired due to the limited contact hours of the class.

On the other hand, extensive or exclusive use of the L2 might also be seen as negative exam washback. As per Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990) and Ellis and Sinclair (1989), who acknowledge the value of the L1 in creating a more relaxed teaching environment, the multi-exam classes might be seen as a context where L1 use is stigmatized and which, therefore, becomes more challenging for weaker students, who might not be as confident to

communicate exclusively in the L2. Pivotaly, the language classroom is increasingly becoming understood, both theoretically and empirically, as a multilingual environment (Anton and DiCamilla, 2001; Levine, 2003; Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain, 2004). In fact, Levine claims that denying “in our pedagogy, a role for the cognitively and socially dominant language, is to ignore a large part of the L2 learning process” (2011, p. 5). Additionally, expecting a high language level from multi-exam class students may prejudice teachers against placing weaker students in such teaching contexts and might opt to place them in one-exam classes. This results in students not having the opportunity to enjoy one term (the first term, according to this study) in a more diverse environment, in terms of tasks, activities and skills practiced, given that one-exam classes were established to be more strongly influenced by the exam. As a result, they may pass the exam for which they have prepared, but they may not have necessarily improved their language skills and knowledge effectively, or as effectively as they would have in the multi-exam learning and teaching context.

Another interesting observation is that English is favoured over Greek in both terms in the multi-exam class (Section 4.4.1). Considering that other practices change over the second term because exams get closer and exam washback becomes more intense, opting for L2 over L1 seems to be motivated by concerns other than the exams, such as making the students more confident and more fluent in L2, as the observed teachers have suggested. However, some exam washback is evident even in this case through the choices teachers make as to when they use the L1 rather than the L2 in the multi-exam class. Despite exam washback and as many studies (De La Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Chambers, 2013; Sali, 2014; Tsigari and Diakou, 2015) suggest, however, teachers choose to use L1, Greek in this specific case, based on a number of variables, such as the students’ level, type of activities, effective learning, explanations and, of course, exams. As a case in point, teachers used Greek to provide such explanations and suggestions because of the students’ level and because using the students’ native language would render any such explanations more comprehensible.

One such instance of L1 use in the multi-exam context observed is the use of translation. Translation is defined as the “concurrent interpreting/translation, where everything said in one language is translated into the other, usually by the instructor” (Pym et al, 2013). In the classes under observation, translation was employed in all types of activities such as grammar, vocabulary, speaking, writing, or reading (Section 4.4.1). The reason for this choice of translation was twofold: to save classroom time and provide students with

information about new vocabulary items or grammar structures, and to save students time, who would otherwise have to engage in more extensive self-study, for instance, looking into the dictionary (Section 4.4.1). In the modern language classroom, although limited, the use of translation is encouraged under certain circumstances and in order to achieve certain pedagogical aims.

To start with, translation is considered a cognitive strategy where by mother tongue is used (O' Malley et al., 1985:582-584) as a framework of reference for L2 comprehension and production. According to Oxford's strategy classification system (1990), cognitive strategies include three steps involving the mother tongue, namely contrastive analysis of languages, translating and transferring. Furthermore, according to the same classification, the first step in compensation strategies is to switch to the mother language. Translating, therefore, is revealed as a central cognitive strategy in learning and using the L2 and is also seen to facilitate the learning process, to a certain extent justifying the teachers' reasons for employing the L1, particularly in introducing new vocabulary and grammar structures. Consequently, although the reasons behind employing translation as a strategy seem to be cost-effectiveness and the immediate influence of the exams, the impact may very well be pedagogically profound, both in light of the previously mentioned multilingual nature of the language classroom and in view of the cognitive processes that promote language learning. Additionally, there are also cultural implications in translation, that relate to assisting the second language learner in developing strategies for conceptualizing a new system not only linguistically but also culturally. Resorting to the mother tongue and culture is acknowledged as a factor contributing to learning (Brown, 1998: 72). The use of L1 could therefore be understood as a positive impact of the exams. As exams approach in the second term, time constraints also play a role in the extensive use of L1.

Another instance of mother tongue use in the multi-exam class is when teachers sometimes provide feedback and explanations on the lesson of the day or on exams in Greek to ensure that students will comprehend the relevant comments (Sali, 2014). Teachers resort to Greek when they feel their students are not confident enough in L2, or when the students themselves have not understood something. Teachers in this study have stressed the importance of explaining exam specifications and teaching exam techniques (Section 4.4.1), as well as ensuring students' understanding by resorting to Greek. This highlights again the use of the mother tongue as a time-saving device. As a result, although the extensive use of English in the multi-exam class is the preferred choice of both teachers for pedagogical reasons, some

exam washback is observed when mother tongue is favoured in exam-related topics and due to time considerations.

6.3.2.2 Classroom management

In terms of interaction patterns in multi-exam classes, this study looked into how the teacher managed the classroom, taking into account classroom atmosphere and discipline. Although these aspects do not seem to relate to exam washback, the discussion in this section will show that classroom management is indirectly influenced by the exams (Section 4.4.3). This is due to the added pressure that exams exert on both students and teachers. Such pressure leads to a less relaxed classroom atmosphere and to teachers feeling the need to discipline students more often in order to ensure students' focus on the class objective, namely on the exams (Hayes and Read, 2004; Tsagari, 2009). In turn, this can cause unintended negative washback, as will be discussed in this section. Messick (1996) defines unintended washback as the effects of an exam that were not intended. Assuming that the aim of an exam is to assess linguistic ability and not to create a more stressful environment through inciting constant disciplining, then washback on classroom management is assumed to be unintended and negative. Negative washback may further deter learners from having positive attitudes towards their learning, and/or towards the exam itself, which is not part of the purpose of the exam.

Results of previous studies have found that exam preparation lessons in general tend to be teacher-controlled (Hayes and Read, 2008; Cheng, 1999; Pan, 2011). The present study suggests that the specific format of the exam has also has an effect on interaction patterns in exam preparation classes. More specifically, the data demonstrated that exam format impacted on both classes in both terms, leading to a more teacher-controlled environment. It further emerged that the multi-exam class is more teacher-dominated than the one-exam class because of the format of the exams (Michigan and PTE General). Pair and group work activities demonstrate this point effectively. Notably, teachers attested to favouring pair or group-work which they believe can enhance students' in-class participation and further motivate them. However, this specific interaction pattern is not used in the multi-exam class, especially in the second term, since teachers find it difficult to do tasks that require students' participation. Therefore, the scarcity of such interaction patterns in this class is directly linked to the format of the exams (Section 4.4.3). On the other hand, one-exam classes employ more pair/group and student-to-student interaction patterns since the TIE exam

assesses the interaction between students, bearing witness to how influential the format of the exam can be.

The above mentioned interaction patterns, and especially those involved in classroom management, are considered directly related to teachers' attitudes toward the exam (Section 4.4.3). These attitudes affect teachers' choice of teaching strategies and practices and are very important when investigating exam washback in any exam-preparation class, and in this case multi-exam classes.

6.3.2.3 Classroom atmosphere

Classroom atmosphere can be greatly influenced by the occurrence or lack of laughter. A lack of laughter leads to a less relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, since teachers become stricter with students. Lack of laughter has been associated with stress and pressure brought on by exam preparation (see Read and Hayes, 2003; Deng, 2010). It can be assumed that the added pressure of preparing for multiple exams, which increases the workload, puts a heavier strain on both teachers and students, burdening the classroom atmosphere. As can be seen in Table 4.18, Section 4.4.2, instances of laughter in the multi-exam class are quite limited, especially during the second term. By contrast, instances of laughter in one-exam classes are quite numerous especially during the first term. Teacher responses during interviews and class observations suggest that the age of the students and exam format are the main contributing factors to this tendency. Teachers in this case suggest that adult learners are more determined and, therefore, more focused on the exam, so a more relaxed atmosphere will not distract them nor disrupt the progression of the lesson. However, in the second term, instances of laughter in the one-exam class decrease by more than 50% similarly to multi-exam classes (Table 4.18, Section 4.4.2). These findings lead to the conclusion that exams do dictate a more austere classroom environment. This corroborates findings that the frequency of laughter is much lower in exam classes as opposed to non-exam classes (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Hayes and Read, 2004; Read and Hayes, 2003).

Other studies (Prodromou, 1995; Tsigari, 2009) that were conducted in Greece also found that both teachers and students experience high levels of anxiety and stress. Teachers, in particular, felt stressed because they were preparing students for high-stake exams. They experienced the additional burden of the responsibility for their students' success or failure. Provided that the English language classroom in Greece is quite exam-oriented with

language certificates bearing a substantial impact thereon (see Angouri et al.; Gogonas, 2010) it can be argued with some confidence that exam washback on classroom management is significant. It is further directly related to the exam anxiety experienced by the relevant stakeholders within the Greek context – i.e. teachers, students, language school owners and parents.

6.3.2.4 Feedback

In this section, exam washback on feedback is put under detailed scrutiny with a special emphasis on its nature within the multi-exam class. More specifically, two forms of feedback, teacher-to-student and student-to-teacher, are investigated.

In the teacher-to-student form of feedback, the majority of the feedback provided by the teachers is on taught items, followed by feedback on exams and feedback regarding students' error correction (Table 4.21, Section 4.4.4). The teachers' main concern is to ensure students' comprehension. Especially in the case of feedback on taught items, teachers not only provide the required answer but also praise students for providing the correct form of an item (Section 4.4.4). Feedback in this case seems to work as it would in a non-exam class and may be assumed not to be influenced by the exam itself. So the most usual form of feedback on taught items is not exclusively dictated by the exams. This indicates that washback is not all-pervasive in multi-exam classes, especially during the first term of the school year.

Feedback on the taught item is a comment or explanation on students' answers but feedback for correction has the additional component of the teacher correcting students' answers. There is no apparent divergence in the form and type of feedback between exam and non-exam classes (see Section 4.4.4). Nonetheless, feedback for correction is relatively higher in occurrence in the case of the multi-exam class. Based on their responses, teachers are more concerned with students' errors as the prevalent perception is that failure to address incorrect responses could impact on the students' chances of succeeding in an exam. More specifically, grammar and vocabulary are usually tested individually in exams and errors affect the candidate's score negatively. The need for students to fully understand linguistic forms (i.e. collocations, grammar structures), therefore, becomes even more pervasive. In light of the above, claims can be made that more intense feedback activity relating to error correction is an indication of exam washback. Such a conclusion aligns with Watanabe's

study (2004) on the Japanese entrance examination during which feedback to students' input was frequently provided, with a persistent emphasis on linguistic forms.

However, the situation alters when it comes to feedback on exams in multi-exam classes. In essence, this type of feedback is reflective of exam washback and relates to the teachers' concern to familiarise students with exam specifications and techniques. In consideration of the fact that 304 items of feedback regard exam specifications and techniques (Section 4.4.4) points toward students being loaded with information which may have limited value in terms of improving linguistic competence. Rather, this type of feedback is strictly targeted toward passing the exam. A case in point is feedback on timing, an aspect which does not necessarily reflect on the real-life use of language, as activities such as reading a newspaper article or writing an email are not always restricted by a given time limit. Naturally, skills like skim reading which have great value in real-life should be cultivated. However, reading or responding to a set of questions within a specific time frame might not necessarily relate to common real-life reading activities.

As far as feedback and exam marking criteria are concerned, the present study concludes that the latter are not a consideration during the first term, but teachers do adopt them during the second term in anticipation of the impending exams (Section 4.3.5). As a result, the situation in the multi-exam class aligns with Turner's (2009) findings in Canada, where teachers also combine classroom activity with exam preparation. More specifically, what became obvious during the interviews with the participating teachers is that they engage in formative assessment at the beginning of the school year. In doing so, teachers can modify and adjust teaching and learning activities to serve students' needs. However, as exams come closer, the teachers engage mostly in summative assessment especially through the use of mock exams (Section 4.4.4). Emphasis, therefore, shifts from diagnosing and addressing potential gaps in knowledge or weaknesses to strictly assessing students' performance, an indication of direct exam washback. In summative assessment, which in this case regards assessment of students' performance on mock exam paper, exam marking criteria become more of a consideration for teachers, especially for the writing and speaking components of the test. It is this author's contention that, were it not for the exam, teachers could potentially have engaged in a more formative type of feedback throughout the year. In fact, Cheng's assertion on teachers' willingness to adopt formative assessment practices in lieu of large-scale testing assessment (2014), further supports the claim that, in the absence of exam pressure, teachers might have indeed adopted such assessment practices. Opting for

formative assessment could have been more beneficial for students as it would engage them in a more productive learning process, effective also beyond classroom practice (Cheng, 2014; Black, 2015). In addition, if teachers did not have to worry about the exams, the time spent on providing extensive exam-related feedback could be allocated to more pedagogical features of language learning.

The other form of feedback, namely student-to-teacher, appears to be limited in the classes observed (Table 4.21, Section 4.4.4). This form of feedback involves students attempting to spot other students' mistakes and amend them. The primary aim of this type of feedback is to consolidate the material taught. Considering that student-to-teacher feedback remains limited throughout the school year might suggest that this practice could depend on the specific teacher than other factors, such as the exam itself. Given that exam washback on feedback was found to be more palpable in the multi-exam class during the second term, one might assume that student-to-teacher feedback could have been more pronounced during the first term, which is not the case. Teachers' attitude towards the teaching process could be linked to the absence or respective presence of such feedback, which is also strongly connected to teacher-talk. In the classes observed, the lack of such feedback might also betray lack of awareness of the benefits associated with this type of feedback. This becomes evident through the participating teachers' comments on this feedback type. Specifically, they relate that students' feedback is elicited solely to ensure that students' are paying attention to the lesson and that they understand the material. However, teachers do not use such feedback to assess learners' needs or to determine whether these are met. Should this type of feedback be used for the former purposes rather than merely as confirmation of students' understanding, learning would improve and teaching would more satisfactorily meet students' expectations.

6.3.2.5 Explanations – Suggestions –Instructions

Observation pointed towards two forms of explanations and suggestions in exam preparation classes: (i) those relating to each individual lesson, which included suggestions and explanations regarding firstly, tasks and activities, secondly, aspects or structures that students did not understand, and finally, particular language points; and, (ii) those relating to the exams, mostly relevant during the second term. The former is also validated by Cheng's, (1997), Stecher et al., (2004) and Burrows', (2004) findings, based on which teachers used explanations and suggestions on language points and activities and tasks.

Feedback on the specific lesson covered during each session was provided in the first term as teachers believed that it was their duty to do so. It could be concluded that in the first term explanations and suggestions are attributed more to teacher and student characteristics than the exam itself. However, in the second term, in consonance with Mickan and Motteram's study (2009), a strong washback effect was exercised on explanations and suggestions, accompanied by more extensive use of exam-related activities. Exam washback on explanations and suggestions, therefore, gradually intensifies as exam dates approach and as the use of exam-related materials (e.g. mock exam papers) increases. However, the presence of suggestions and explanations in the form described above (i.e. on tasks and activities, language points, etc.) during the first term in both classes, suggests that the former are also heavily influenced by other factors, such as students' level and teachers' teaching style and strategies, irrespective of the fact that the ultimate aim is still success in the exam. Exam influence cannot be denied since teachers in the second term focus on explanations and suggestions relating to the exams or on language points, tasks and activities that are related to the exams.

6.4 Washback on teachers' beliefs and attitudes

The results of the interviews and questionnaires employed in this study (Section 4.5) conform to findings reported by other studies regarding teachers having both positive and negative beliefs and attitudes towards the exams. More specifically, teachers expressed both positive and negative feelings toward the B2 level exams in the Greek context in relation to both one-exam and multi-exam classes (Sections 4.5 and 5.3). Teachers further stressed the importance of exam-oriented training. These issues will be discussed below.

6.4.1 Positive washback on teachers' beliefs and attitudes on exam(s)

Teachers exhibit positive attitudes towards multi-exam classes in believing that the multi-exam teaching context offers students a more favourable opportunity to experience a more effective and holistic learning process than in one-exam classes (Section 4.5). Simultaneously, negative beliefs appear to emerge in relation to multi-exam classes. These negative attitudes materialize in relative confusion on behalf of the teachers deriving from (i) the pursuit of more than one exam; (ii) pressure to select the most suitable exam for their students and (iii) students' exposure to different kinds of exam specifications. On the other hand, they feel that taking advantage of the best features of each exam can actually advance

their students' ability to use the language (Section 4.5). As discussed earlier, preparation for more than one exam allows students to gain exposure to different tasks and techniques to practise the relevant language skills. As a result, the participating teachers in the interviews view multi-exam classes as more challenging, yet interesting than the one-exam classes. As the discussion so far remarkably suggests, the co-occurrence of both positive and negative washback does not merely regard the presence of an exam but the combination of multiple exams, which exerts washback on its own right.

Accordingly, the survey clearly points towards the teachers' perception of multi-exam classes as classes that increase chances for success and provide more opportunities for language learning. This is supported by teachers who teach both one-exam and multi-exam classes (Section 5.4). This shows that success is what matters the most and how important success in exams is, not only for students and their parents but teachers, too. Both type of classes consider success as a significant factor to form such classes regardless maybe of other characteristics of classes such as the number of activities they do or the level of stress they exert. There is also agreement among the teachers about the potential of multi-exam classes to satisfy students' needs. However, they strongly believe that multi-exam classes entail more work for teachers compared to one-exam classes which are presented as more manageable for both teachers and students (Section 5.3). The latter could potentially lead to negative washback, additional pressure and stress among both teachers and students.

The fact that the participants of this study are teachers of both multi- and one-exam classes offers a unique and perhaps radical perspective, particularly in relation to teachers' perceptions, attitudes and beliefs, as it allows for washback to be examined as actualized in the combination of multiple exams and in contrast to washback regarding one exam. So far, teachers' preference for multi-exam classes emerges pervasively from both questionnaires and interviews. As suggested by participants, this is partially due to the relative autonomy enjoyed in the first half of the school year, when teachers feel free to engage in what they deem as more pedagogically appropriate practices and to exercise their creativity in teaching. Teachers further associate this autonomy with an opportunity to perform more regular formative assessment and adjust their teaching strategies accordingly. An inkling of positive washback on teachers' beliefs is also evident in their impression that preparing for more than one exam may increase students' chances of acquiring the much sought-after language certificate. Although not scrutinized by this study, this perception could also indirectly contribute to positive washback on classroom atmosphere, as a potential factor toward

mitigating teachers' stress. Furthermore, since the choice of exam or exams to sit for is a joint decision made between student and teacher, students are more active in the decision-making and the learning processes. Although this is not the case during the second term when exam pressure increases, it can be argued that the multi-exam class is more likely to impact positively on both teachers and students' attitudes as it makes both experience certain autonomy. Negative exam washback is, therefore, more pronounced in the second half of the school year instead of dominating both terms.

The positive feelings of teachers towards the multi-exam class also extend to the materials used. More specifically, teachers seem to like the fact that the course books are regularly revised in order to reflect the specifications of any new exams offered in Greece because it becomes more challenging, and thus interesting for them. In addition, they enjoy the challenges that emerge from changes in exams as those further prompt teachers to diversify and refine their teaching practices in an effort to adapt to these new modes of testing (Section 4.5). This clearly establishes that advances in language testing and assessment can have a positive effect on teaching and teachers' attitudes. Positive washback on teachers' attitudes, therefore, can be seen to emerge from what is seen as a broadening and innovating of the curriculum through exam modification and refinement. Strikingly, it further offers a fresh perspective on how changes to the exam in combination with the co-existence of multiple exams can lead to a radically different picture of washback on teachers and the teaching context.

One could further argue that preparation for multiple exams might even be seen to revolutionize the teaching context, making it more 'multi-cultural' as students are simultaneously exposed to different varieties of English and different Anglophone cultures on an equal footing. As has already been established, the variety of exams currently on offer in Greece, are produced and administered by cultural institutions from different Anglophone countries. Each exam is representative of a given culture and is administered in a different variety of Standard English. Thus, students become increasingly aware of differences regarding grammar, lexis, morphology, spelling, accent and pronunciation, and most importantly, cultural and social aspects (see Section 4.5). This variety might also better suit the needs of each individual student. For instance, one of the teachers interviewed mentioned the case of a student who wanted to join his brother in Ireland and thus liked that he could actually choose to prepare for an Irish exam and, by extension, be better prepared for adapting to the Irish culture (Section 4.5).

6.4.2 Negative washback on teachers' beliefs and attitudes on exam(s)

The participating teachers' views towards multi-exam classes involved some concerns that for the most part relate to success in the exams. More specifically, the orientation towards multiple exams is seen to engender additional workload for teachers and further pressure on both teachers and students to choose the appropriate exam (Sections 4.5 and 5.3). As briefly touched upon in the previous section, both concerns amount to feelings of perplexity and uncertainty on the basis that the focus is shifted from one exam to several exams, with diverse specifications and therefore tasks. Although the language skills to be tested and therefore cultivated in students remain the same, students should practise a set of diverse tasks for each exam. These differences among exams may require a different approach on the part of the teacher as far as the teaching of exam techniques is concerned. As a result, the co-existence of multiple exams to choose from may simultaneously create negative washback on teachers' feelings in the case of the multi-exam class since teachers believe that such classes require more work on their part (Sections 4.5 and 5.3). In light of the above and the discussion in the previous section, the combination of multiple exams can simultaneously bear a positive and a negative impact on teachers' attitudes and beliefs.

Negative washback on teachers' beliefs is predominately associated with the additional workload entailed in the multi-exam class. Participant teachers stress the exhaustion which stems from the need to organise such classes more carefully because of time constraints. Similarly, teachers who exclusively teach multi-exam classes exhibit a preference towards these types of classes over one-exam classes compared to teachers who teach both classes (Section 5.3). The latter believe that multi-exam classes entail more work for both students and teachers than one-exam classes which are considered more manageable (Section 5.3). Students tend to sit for more than one exam at different times of the year and, therefore, teachers always have to be alert and use their class time effectively to teach different exam techniques, tasks and activities. This is the case especially in the first term when students have not yet decided which exams to pursue. This facilitates students to approach learning from different angles but is quite frustrating for the teachers because of the workload.

In terms of the pressure both teachers and students experience, young learners are considered immature and this makes choosing the appropriate exam difficult, although the availability of options is positive. In the interviews, the participating teachers mention that some of the criteria for choosing the exam may not be entirely appropriate or proper (Section 4.5),

suggesting that the pressure for students to succeed in the exam can incite negative washback. Results from the questionnaire show that anxiety in both one-exam and multi-exam classes derive from the parents' pressure for success and from social factors. Moreover, the fact that exam classes are intensive classes cause negative feelings in both types of exam classes (Section 5.3). The case study generated similar findings (Section 4.5).

Insufficient needs analysis is also at the core of negative washback, which is further complicated in potential presence of multiple exams. Oftentimes, the students' needs are not taken into account by either students or their parents when selecting the exam. What is expected in this case is the teacher's intervention to propose which test is suitable for each student. However, this is sometimes quite difficult as teachers may be unable to properly assess the student's needs (Section 4.5). Critically, all relevant exams are used as general language certifications (Section 4.5) and are therefore not distinguished on the basis of a specific purpose that each one might serve. In view of the above, the abundance of available exams becomes a double-edged sword: on the one hand, it exerts positive washback on attitudes, as teachers see this variety as a chance to challenge traditional or out-dated teaching strategies and diversify their teaching; on the other hand, it leads to negative washback as teachers are overwhelmed by the additional burden of selecting among equivalent exams for their students with no clear guiding criteria in mind or, at least, with insufficient training to make an informed decision. The latter further highlights the negative role stakeholders may play in the process and specifically test designers and administrative institutions that might not precisely articulate which needs each exam addresses and in so doing disrupt the continuity between exam(s) and the classroom. Yet again, a new type of washback emerges – in this case negative – not from a particular exam but from the co-presence of many. A possible solution to redress the unintended negative washback derived from such exam combination is for the relevant stakeholders to institute better teacher training in assessing and addressing students' needs. Douglas' call for testing boards to generate tests for specific purposes, which would aim at specific age groups and which would be used in specific contexts (2000), could also help address this situation.

An important aspect that this study considered is whether this negative washback is exam-related or teaching context-related. The wide availability of a range of exams in combination with an intense language certification-driven environment are generally idiosyncratic to Greece, associating washback with the specific teaching context at hand. Therefore, this is a case of indirect washback. The existence of multi-exam classes in Greece reflects the

mentality of a community which strongly believes that language certification can be an asset and which considers certification as the only proof of a person's ability to use the language. Teachers, whether agreeing to this or not, conform to this mentality and adapt their teaching accordingly. As a result, it may be assumed that exams can have an indirect washback effect on the mentality of a whole community.

6.5 Factors affecting teachers' choices of teaching practices

According to Alderson and Wall's (1993) Washback Hypotheses, tests will have washback effects on some teachers and learners, but not on others. This is related not only to the individual teachers' characteristics (Wall and Horak, 2007; Turner, 2009) but also to other factors. Such factors relating to the study at hand relate to the type of class, i.e. one-exam or multi-exam class, as well as exam date proximity (referring to 1st and 2nd term). This part of the study focuses on the factors that influence teachers' teaching practices in exam preparation classes in Greece and addresses the third research question: how do teachers decide on the teaching practices they use in multi-exam classes? This question specifically regards the factors that influence the way teachers teach multi-exam classes. The research methods employed to answer this question were the case study (see Chapter Four) and the questionnaire (see Chapter Five) which exclusively focused on these factors. The analysis of follow-up interviews and the results from the questionnaire further gave rise to additional factors leading to mediated exam influence.

6.5.1 Factors affecting activities and tasks

The factors affecting teachers' choices of the activities and tasks they use in exam preparation classes indicate how complex the washback process is (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Shohamy et al, 1996; Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Tsagari, 2009). The participant teachers in the case study and the results from the questionnaire articulate a marked variation in the factors influencing the use of activities and tasks, firstly, between one-exam and multi-exam classes, secondly between the first and second term and, finally, between the teachers themselves.

Taking into account the group of factors in section 4.6, teachers in the first term referred mainly to students and teachers' factors, language learning factors and materials. Teachers did a variety of activities in multi-exam classes compared to one-exam classes because of

the nature of the exams, a direct impact of the combination of exams taught. In multi-exam classes, teachers used activities that followed the coursebook, regardless of exams based on the factors of language learning, provision of examples to students, students practice and the course book. Tasks were used in multi-exam classes to relax students, encourage them to participate and make the lesson more interesting, contrary to one-exam classes where teachers used tasks mainly to familiarize students with the exam format even in the first term. Therefore, the exam was a more prominent factor and had a more direct washback effect on the one-exam class during the first term. Moreover, fewer tasks were used in the second term in the multi-exam class unlike the one-exam class where the tasks increased in number in the form of mock exams (Section 4.3).

The questionnaire clearly exhibited that important factors in task selection in both types of classes were (i) making the lesson more interesting, (ii) creating a fun environment for students and (iii) encouraging students to participate and to work together. However, the tasks that are included in the exams still remained a prominent factor (Section 5.6.1). The questionnaire has shown that teachers consider students' motivation to participate in the lesson the most important factor when they choose activities in both classes (Section 4.6.2). However, the class observations painted a somewhat different picture. While, factors such as student motivation and engagement were factors that featured prominently in interviews and questionnaires, observations recorded extensive use of the course book to which reference was regularly made by teachers in order to justify the selection of activities employed in the class. Although the questionnaire also showed that teachers consider the course book to be somewhat important in tasks and activities selection, the different methods of data collection in this case seem to suggest somewhat contradictory tendencies.

In the second term, teachers focused mostly on past papers and practice tests which were accompanied by exam-related activities. Results from the questionnaire showed that teachers in both classes mostly tend to familiarize students with exam content, discuss test procedures with students and encourage revision of the exams (Section 5.7). Apparently, there is a strong washback effect in activities in the second term when the exam date approaches.

Students and language learning are factors that influence tasks and activities to a great extent. However, this tendency is almost strictly limited to the first term and more prominent in the multi-exam class. This could potentially suggest an unintended washback effect of exam combination. More precisely, lack of one specific exam framework to work toward and the

potentiality of multiple exams – yet not determined in the first term – might contribute towards foregrounding other factors (i.e. language learning, fun classroom environment and student motivation) as more influential than the exams in the first term of the school year. The washback effect on activities and tasks was more pronounced in the second term, however. Naturally, exams play a very important role in both activities and tasks selection but there is a substantial difference in the importance and priority those enjoy between groups. Nonetheless, the degree of washback fluctuates between teachers, types of classes and terms, and depends on other interrelated factors, such as students and language learning.

6.5.2 The exam factor and teaching strategies

Research into teaching strategies in this study indicated a variation in washback nature and strength not only between teachers but also between classes (multi-exam and one-exam) and terms, as well as among teaching strategies themselves.

The analysis of follow-up interviews gave rise to a number of additional factors leading to mediated exam influence (Section 4.4). Radical differences regarding the factors influencing teaching strategies were recorded between teachers and especially between terms. Class observations during the first term revealed that exams seem to influence the teaching strategies used by the teachers of multi-exam classes only minimally. Language learning factors, students and teachers' factors, as well as class/school, materials and social factors mainly influenced the way they taught (Section 4.4). With regard to one-exam classes, during the same term, the same factors influenced the teaching strategies they used. However, even though it was the first term, some exam influence was recorded, mainly on feedback, pair/group work and teachers' explanations/ suggestions. However, during the second term, both the exams began to exercise a growing influence in both types of classes. For instance, students did a lot of exam-related activities and tasks unsupervised and often within strict time limits, either alone or with their peers. Teachers continued to use pair work in the second term in the one-exam classes because of the format of the exam (TIE exam) which required candidates to be interviewed in groups (Section 4.4.3). Consequently, the exam format contributed toward the continuation of a given communicative teaching strategy into the second term, leading to positive washback. In this case and by contrast to the multi-exam class, teacher factors did not contribute so much to the use of specific strategies as the actual exam did, as per numerous washback studies (Wall and Alderson, 1993; Shohamy et al, 1996; Cheng, 1997, Burrows, 2004, Watanabe, 2004). Unlike studies like Watanabe's (2004) that found pair work and student-to-student interaction was much

more common in non-exam classes, the specific exam at hand, in fact, seems to cultivate a more communicative teaching and learning strategy in this case, showing the immediate impact of test design in the classroom. In spite of the above, interaction patterns and mainly the use of pair/group work was also influenced by students and teachers' factors since teachers suggested in the questionnaire that they use pair/group work to motivate students to participate and collaborate, as well as to make the lesson more interesting or more fun. In this case, the teacher factor seems to become more prominent.

Nonetheless, teacher factors seem to have emerged much more prominently in the questionnaire, significant differences in the former's perceptions of teaching strategies were observed. Teachers of both types of classes provided feedback to students either to help them when they would show lack of understanding or to check students' understanding and difficulties. However, teachers that exclusively teach one-exam classes consider helping students with the exams and helping students when they do not understand as important factors in providing feedback (Section 5.8.1). Consequently, while teachers generally agree that most factors motivating feedback are related to students and language learning, exam influence on teachers' feedback in the one-exam classes is more prominent.

Regarding the use of L1 (Greek) and L2 (English), teachers of both class types (one-exam or multi-exam) make by far more extensive use of the L1 when they perceive that students have trouble understanding due to their level. Other reasons for using Greek concern providing information, with regard to one-exam classes, and helping students with certain activities and tasks, with regard to multi-exam classes (Section 5.8.2). Students' factors, as well as language learning factors, play the most important role for choosing the language to teach. The above suggests that L1 is used mostly to for meta-communication to convey information about language or how to perform a task. As it emerges, the exams do not appear to influence the choice of L1 in exam preparations classes. Rather this depends on extra-examination factors and mainly the students and their needs, also suggested as an important factor in teaching strategies by Cheng (1997) and Watanabe (2004). However, teachers do use the English language so that students become familiar and confident in using the language and be prepared for the exams.

Generally, washback effect was recorded on explanations, suggestions and instruction. Observations and follow-up interviews clearly highlight that the exam factor gained prominence in both types of classes during the second term, while also present in the first

term in the one-exam class (Section 5.8.4.). As evidenced in this section and in terms of exam-related factors, (i) close proximity to the exam time, (ii) the type of class the teachers teach (one-exam or multi-exam), (iii) the format of the exam and (iv) the number of the exams seem to influence teaching practices. Based on the above discussion, exams vary on the degree and the type of influence they exert depending on factors such as teachers and students. Exams seem not to be the only source of influence on teaching practices but other factors, such as the educational background, language learning and students' factors, also appear to have great gravity (Pan, 2011).

6.5.3 Extra-examination factors, exams and teaching strategies

The analysis of follow-up interviews and the results from the questionnaire gave rise to extra-examination factors mediating exam influence. These factors were found to be interrelated and can be classified into six main categories: students, teachers, language learning, school-class/social, materials and the exam itself.

Students play a pivotal role in teachers' decision regarding teaching practices. Student factors refer to students' needs, level, age, participation in the class, students' motivation, understanding and students' collaboration. Student factors affected teachers mostly in the first term rather than the second in both classes as they were mostly relevant to the choice of the exam and the formation of the groups. Additionally, the extent to which these factors were more immediate varied among teachers. Student factors affected mainly the teaching strategies and not the activities and tasks employed in the classroom.

Teacher factors refer to the educational background, teacher's position, professional training, beliefs about teaching methods and teacher's experience. Teachers' attitudes towards teaching, education and training, as well as teacher's beliefs (Spratt, 2005) about the exam, can influence the teaching strategies they use but not the types of activities and tasks, which are more subject to exam-related factors. The choice of the exams and the organisation of the exam classes are also influenced by teacher-related factors. Therefore, teachers play an important role in producing different types of washback and can play an influential role when test changes are introduced. They can control washback, produce positive washback and promote language learning. Decisions that teachers make, should facilitate positive washback and lead to more effective learning. Negative washback produced by teachers raises the issue of teacher training.

During the interviews, teachers stressed the importance of certain practices in language learning, such as clarifying things, helping students to understand, language practice, promoting language learning, making the lesson interesting for students to learn and putting theory into practice. Teachers are interested in the students' actual learning of the language and even use extra materials as well as exam-related activities to improve students and ensure their success in the exams. The teaching strategies are selected to a great extent on the basis of language learning factors. The former, therefore, are directly linked to teachers who are the ones responsible for the proper language learning process. Multi-exam classes offer such opportunities and provide teachers with the opportunity to have language learning as a priority in their teaching.

The materials used by the teachers, either general course books or past papers and practice tests, directly affect what teachers teach (i.e. activities and tasks) and indirectly the teaching strategies employed in class. Therefore, materials spotlight publishers and material developers as important washback effect on exam preparation classes.

As was established earlier in this chapter, the use of books is directly related to parents' pressure to finish the whole book. Bearing that in mind, it is worth dwelling on the indirect influence parents have on in-class activities and tasks through the pressure they exert on teachers to cover the course book in its entirety. Therefore, in this particular study, parents also emerge as an eminent presence affecting teachers' teaching strategies.

Nonetheless, the wider educational and social contexts in which the exam is offered should also be examined for washback because the former may influence teachers' beliefs and the exam on the whole (Cheng, 1997). In this particular study, exam impact was evident in the immediate educational context – i.e. the school – as it impacted on certain aspects of school organization. As has been observed in various language classroom contexts (see Li, 2009; Watanabe, 2004; Deng and Carless, 2010; Watanabe, 2000), the present study found that factors that relate to the school and the class can influence the degree and kinds of washback experienced in the multi-exam class. These include the organisation of the school, the organisation of the class, the number of students, the time available, classroom atmosphere along with differences and competition among schools. These are considered to be decisive factors which shape the educational context and may be influenced by the exam. As a case in point, narrowing of the curriculum for the purposes of adapting to a particular exam (see e.g. Shohamy et al., 1996; Wall, 2000) serves as an example of exam impact on a school.

Within the Greek context, the fact that many language schools often form classes not entirely on the basis of the students' linguistic level (e.g. CEF B2, C1, etc.) or other factors but rather on the basis of the exams students are preparing for is also evidence of exam impact on school and class organisation.

The school under scrutiny for the purposes of the present study also exhibits exam washback on the organisation of the school and the exam preparation classes. More specifically, the teachers' assessment of the students' level and linguistic abilities seems to greatly influence not only their methodological choices but also the kinds of classes offered in the school. Student assessment also dictates changes in the selection of the exams students will sit for in order to match the latter's needs and abilities. This becomes even more marked when multi-exam classes are compared to one-exam classes.

The formation of the two types of exam-preparation classes offered at the particular school attests to how the school is emphatically organized around the exams themselves. To start with, the questionnaire revealed that a considerable number of teachers in Greece teach one-exam classes, while a large number teach multi-exam classes. Teachers who are involved in teaching both types of classes are a minority (Section 5.3). B2 level classes end up being mixed-ability classes since students move up levels even if they do not fulfill the requirements and since they are expected to get the certificate at a specific point in time. The pressing exam factor combines with considerations of timing (see Watanabe, 1996; Al-Jamal and Ghady 2008) as well as factors of school competition (see Li, 2009; Deng and Carless, 2010). As a result, B2 classes are broken down into one-exam and multi-exam classes where lower level students are placed in the former because it is deemed easier to prepare for one-exam. Other reasons are the time availability of students and teachers as well as the type of the exams (Section 5.4). So, the number of the exams and the format of the exams seem to dominate class organization and, by extension, teaching strategies, while other factors play an important role in the division and organization of exam preparation classes.

The majority of washback studies so far have determined that the educational context cannot be viewed separately from the general socio-cultural context (see e.g. Cheng et al, 2004; Glover, 2006). Tsagari's model (2009) also accounted for the societal influences on the Greek community's perceptions of education and examinations. Therefore, this model discusses the complex nature of washback in terms of classroom-generated influences and local society-related influences. Glover's (2006) model discusses societal influences on how

teachers teach through talk by presenting them as the “bottom line” which encompasses wider social factors, as well as political and cultural factors. Shih (2010) also points out that social and educational factors are of paramount importance for teachers, students and schools when considering exam preparation classes. With relevance to Greece, it is not only language learning that seems to be highly regarded by Greeks but education in general. The rough statement that a good education and a university degree are considered prestigious and are highly desirable to parents would be a moderate statement. In fact, it seems to be the case that degree and certificate acquisition is so pressing that students appear to be in constant pursuit of the former. Languages are no exception to this tendency and the minimum of a B2 level certificate in a foreign language, and particularly English, is a high priority – usually to be attained by early adolescence. The resulting pressure is high on both learners and teachers, and could perhaps explain why so many institutions choose to offer language examinations in Greece, resulting in a plethora of exams. This leads to the conclusion that exam washback is omnipresent in Greece due to the specific socio-cultural context. It could even be argued that such strong washback is facilitated through the particular mentality of the local community.

In the macro context of the educational system and the micro context of the language school on which washback is exerted, this particular study further delineated a difference in the degree of washback wielded upon the two types of classes observed. More specifically, as mentioned in Chapter five, one-exam classes experience such washback to a greater extent during both school terms whereas the multi-exam class is more susceptible to exam washback during the second term. It could, therefore, be argued that multi-exam classes allow for a more relaxed learning atmosphere and a teaching approach that is not so directly linked to the exams, at least during the first half of the school year.

Another point that should be considered is the status of language schools in Greece. The results from the questionnaire showed that most teachers who prepare students for language exams work in frontistiria either as school owners or teachers (Section 5.2). The washback effect on teaching practices can also be attributed to the personal reputation of the teacher and/or the language school, and school competition, which puts additional pressure on teachers for higher success rates in the exams. This can also be considered as exam-related washback, if indirect. With reference to the particular teachers who participated in the current study, this added pressure is tackled in diverse ways. Teacher 1, who is an employee at the language school, supports her students by reminding them that in case of failure they

can resit the exams, having more experience and higher chances to succeed. Teacher 2, who is the language school owner, focuses on the success in the exams. What appear to be teacher factors, in this case, are indirectly influenced by extra-teacher factors, in this case unequal status (employer vs. employee).

Exams were overwhelmingly the main and most influential factor on teaching practices especially in the second term. Even in the first term, exams were always an invisible presence, as teachers admit. The format of the exam and the number of the exams play a significant role in teachers' choices. Exams influence activities and tasks more directly than they do teaching strategies. However, in multi-exam classes, the type of the exam played a significant role in choosing the teaching strategy. Exam influence is experienced in almost all teaching practices in this study, so testing boards responsible for the exam formats and the use and aim of the exam should take all these factors into consideration. Teachers decide on their teaching practices not only by taking under consideration the exams but also other factors which can be influenced by the exams. These factors interrelate with each other and they can be classified into teacher-direct factors and teacher-indirect factors (Figure 6.1).

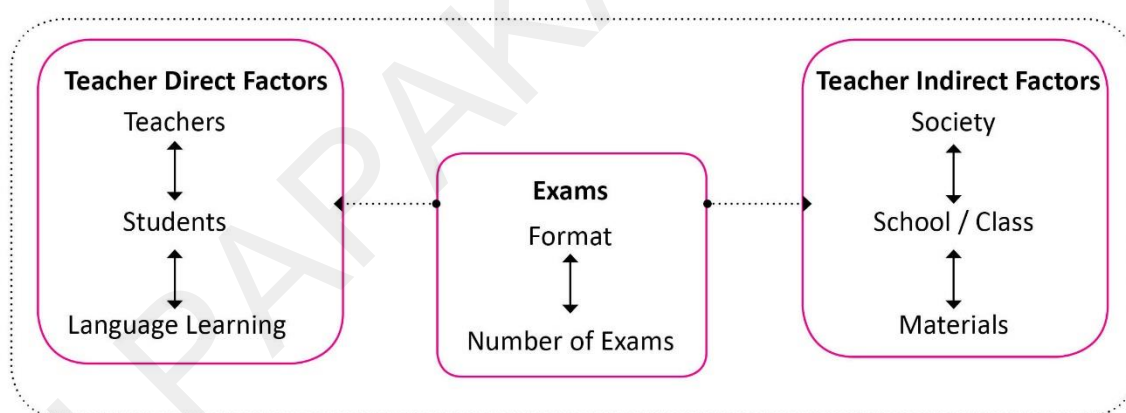


Figure 6.1: Factors affecting teaching practices

Teacher-direct factors are the teachers, students and language learning, because teachers first concern themselves with these factors and can exert control over them. Thus, teacher-indirect factors such as school class, exams, and materials influence teachers indirectly and are controlled by others such as examination boards and publishers. The exam, however, can be considered a category by itself since its role is significant on its own. Exams are not only a distinctive category but they also influence all other factors, too. The present study showed that the influence of the exams on the classroom regarding teaching practices is present both

directly – as in the case of group-work employed in the one-exam class, necessitated by the format of the particular exam– and indirectly – often in the form of pressure exerted on teachers by school organization, school competition and the stakes associated with high success rates. The above discussion further revealed that although the exam factor and extra-examination factors can be isolated and identified in theory, in practice, exam washback is mediated, intensified or minimized on the basis of the interaction of these factors. The teacher, therefore, emerges as a figure of mediation among all these factors, with greater or more limited room for freedom – in this particular case based on timing (exam proximity) and class type (multi vs. one-exam). Tsagari (2009) also visualizes exam influence on the classroom as a “dynamic and interactive process” making washback a “complex process”. Green (2013) further spotlights this image of the teacher as mediator claiming that teachers need to handle an interaction among tests, teaching and learning, adding the educational and social context, rather than the influence of tests on teaching.

6.6 Language Tests and their Effects

McNamara (2000) highlights the powerful impact of language tests in people’s lives since they act ‘as gateways at important transitional moments in education, in employment, and in moving from one country to another’ (p. 4). However, Wall (2000) refers to both the beneficial and harmful effects of tests on students and teachers. Tests not only force teachers to cover all the materials and pay attention to weak students but also prepare students only for what is likely to be encountered in a test limiting teachers’ and students’ choices and freedom. Results of the present study show that the specific test situation presents both harmful and beneficial effects on teachers and students.

In her book *The Power of Tests*, Shohamy (2001) presents the detrimental effects that tests might have on test takers, some of which are corroborated by the present study. Shohamy (2001) reports on the fact that test results create ‘winners and losers, successes and failures’ (p. 15) and this is also evident in teachers’ stress for success. Teachers mention the need for successful results on multiple occasions as well as the fact that they choose multi-exam classes because of the increased chances for success those offer. Encouraged by teachers, students choose to sit for more exams because they need to assure success. By doing so, students and teachers feel confident that the former will pass one of the two exams and therefore attain the desirable paper. Another detrimental effect of tests is that they necessitate

what can be termed survival strategies. This is obvious but not necessarily negative in the present study since teachers divide classes into multi-exam and one-exam classes to serve students' and exams' requirements needs but also to handle time restrictions and the differences among the exams. The fact that weaker students or same age group students are in the same class and prepare for the same exam can exert positive effects. As a case in point, in this study there was a more positive classroom atmosphere in the one-exam class (Section 4.4.2). However, tests can also be deterring. Teachers in the study were discouraged from using extra material beyond those present in the coursebooks, as they couldn't leave out activities and tasks from coursebooks and they were sometimes not able to use more communicative teaching strategies such as peer assessment or group/pair work because of the exams (Chapter 4).

However, multi-exam classes seemed to create more positive effects rather than negative ones on both teachers and students. As mentioned earlier, the assurance of succeeding in one of the exam choices reduces students' stress levels. Also, the wide choice of exams offers students the opportunity to choose exams that better serve their needs and abilities. Teachers can do a wide range of activities, tasks and train for a variety of skills and use various teaching strategies in their exam classes. In so doing, they facilitate and promote language learning. Teachers can form multi-exam classes of different exams with different exam formats to encourage the use of more effective teaching practices. Although this study examined only two teachers, it showed that teachers are influenced by various factors. The observation during both terms and in both types of classed allowed comparisons and the triangulation of data which were further supported by the results of the questionnaire which showed that washback is, as Spratt (2005) mentions, "not inevitable and that it is malleable" (p. 23). Therefore, teachers play an important role in fostering different types of washback and can play an influential role depending on the type of exams. So, the current study shows that without teachers, who try to control teaching and testing, exam classes would experience mainly negative washback and the effects of exams would be mainly detrimental.

It is, therefore, obvious that language tests are powerful tools. In fact, it depends on stakeholders and how they make use of them. More exams to choose from may benefit teachers if they exploit their possibilities and aims and make proper use of them. If teachers are the ones who have the power to lead students to learn and succeed in tests then their role can only be valuable in reforming high stakes testing and enhancing language learning. This requires a more thoroughly investigation of language exams and stresses out the importance

of assessment literacy. As Bachman and Palmer (2010) suggest testing should be treated carefully since it can regulate different principles and lead to vital decisions on behalf of the stakeholders.

6.7 Need for Training

The discussion on the washback effect on teaching practices point toward the need for training, as both teachers in the study expressed the desire for exam-related training, hands-on experience, and practical tips to help them manage and teach an exam class more successfully. The teachers' need for training reflects the extent of exam influence on their attitudes. It is encouraging that these teachers realize some of their shortcomings, and would like to adopt a more pedagogical approach to their teaching and to language learning in general. It is important to note that teachers asking for more exam-related training is linked to the educational and socio-cultural contexts which surround exam preparation classes in Greece and the relevant pressure they exercise on teachers.

An issue that persisted in relation to training regarded how qualified teachers are in selecting appropriate materials. Actually, a request for more training was voiced by the teachers during the interviews because they felt that there is room for improvement in terms of tailoring exam specifications to effective language learning especially in a multi-exam class. Therefore, teacher training on material selection that can both satisfy exam requirements and offer students a more holistic view of the skills at hand emerged as an urgent issue. In order to better and more productively integrate exam-related material into teaching, further training related to teaching practices and appropriately selecting tasks and activities is required.

Further training in the four skills and specifically the integration of these skills so that teachers will be better equipped with the confidence to apply them in class is also necessary. Teachers in this study made use of peer assessment techniques as well as pair and group work. Through training, teachers will gradually develop and evolve their teaching practices providing effective feedback to the students through the use of peer- or self -assessment as well as the use more student centered assessments (i.e. formative, dynamic and diagnostic assessments). Formative assessment fosters motivation, develops the capacity for self-assessment and promotes understanding of goals and criteria which are some of the

principles of Assessment Reform Group (2002a). As Stiggins (2002) points out, the latter can provide teachers with evidence of students' progress so that they are able to revise instruction. Dynamic assessment foregrounds future development since 'it provides mediation that is constantly adjusted and attuned to the learner's responsiveness' (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005, p. 252). Diagnostic assessment can help identify students' needs since it pinpoints strengths and weaknesses which can help teachers to implement the necessary changes. Such alternative assessments are considered to be effective formative assessment practices since they are interactive assessments of student progress and since they produce significant learning gains and shape learning (Dumit, 2012). These assessment practices assess for learning providing information in order to advance student learning through engaging students and continuously adjusting instruction (Stiggins, 2002, p. 5). Thus, training on such forms of assessment can help teachers modify their learning and use it in favour of language learning, as well as for the purposes of minimizing negative washback effect. It is clear that teachers with increased levels of 'assessment literacy' (Fulcher, 2012) will be able to be involved in matters of test selection and place students onto appropriate classes. This requires that teachers possess an understanding of the exams in the market and the scope of the exams. This need for language assessment literacy further corroborates the findings of Vogt and Tsagari's (2014) and Khadijeh and Amir's (2015) studies.

6.8 Conclusion

The discussion of the results in this chapter was based on the research questions presented in Section 3.2. Conclusions were drawn with regards to the washback effect in multi-exam classes, on what teachers teach, how they teach, their beliefs and attitudes towards examinations and their teaching practices. The data used are from classroom observations, the interviews with the two participating teachers and a questionnaire. In addition, an analysis of the factors affecting teachers' choices of teaching practices within the multi-exam class was deemed necessary to gain better insight into the nature and scope of the observed exam washback.

The above analysis clearly points to the existence of exam washback on teaching practices in the multi-exam class, especially during the second school term when exam dates are near. Findings show that, in contrast with one-exam classes, multi-exam classes offer teachers the opportunity to engage in more pedagogical practices during the first school term as students have not yet decided on which exam to take. This allows teachers to work on all skills in a

more effective and pedagogical, not exam oriented way. The variation observed between the two teachers led to the examination of teacher characteristics which showed that the teachers' educational background and professional expertise do play a role in the selection of teaching practices and that this is not directly linked to the exams.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

7.1 In search of Washback on Teaching Strategies: A Working Model

Similar to numerous other countries, English language certification in Greece is considered an important qualification to possess when searching for employment in either the public or the private sector. Acknowledging this reality, a substantial number of people in Greece have sought to obtain a qualification in English. This certificate-driven society has contributed to the inevitable introduction of a number of English language examinations administered by local and international exam boards. This has given rise to an exam oriented teaching and learning culture in English language teaching in Greece. The great variety of state-approved exams, which was discussed in the introduction of this study, has created the multi-exam preparation teaching context in frontistiria.

This study has explored the influence of exams in these multi-exam preparation classes and specifically on teachers' teaching practices. As teachers face a relatively new teaching context and have to cope with a 'new' set of needs and an altered curriculum, this context presented an interesting and unexplored territory for washback studies, rendering interesting findings and shedding further light into the factors that influence teachers. Furthermore, it hopefully raised researchers' awareness of a new and promising teaching culture that developed around multi-exam preparation courses. English language teaching in other countries, like Taiwan, which face similar challenges given the multiplicity of exams available in the markets might benefit from the study at hand. English learners in Taiwan face the difficult decision of choosing one standardized English exam amongst the multiple ones available basing their decisions on (i) financial considerations, (ii) possibility of success and (iii) other stakeholders' suggestions (e.g. teachers, parents) (Yi-Long and Wu, 2015). Considering curriculum innovation in order to allow for multiple exam preparation courses there could help tackle some of these problems.

This study set out to investigate the teaching practices used by teachers when they prepare students for English language exams. It specifically focused on the washback effect of the English language certificates on teaching strategies while further investigating other factors beyond the exams that influence teachers' teaching practices in exam preparation courses. The study focused on two teachers teaching a multi-exam preparation course and preparing students for more than two English language exams. Through the use of a questionnaire, it

further investigated the factors that bear on teachers' teaching practices and also sought to identify any discrepancies in the above between multi-exam and one-exam classes.

The case study presented evidence of washback variation attributed to types of classes and terms rather than teachers. The washback effect was stronger in the one-exam class rather than the multi-exam one and became stronger during intense preparation periods towards the end of the academic year and as the exam dates were getting closer. Other factors beyond the exams had a strong influence on teaching strategies varying, however, between terms, types of classes and teaching practices. For example, in the multi-exam class teachers taught a wider range of skills, tasks were selected in order to make the lesson more interesting, the activities followed the course book closely and teaching practices were chosen on the basis of other factors beyond the exams. In the one-exam class, teachers used more exam-related tasks as the TIE examination has a task-based format. These teachers further restricted the skills they taught to the ones that were examined in the exam and the teaching practices were chosen mainly according to students' proficiency level and needs.

During the second term, washback was more intense in both classes, given that many choices were influenced by the exams which were then imminent. The skills taught, the materials used and the tasks and the activities done resembled the exam format. The teaching practices selected, however, were influenced both by the exams and other factors. Most of the results of this study were obtained through the use of the questionnaire which revealed that not only exam factors but other factors influence teachers' choices regarding teaching practices. Even though tasks and activities were mostly influenced by the exams and not by the course book as the case study showed, other factors were observed to influence teaching strategies. Those factors varied between the two types of classes, multi- and one exam.

It is clear from the findings that the three research questions pursued in this study are closely interrelated. The results of the three research questions can begin to formulate a model of washback on teaching practices. The model shows what each group of factors contains and how it influences all parts of the teaching process. The direction and degree of washback effect is evident during the entire teaching process including not only in relation to content, materials, skills, teaching practices but also to term and class type.

Compared to previous models on classroom washback (see Chapter 2), the novelty of the current model (see Figure 7.1) is threefold: (i) the variety of methods used for data collection;

(ii) the fact that it focuses solely on the washback of tests on teaching practices; and, (iii) the fact that it considers the number of exams taught in a classroom. From a methodological perspective, this study guarded against shortcomings associated with earlier washback studies which based their findings solely on teachers' accounts (Alderson and Wall, 1993). To that end, direct observation was considered a key method of data collection to safeguard validity in this specific washback research. Furthermore, "the conditions under which [washback] operates (ibid. p. 116) were further illuminated as this study introduced school terms as a factor that influences washback.

The proposed model also differs from others as it describes the complexity of washback effect on instruction. As was observed in the discussion of the relevant literature (Chapter Two), current theories and models cannot fully capture the washback of a test on teaching practices as they tend to examine the impact of exams on a larger scale and in relation to the wider teaching context. To that purpose, I propose a washback model of teacher's teaching, using three categories of factors generated from the present study: teacher-direct, teacher-indirect, and test factors. In order that the washback of the exams can be ascertained teacher-direct (teachers, students, language learning), teacher-indirect (society, school/class, materials), and test factors have to be considered. Hughes' model (1993) considered the effect of a test on participants and processes, which would partially capture the above mentioned teacher-direct and teacher-indirect factors. However, teachers and all the other stakeholders in Hughes' model are considered on an equal basis under the category of participants. Any action taken by said participants that might contribute to learning are also considered under the umbrella category of processes. The proposed model articulated in this study, does not necessarily look at the impact of tests on these factors. First of all, teachers are considered in isolation, while other participants are considered as part of the wider context of society. These are further explored in combination and how said combination influences and, to a certain extent, determines the teaching strategies employed in the classroom. So, teaching strategies, tasks and activities employed in the classroom and, by extension, the learning process (identified by Hughes as 'products') are not examined on the same footing. The benefit of this approach in comparison to Hughes' model is that teachers are afforded a more central role, which further allows for washback to be examined in relation to other factors, such as proximity of the exams as well as the number and format of the exams, which are expected to be more teacher-related and which might not be considered in a model that treats all participants on an equal footing.

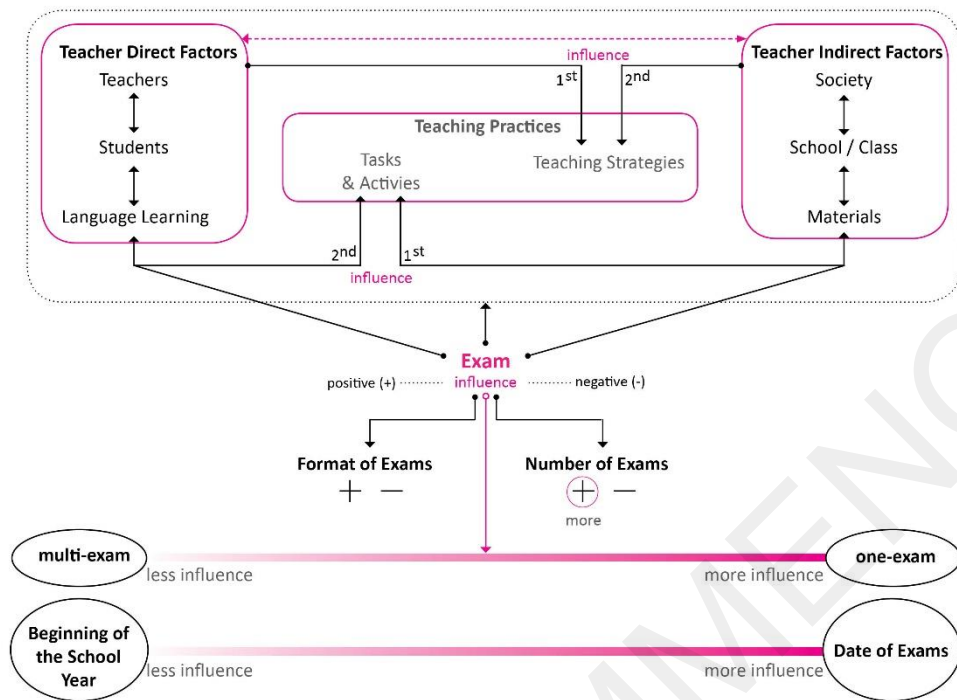


Figure 7.1: A Washback Model on Teachers' Teaching Practices

In my proposed model above, the upper box in the middle represents the tasks and activities as well as the teaching strategies teachers employ. The arrows represent the influence on the teaching practices and the numbers indicate the order of influence. In other words, tasks and activities are initially influenced by teacher indirect factors, such as the exams and the available material, and then by teacher direct factors whereas teaching strategies are primarily influenced by teacher direct factors and subsequently by teacher indirect factors. Each category contains specific factors which are also influenced from each other. All the aspects included in the upper box (teaching practices, teacher direct and teacher indirect factors) are influenced by the exams but the extent or direction of washback differs based on the parameters of exam format, exam number and school term. These are represented through the arrows under the term exams. These can have both positive and negative washback effect on teaching practices. Lastly, the section under the exam factor presents the washback effect across the types of classes and the school terms. The lighter colour implies weaker washback effect, such as that observed in multi-exam classes and in the beginning of the school term while the darker colour indicates stronger washback effect, which was encountered in one-exam class and during intense preparation periods.

This is closer to Bailey's washback model (1996) which differentiated between program washback and learner washback but which recognized that products (i.e. students' learning) are affected through processes and the participants, which is the case in the proposed model under scrutiny. Bailey, however, does not take into account societal influences, which this model does. Tsagari's model (2009), which does incorporate these factors but also affords teachers a central role in the process, does not consider the factors of exam number and school term. It further describes washback in a wider context, while this model draws attention to washback on teaching strategies. This is, therefore, closer to Saif's washback model (2006), which investigates washback on course content, teaching, learning and classroom activities. However, it focuses on the stages before test development with a view to inciting positive washback. Unlike this model, therefore, it does not describe washback exerted by existing exams. Cheng's model (2005), on the other hand, which focuses on washback exerted by existing exams, considers teaching methods as dictated by intervening agencies, while teachers are involved through the manner in which they implement said methods in class. In the proposed model, tasks and activities are examined separately from teaching strategies. This allowed for a closer examination of teaching practices in the classroom and, indeed, demonstrated that tasks and activities are more susceptible to exam washback, while teaching strategies are dictated by teacher-direct factors.

The findings of this study have led to a clearer understanding of teachers' perceptions of current English language preparation classes in the private sector in Greece and their effects on teaching practices. My research supports the claim that washback is neither simple nor direct, but a rather circuitous, complicated and complex phenomenon (see e.g. Wall and Alderson, 1993; Tsagari, 2012). On a more general basis, the model contributes to washback theories by pointing out that intrinsic factors play a role in exam washback on teaching practices. Finally, the model indicates that exams influence teachers' instruction, so the potential impact of the exams should be taken into account in test design and educational policies.

7.2 Implications

The results from the present study can be applied to other similar settings (i.e. institutions that teach foreign languages) in the form of recommendations. The situation in the forntistirio investigated in this research can be considered to be representative of a large number of other frontistiria, as many of them share teaching requirements, have similar exam

preparation courses (Scholfield and Gitsaki, 1996, p. 119), divide exam preparation courses into one exam and multi-exam ones, and their students sit for the same exam(s). In light of the above, it is likely that the findings of the present study will have a number of important implications for EFL testing as well as teaching and learning. Also, teacher training courses might benefit from the findings of this study by taking into consideration some of the conclusions drawn in this study.

First and foremost, these findings are important for teachers who play a vital role in learning and are the focus of this study. In order to avoid negative washback in exam preparation, teachers should become 'exam literate'. Being exam literate means that teachers have the appropriate and required knowledge and skills to handle exam classes and their requirements. For a teacher to be considered exam literate he/she should also be assessment literate and aware of the aspects discussed below.

Teachers should be well-versed in the exams they teach in terms of exam requirements, marking criteria and test-taking strategies, among other things, so as to be able to support their students, especially in a multi-exam context, where the students' familiarization with a variety of test formats might seem overwhelming. Handling multi-exam classes entails the teachers' ability to combine the requirements of different exams and use the activities and tasks of one exam in favor of the other. This necessitates a strategic action on behalf of the teachers to prepare accordingly for different exams. A multi-exam context allows students to practise language since exam constructs are different in different exams and thus a greater variety of activities and tasks is available. Multi-exam contexts seem to provide more opportunities for language learning, which might suggest that simultaneous exposure to a variety of test formats and requirements might foster a richer learning context. However, training courses can further help teachers deal with the additional stress and insecurity which was recorded in the multi-exam setting.

Teachers should further be aware of students' needs and at the same time the requirements of language certificates in order to guide their students properly. Course books and exam material should be used effectively. The use of new methodologies and communicatively oriented language opportunities should be applied in exam preparation classes in order to make the lesson more effective, interesting and thus more student-centered and less routinised. Using more communicative teaching strategies (i.e. pair/group work), teachers can make the lesson more interesting even in exam preparation classes. Also, teachers should

integrate assessment into the teaching and learning process, and be able to design appropriate assessment tasks in order to provide quality feedback and therefore minimize negative exam influence. As Turner points out there should be an “alignment across CBA and large-scale assessments” (Turner, 2012, p. 68).

Even though the specific study is focused on teachers, implementation of the research findings by stakeholders in the areas of test design and teacher training could also prove beneficial. In order to engineer positive washback, exam constructors should focus more on test design and pay attention to reducing construct-irrelevant variance. Test designers should incorporate activities and tasks that promote language learning in exams and teacher trainers should train teachers to favour activities and tasks that require more student participation. They should also attempt to create tests with different formats, designed for different contexts and purposes and differentiate the role and aim of the tests in order to serve students and society’ needs. This study further highlights the need for the design and use of formative assessment and the consideration of other elements of language education tests which include all the dimensions of language performance. Teaching practices, learners’ needs, curricular objectives and materials should be taken into account to facilitate teachers who prepare students for exams. Factors other than the test itself should be taken under consideration in designing test constructs and washback studies should be applied to all tests before they are officially implemented. Teacher trainers and test constructors should also provide teachers with enough information to help them address exam requirements and prepare students properly, especially in multi-exam contexts. There is a need for teacher professional development with regard to the implementation not only of a specific exam but exams in general and to helping teachers balance teaching, exam and learning. Teachers should have easy access to the necessary materials and understand the methods recommended by test designers, or at least have some guidelines to follow in order to figure out how to teach to the exam and more significantly how to teach a multi-exam context. Hence, this study proposes that specific trainings should be designed and run on multi-exam course management.

In addition to teachers, test designers and teacher trainers, this study has potential implications for researchers too. Firstly, this thesis highlighted the importance of direct observation of teachers and learners as well as the wider educational context. Direct class observation to a certain extent guarantees more accurate and transparent conclusion to be drawn, as it captures actual and not assumed teaching practices. (see also Green, 2013). This

study confirms the general consensus in the washback literature that sociocultural and educational factors should also be investigated for a fuller picture of washback to emerge. Washback research that delves into teaching strategies and learning outcomes can identify effective teaching practices and give teachers the opportunity to evaluate their own teaching and adopt new practices. From this perspective, washback can be valuable for establishing more effective exam preparation programmes (Green, 2013). The study proposes a self-reflection of investigating washback combining teacher research, which refers to the systematic inquiry by professional teachers in any discipline who investigate their own practices (Borg, 2013), with washback research. This might be a promising avenue to explore as one teacher in the present study said “you made me think of how I can make this class better”. Crucially, this study offers a framework for investigating washback on teaching strategies, which could inform further washback studies given the prominence of the teacher factor in most washback models.

The factor of multiple exam formats in combination and their impact on teaching and learning also bears important implications for researchers. In fact, this study illuminated the preparation for a combination of exams as an idiosyncratic teaching context which differs from the one-exam context and merits individual attention from a methodological perspective in washback research. The element of time and proximity to the exams has also not always featured as a factor whose contribution to exam washback should be studied. This study, however, showed that the direction and intensity of washback fluctuates according to how close the exams are, stressing that any findings generated by washback studies should, indeed, consider exam proximity as a determining factor. Finally, given that the direction of washback was different between task and activities and teaching strategies clearly highlights that these two should be considered individually by a washback study that opts to examine what happens in the classroom.

7.3 Recommendations for Stakeholders

The implications of the present study (section 7.2) and teachers’ concerns about multi-exam classes as those emerged in the interviews, render more teacher training a pressing issue in foreign language education. Training is required not only on how to better prepare students for the exams but also on how to best handle multi-exam classes in order to avoid the confusion such classes may cause. The previous discussion (Chapter 5) cautioned to the fact that the stakeholders may negatively influence the teaching process as the decision-making

concerning teaching practices lies with them. The question that arises is what sort of training would be beneficial for teachers of multi-exam classes, but also whether this training would be enough to counterbalance the negative influence of other stakeholders - more importantly that of parents. This was a concern that was indirectly voiced by Tsagari (2009, 2012) in the Greek context and was also raised by Bayat Khadijeh and Rezaei Amir (2015), as well as Harding and Kremmel (2016). Tsagari (2009) actually points out how the process of washback can be influenced by a multi-directional relationship among stakeholders that she calls the “Local Society” in her model and which comprises local beliefs, parents and the local educational system. Among others, Tsagari (2009, 2012) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) assert that the teacher acts as the mediator between materials and students, which should be a major consideration when designing teacher training programmes.

I will now turn my attention to the training programmes which are already available to exam class teachers in Greece. First of all, a number of associations have developed training programmes targeted at EFL teachers either for novice teachers or for more experienced foreign language educators. Perhaps the British Council in Greece might be by far the most prominent centre with a strong tradition in teacher training courses – including a preparation course for the Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages CELTA,¹¹ which can take up to twelve weeks or shorter and targeted courses, such as ‘Learning Technologies’ and ‘Communicative Assessment’ among others.¹² In fact, the British Council offers teachers the opportunity to carry out an online Master’s degree in English Language Teaching.¹³ Other educational centres, such as ACT, American College of Thessaloniki also offers programmes in TEFL.¹⁴ Three main observations need to be made at this point in relation to the above – first of all, these training programmes can be very costly for teachers (i.e. CELTA); secondly, apart from the few courses that are offered on an online or long-distance basis, teachers’ physical presence is necessary which constraints teachers in the periphery as most said training courses are organized in larger urban centres; finally, these programmes tend to be either too general or involve a specific aspect of teaching (e.g. learning technologies, teaching vocabulary etc.).

¹¹ Other authorized training centres for CELTA are also available, such as the International Teacher Development Centre CELT Athens.

¹² For a comprehensive list of teacher training courses offered by the British Council visit <https://www.britishcouncil.gr/en/teach> [last accessed 20 August 2016].

¹³ See <https://www.britishcouncil.gr/en/teach/online-development-courses/online-ma> [last accessed 20 August 2016].

¹⁴ <http://www.act.edu/index.jsp?CMCCode=2003&extLang=LG#poverview> [last accessed 20 August 2016].

Greek EFL teachers, however, are presented with another option. A number of free training sessions are regularly organized by associations which administer the various exams in Greece (i.e. Cambridge ESOL). Representatives of these associations (i) visit language schools around Greece to offer information to school owners and teachers about exam specifications (ii) carry out official events and presentations with guest speakers of either an academic or a professional background in second language education to familiarize teachers and other stakeholders with exam format as well as optimum strategies for exam success. These presentations often revolve around test format and are structured based on test tasks or skills these exams test. The Panhellenic Federation of Language School Owners is by far the most active body in organizing such educational conferences and book exhibitions in Greece.¹⁵ During these events, materials developers are often present offering insights into the different examinations as these are reflected in their course books. Again, academics are also often present giving one-off lectures on aspect of ELT.

The commercial orientation of such events, often targeted at the promotion of specific exams or specific publishers, often accompanied by the free distribution of materials, along with the brevity and specific target of any accompanying training events can be more alienating and fragmentary for teachers rather than educational and helpful. Such commercial presentations tend to promote course books or other materials, albeit establishing links between said course works and one or more exams. Although such presentations can help the teachers of multi-exam classes better organise their material, they can be one-sided in the sense that they are more concerned with product promotion than with effective teacher training. This can also be argued for presentations offered by exam institutions as they primarily promote their tests focusing on the advantages of the specific exam and not validity and reliability. Therefore, exam techniques presented are mainly a handy ‘manual’ on how to increase students’ chances of success.

Even though such training events can offer teachers some insight into how to better handle multi-exam classes, they cannot be considered adequate or comprehensive. It is interesting to note at this point that teacher training can foster positive washback by promoting teachers’, and subsequently students’, positive attitude towards exams. This in turn can

¹⁵ A look at the Hellenic American Union’s calendar for book exhibitions in 2016 allows one to grasp PALSO’s prominent activity in book exhibitions. See <http://www.hau.gr/?i=learning.en.efl-book-exhibitions> [last accessed 20 August 2016].

maximise their willingness to work towards achieving the exam objectives. For example, positive washback was noticed as the result of teachers receiving training before the introduction of a new exam or of changes to an existing one (Cheng, 2005). Consequently, it does not come as a surprise that the teachers of the present study request more training especially in the case of multi-exam classes. Such training, however, should acquire a more comprehensive form and be conducted by people who are knowledgeable in the area of language testing and assessment. In doing so, training will be able to aid teachers in making the connection between pedagogical practices and exam preparation; analyzing their students' needs effectively and accurately; organizing their limited time to suit these needs; compromising teaching with the demands of the other stakeholders. It is, however, important for teachers to realise that such training will not offer ready-made solutions. It will rather aid them in adopting a more holistic approach to language testing and assessment which will in turn help them better understand and meet the demands of an exam-preparation class. Such an approach is even more important in the case of the multi-exam class which should be aiming at a more comprehensive view of how to effectively assess students' language abilities.

7.4 Limitations

This study rendered a set of interesting results on washback in multi-exam preparation courses, a new and uncharted territory from a researcher's perspective, signaling towards a promising and emerging research context within and without Greece. Doctoral studies, however, inevitably present some limitations due to the time constraints associated with a PhD. These limitation, however, will hopefully form the basis for future research.

Initially, findings of this study relating to intensity and direction of washback should be further explored over a longer period of time. Shohamy et al. (1996) report that washback can evolve over time, so a longitudinal study with a longer time framework would help capture washback on teaching practices more consistently as it would involve monitoring the teaching process on a long-term basis (Green, 2013). Although the data of this study at hand was collected over a period of a few months it rendered indispensable results in the area of washback by examining a (i) a new context (research-wise) and (ii) providing a working washback model, adaptable to suit the needs of a variety of washback studies. Follow-up studies will help test the generalizability of the model or perhaps refine it. Furthermore, a longer study will also confirm and fine-tune the findings of this study.

In the process of this study, a few observations emerged which will lay the groundwork for future research projects, as time and space constraints did not allow for such revisions. In the future, a wider-scale study which will not only explore washback on teaching practices in relation to exam classes but which will examine the extent to which it varies between non-exam and exam classes will surely render invaluable results and will enhance the findings and observations of the study at hand.

A characteristic of this study is that the students in the multi-exam class were adolescents while the students in the one exam class were adults. The discrepancy, however, is not deemed to have borne any significant impact on the results as the students in the one-exam class were between 18-20 years old. Also, it can be argued that, from the perspective of qualitative research, the one-exam class is not representative since the survey engaged with one-exam classes that did were not focused on TIE (Table 5.9). However, the aim of this research is not to compare the exams themselves but rather what teachers do in respect to the exams they aim for. This, of course, signifies that if the one-class teacher prepared students for another exam, they would have reacted differently and so the results would have been different. So, future research in other types of high-stakes exams would provide more information on whether the type of exam or the number of exams bear greater influence on exam preparation courses.

Another observation relates to the questionnaires and the fact that a future study into washback on teaching practices might benefit from a larger number of questions. Given the impossibility of revising questions or repeating this stage of the research due to time constraints, a future study that formulates more questions related to students, teachers' talk used in the class and a comparison might render fuller information.

The teachers observed for the purposes of this study also relate to another limitation worth mentioning. There is a slight imbalance in the number of lessons observed between the two teachers in the second term due to health issues faced by one of the teachers at the time. Follow-up interviews were originally scheduled to be conducted after the observed lesson and while most of them did indeed take place as planned, a few were cancelled. Also, some of the interviews were conducted within a limited time frame because of teachers' tight schedule. To guard against any chance of data misrepresentation and secure valid results I chose to exclude some of the relevant data gathered.

Another idea that might enhance future research into teaching strategies and that would help capture the dynamics of the classroom would be the use of learning records, together with an examination of English proficiency test scores. These might provide more concrete evidence to support a more detailed accounts of the relationship among teachers, students and exams. Test scores could provide more information about the effectiveness of these types of classes related to language learning and exam success. Thus, future research should include the results of both types of classes (one- and multi-exam classes) so as to investigate which of the two classes have better results or which of the teaching practices used by teachers had better results. Also, in a large-scale project that would go beyond the classroom, other stakeholders, such as syllabus designers, administrators, and future employers, could also be included because their views about multi-exam classes and teaching practices can shed more light into this research area.

More instruments will help probe the washback phenomenon further. In-depth interviews with students or the use of learning records, in combination with an examination of English proficiency test scores, might provide fuller evidence to support more detailed accounts of such relationships. Due to the time constraints of this study, the questionnaire was considered to be the ideal instrument. Instead of the use of the questionnaire, interviews with other teachers could be conducted that would allow comparisons between first and second terms and between multi-exam and one exam classes. Given their interactive and open-ended nature interviews might render a fuller picture, as unanticipated, alternative and potentially important topics/issues might be raised.

Despite the above-mentioned limitations, this study rendered valid and original results exploring washback in a highly under-researched context. Furthermore, a washback model on teaching practices was formulated based on the existing literature review and the findings of this particular study, which can be generalized and applied to further explore washback in relation to other aspects and factors. The findings not only add to previous studies and fill the gap regarding the rationalization of teachers' actions in exam preparation classes but provide valuable proof of period-specific washback intensity (i.e. as the dates of the exams are drawing nearer) (Tsagari, 2011) since they were based on data drawn from two terms of the preparation year.

7.5 Need for Further Research

Despite the wealth of literature on washback and the significant contributions made by research that bear highly important implications for the entire learning and teaching process – from test design to curriculum innovation and classroom management, certain aspects of washback remain elusive and merit further investigation. This section will point towards some research avenues to be explored, directed by the findings but also the limitations of the study at hand.

Taking into account the limitations above (Section 7.4), one possible direction for future research is to conduct extensive longitudinal studies on the washback effect of exam preparation courses. This will enable evaluating the extent to which teachers are influenced by exams in a more extensive period of time. Studying English instructors of exam preparation courses over a long period of time will further enhance the findings of this and further studies as it will explore how teachers' decisions relate to the teaching practices they use in such courses even further and how these are influenced over time – thus, long-term washback effect.

The focus of this study in terms of participants was the teacher, as I sought to formulate and put to the test a washback model on teaching practices. Future research could explore how other stakeholders such as students, parents and teacher trainers fit into the picture and the extent to which they influence washback. For example, including students in future research in relation to teachers and their decisions would not only reveal students' opinions on the teaching practices teacher use but also their effectiveness on students' language learning and success. Further research into the 'learning product' should look at the results of the students' exams. Looking at students' results in exams might help to understand the influence of teachers' teaching practices on the success in the exams.

This study serves as the firm basis for a wider longitudinal study. Such a study could benefit from broader observations that take place over a longer time frame. Given the longer time framework of such a study, interviews, observations and follow-up interviews with more teachers would be possible and would render a rich workable basis of data for analysis. As suggested above, the use of interviews instead of questionnaires might generate enriched data, as it might render alternative topics or issues.

Future research could further work on a wider basis of exams, gathering evidence from other high stakes tests with different formats. After all, test design has been thoroughly explored in the literature, spotlighting it as a pivotal factor in washback. Working with different exams could further enhance our understanding of washback in the multi-exam preparation context. Not only different high stakes tests but also different cultures can increase the generalizability of the washback effect of public examinations on language education since it allows for replication. This study included a school in a rural area so further research investigating, for instance, urban schools and participants from different economic backgrounds may render altered data. Different age groups as well could enhance different aspects of exam washback. Also, more relevant studies on different age groups (teenagers or adults) who sit for exams are required.

Further investigation into the different forms of preparation for the exams either on how to organize them or what teaching practices to use must be carried out. Additional research on activities and tasks that teachers use in exam preparation classes will also be beneficial. More specifically research on the use of activities and tasks that promote language learning and students' participation must be investigated and their effectiveness on exam success must be measured. Researchers should try to apply new and alternative types of tasks and activities in exam preparation classes and study their effectiveness on students, language learning and exam success. Finally, studies that explore washback on teaching practices after training teachers on teaching practices useful for teachers, effective for exam preparation courses and student-friendly will spotlight the needs of exam preparation classes and render results meaningful way beyond the academic community – namely, for test designers, curriculum planners, material designers, and pivotally, teacher trainers. It is necessary to study teaching practices after training teachers in order to create more effective teacher assessment literacy courses.

From a methodological perspective, the fact that certain inconsistencies emerged in the findings of this study, based on whether data was collected through interviews and questionnaires or through class observation, testifies to the need for a combined research method that will draw on both quantitative and qualitative data to secure validity of results. More importantly, in order to examine issues that are more “difficult to address through experimental research, such as sociocultural processes in language learning, how institutional and societal pressures are played out in moment-to-moment classroom interaction” (Watson-Gegeo 1988, p. 575) an ethnographic study should be performed in combination with interviews and questionnaires. This will allow for a deeper understanding

of how pressure from external and teacher-indirect factors influence teaching practices and learning and most importantly how they shape the culture and organization of the classroom.

Ethnographic studies involve the researchers immersing themselves in the context they are investigating for a sustained period of time. More specifically, Jeffrey and Troman (2004) indicate that this period should be twelve months. As washback studies seem invested in investigating the impact of external factors on teaching practices, a sustained ethnographic study would be optimum for understanding how such external pressures unfold in the classroom more profoundly and holistically, as ethnography is concerned with holism (Watson-Gegeo 1988, p. 577). More importantly, since the focus of this washback model was the teaching strategies as well as the tasks and activities teachers employ, namely what happens in the classroom, a more holistic approach that takes period over a longer period of time and which offers the methodological tools to study the entire 'culture' that develops in a classroom would greatly enrich our understanding of washback in the classroom. An ethnographic study, therefore, would greatly enhance the findings of this and other such studies. Additionally, given the wider certificate-obsessed culture of Greece, an ethnographic study would further illuminate how societal norms and pressures might play out in the classroom and generate a more holistic view of exam washback.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Studies that Found Washback on Tasks and Activities

Author	Tasks and Activities		Exam
	Exam-Oriented	Other Tasks and/or Activities	
Wall & Alderson (1993)	Teach and explain words in the passages Dissecting passages sentence by sentence	Get students to Guess	New English Exam in Sri Lanka O-level Exam
Alderson & Hamp-Lyons (1996)	Test taking is more common Read from book	Rarely read from book Never give tests in class Discussion	TOEFL
Watanabe (1996)	Translation in texts Answers to exercises		Japanese university entrance examination
Shohamy et al (1996)	Specific teaching activities in preparation for the test Interviewing, speaking at length, asking questions, discussing literature, reporting on books, brainstorming, jigsaw activities, debates, discussions, speeches		EFL examination
nett(1997)	Employ activities similar to those required in the examination Language exercise such as grammar and vocabulary Exercises and finding answers from exercises Reading aloud as required by the exam	Discussion among students They did not get the students to communicate with teachers, classmates and parents Encourage students to do activities outside class (e.g. read	Revised HKCEE

		newspapers/magazines, watch TV)	
		Role play, group discussions, oral presentations	
Cheng (1998, 1999)	Do mock exam Do textbook exercises, explain specific language items, talk about the meaning of the text Practice grammar Learn vocabulary Check answers	Language games Talk about the aim of the lesson Integrated language tasks Describe, Narrate, Direct Read aloud	New HKCEE oral examination
Brown (1998)	Timed practice test writing Instructional focus on strategies for timed writing in tests Strategies for writing in timed examination conditions Teacher allocation of time to tasks related to 4 skills Lots of homework		IELTS
Nikolov (1999)	Oral Tasks: answering questions, discussion about a picture, role-play, discussion based on a prompt, summarising text, reporting, bridging information gaps, collecting information from maps, charts, tables, summary of a story of a film/book Writing Tasks: copying, dictation, create short texts, data filling, write: short note, memos, diary entries, postcards, formal and informal letters, invitations, instructions, directions, describe pictures with the help of pictures, with the help of guiding points, with a given ending or beginning, matching and arranging language elements, gap filling, arranging words into sentences, arranging sentences into		

paragraphs, arranging paragraphs into passages, translating texts

Listening: sequencing pictures to heard text, connecting pictures to heard text, marking on pictures, according to the text, following routes to the map, drawing following instructions

Reading: reading aloud, matching pictures to texts, arranging events or stages in a process in order, matching phrases or sentences to gaps in a text, multiple matching, sequencing sentences or paragraphs, multiple-choice, matching heading, headlines to different texts, matching opinions to people identified in a text

Chapman and Snyder (2000) Problem solving
Critical thinking

Hayes + Read (2004) IELTS-like tasks

Watanabe (2004)	Revised listening tasks taken from past exam papers Not authentic use of target language but mechanical approaches	Use of actual skills rather than test-taking techniques	University entrance examination (Japan)
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Stecher et al (2004) Changes in the teaching of writing
Regular writing assignments
Have students score classroom work

Tsagari (2011, 2012)	Teach exam preparation techniques	FCE
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Hawkey 2006	Macro skills activities Micro-skills relevant to IELTS Task-based activities	IELTS
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Wall and Horak (2007)	Focus on structuring of compositions rather than argumentation Focus on language accuracy Exam-like exercises	Listen to audio or video input outside class TOEFL
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Al-Jamal & Ghady (2008)	Grammar instruction Test taking strategies Memorisation Test-oriented activities	IELTS
Mickan and Motteram (2009)	<p>Speaking: unplanned talk, expression of opinions, arguing points of view, advice practice speaking outside the class</p> <p>Test taking advice: social context of oral examination, remind students of proper behaviour to the Examiner, importance of stressing the topic, advice on keep talking – practice practical techniques for the avoidance of communication breakdown, paraphrasing, expansions and alternative expressions for maintaining a discussion, familiarization with the content, components and format of the test</p> <p>Writing: talk about decisions on the topics, attention to discourse features, brainstorming ideas, structure of text, format of planning, social purpose, explanation about the task, modeling and analysis of responses to the tasks,</p> <p>Practical advice: length of essay, writing techniques, Advice on test-taking tactics and behaviours, Talking about the Test situation Discussing Examiner’s expectations</p> <p>Reading: Topics, vocabulary – guessing meaning, attention to the overall meaning of the text, skimming and scanning techniques</p>	

Test taking: supervised practice tests, timed and answered on test sheets, familiarity with the format and time constraints of the test

Listening: practice listening, use and analysis of transcripts, experience taking practice tests

Shih (2009)	Did not explicitly teach how to write Not asking for a second draft	Did not increase writing assignment Intensified writing training Attention to writing in texts	CET exam in Taiwan
Turner (2009)	Speaking exam procedures Speaking tasks similar to the exam/ Exam-like tasks No use of activities promoting self and peer assessment 'Mock' tests were administered Exam rating scale criteria Practice of real exam-like situation	Speaking practice outside class Oral activities Group work Assessment as instructional tool Task type of group testing Interactive discussions Use of classroom resources in activities Brainstorming Reflecting No practice with exam rating scale	ESL exit exam at high school level
Deng 2010	Increase teaching time on examination preparation School A values traditional teaching repetition and memorization Teaching of chants "Repeating one by one" activity Imitation	Task based activities Story-telling activities Activities in meaningful context Guessing game Real life activities Role play	Examination oriented classes

	Exam oriented exercises Explaining answers Grammar and vocabulary exercises focused on exams	
Ren 2011	Listening: multiple-choice questions, dictation Reading: multiple-choice questions Writing: argumentative essays	CET-4 in China
Pan 2011	Listening frequently taught Writing most rarely taught Traditional activities taught more at non-exit schools Other activities(group discussion, quizzes) taught more at exit school Test preparation activities and grammar-vocabulary activities at exit schools	GEPT TOEFL TOEIC IELTS
Azadi and Gholami, 2013	Exam grammar activities maximum Writing activities minimum No attention in Listening activities	TESTS IN IRANIAN SCHOOLS
Aftab et al, 2014	Examination related activities Reading and Writing activities that are tested in the exams but not speaking and listening ones that are not in the exams	Intermediate English Exams

Appendix II: Interview Questions

Questions for the Teachers

SECTION 1: Teacher's Biodata

- How long have you been teaching English?
- What are your teaching qualifications?
- Have you had any kind of training: pre-service or in-service?
- Have you taught multi-exam classes before?
- Which exams do you usually prepare your students for?
- What is your opinion about the fact that students have so many exams to choose from?
- How do you get informed about the exams?
- Have you any experience of one-exam classes?
- How many exams do you prepare your students for this year?

SECTION 2: Ordinary teaching

- What kinds of material do you use in your ordinary classes? Why is that?
- What skills do you teach?
- How do you teach your ordinary classes? Which teaching strategies do you use? Can you give me some examples?
- Do you use communicative activities in the classroom (group work, pair work, role plays etc)? What do you do? Can you give me some examples?
- What activities and tasks do you use?
- What factors affect your choices?

SECTION 3: Teaching in the 1st Term (general multi-exam preparation term) vs 2nd term (specific exams multi-exam preparation term)

- How do you organize your B2 classes (coursebook, skills, exams, time)?
- Is the organization different between the terms? Why? Does the fact that you have many exams affect the organization?
- Who generally makes the decisions on the arrangement of lessons (principal, yourself, teachers)?

- How do you cope with the 2nd term that you prepare different students for different exams in the same class? Do you teach each exam separately or do you teach them together? Why? How do you decide on that?
- What other factors affect your organization (principal, time)?
- What skills do you teach? Do you teach them in both terms?
- What kinds of material do you use in your classes? Are they different between terms? Why is that?
- Do the materials you use cover your needs? If not? How do you cope with it?

Strategies:

- What interaction patterns do you mainly use (e.g. teacher to students, group work, students to teachers, whole class) to teach? Why? Are they different between the terms? How they defer and why? Can you give me some examples?
- Who talks more in your classes you or the students? Why?
- Do you teach in English or in Greek? Why?
- How would you describe the atmosphere in these classes? How do you cope with anxiety and discipline problems?
- How do you feel? Why? Do you show your feelings to students?
- What makes you anxious / stressed? Is it the exams only or the parents, students, administration, time as well?
- Multi-exam classes minimize or maximize the stress about exams and teaching about exams?
- Do you assess your students? Why? How it defers between terms?
- Do you give them feedback? On what mainly? Why?
- What questions do you mainly answer?
- How do you decide which teaching strategy to use (exams, time, students, activity, task, personal preference, method effectiveness)? Do you change it in the 2nd term? Why?

Activities and Tasks:

- What kind of activities and tasks do you teach?
- Do you teach activities and tasks that are not in exams?
- How often do you do exam-related activities?
- How do you choose the activities and tasks you teach (coursebook, exams, personal preference)?

- What are the positive and negative elements of multi-exams as far as the activities and tasks are concerned?

SECTION 4: General views on multi-exam classes

- What do you think of the multi-exam context?
- Do you think that your teaching is affected by the multi-exam context? In what ways? Is it different to your other classes?
- How would it defer if you had to prepare your students for one-exam?
- What are the positive points of multi-exam classes (for you and the students, your teaching, exam success, learning) comparing to one-exam? Do you think that students' learning is affected by multi-exams?
- What are the negative points of multi-exam classes (extra-work, pressure, organization difficulties) comparing to one exam?
- How do your students choose an exam? Do you advise them?
- If yes? How do you advise a student which exam to choose?
- Why do students choose 2 exams?
- Have you ever changed a student's choice in order to minimize the exams you should teach in a class?
- What are the factors that most influence your teaching strategies (professional training, seminars, teaching experience and belief, past experience as a language learner, coursebooks, exams, social expectations, students and students' needs, parents)?
- What are the factors that most influence the activities and tasks you use to teach (professional training, seminars, teaching experience and belief, past experience as a language learner, coursebooks, exams, social expectations, students and students' needs, parents)?

Appendix III: Final Interview Questions - Comments

- Has your educational background helped you with the use of teaching strategies?
- Do student's level and needs affect the teaching strategies?
- What affects your selection of activities and tasks?
- What factors affect your teaching strategies you use in exam classes?
- What about the materials you use.
- How do you organise your classes? How do you organise the multi-exam and one-exam classes?
- What about the feedback, error questions and explanations you use. What factors affect your choice in each term?
- What do you think about the examination system in Greece?
- Comment about the cultural difference of the exams, British or American language.
- Comments about the age of students and their needs, the multicultural society
- Comments about the exam choice
- What about the format of the exams?
- Do you feel like needing a special training to teach such classes?
- Did my presence affect you or the students?
- What about the topic of the research? Did it give you something to think about?

Appendix IV: Sample of Observation Scheme

		TASKS							ACTIVITY		TEACHER STRATEGIES																																				
N O	T I M E	TASKS	FUNCTIONS							ACTIVITY	EX. ACTIVITY	GENERAL ORGANIZATION				LA NG UA GE	T . T	CLA SS BEH AVIO UR	QUE STIO NS	ASSESSME NT	ERROR CORREC TION	FEEDBACK		EXPLANAT IONS/ SUGGESTI ONS	TEST REF.	MATERIALS		INT. SKIL LS																			
	S. F.		Language	Comm. Process	Tonic	Skill	Outcome	Interaction	Text			Class	Work Mode				I 1	I 2		Anxiety	Laughter	Exam	Lesson	On exams	On lesson	On specific	Exam band	Teacher's own	Exam Str.	On Item	T→S	T→class	Exams	Lesson	On Specific	ECCE	PTE	TIE	EXAMS	NINS	Auth.	Coursebook	T. made	S. made			
												T→Ss	S→T C	Class Alone	Ind. W	Pair W	T→Ss	Group W.																													
	S: F:																																														
	S: F:																																														
	S: F:																																														

Notes / Questions:

Appendix V: Questionnaire

Factors affecting teachers' choices on teaching practices in multi-exam classes in Greece

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes
<p>Dear Teacher,</p> <p>I am a PhD candidate at the University of Cyprus. This questionnaire is part of my PhD studies. I am looking at the influence of English language exams in B2 level multi-exam preparation classes in Greek frontistiria. Your responses will be highly appreciated.</p> <p>It will take you around 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. All information you provide will be kept confidential. Thank you very much for your cooperation!</p> <p>Αγαπητέ καθηγητή/τρια,</p> <p>Είμαι διδακτορική φοιτήτρια στο Πανεπιστήμιο της Κύπρου. Αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο είναι μέρος της διδακτορικής διατριβής μου. Ερευνώ την επίδραση των εξετάσεων της Αγγλικής γλώσσας στο επίπεδο B2 σε τάξεις που ετοιμάζουν μαθητές για περισσότερους από έναν εξεταστικό φορέα σε φροντιστήρια στην Ελλάδα. Οι απαντήσεις σας θα είναι πολύτιμες για την εργασία μου.</p> <p>Θα χρειαστείτε περίπου 10 λεπτά να το συμπληρώσετε. Όλες οι πληροφορίες που παρέχετε εδώ θα μείνουν άκρως εμπιστευτικές. Ευχαριστώ για την συνεργασία σας.</p> <p>*1. A. Background information</p> <p>Gender</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Female</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Male</p> <p>*2. Age</p> <p><input type="radio"/> 20-29</p> <p><input type="radio"/> 30-39</p> <p><input type="radio"/> 40-49</p> <p><input type="radio"/> 50 and over</p> <p>*3. Place of work (Prefecture - Nomos)</p> <p><input type="text"/></p> <p>*4. Current teaching situation</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Frontistirio owner</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Teacher in frontistirio</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Private lessons</p> <p>Other (please specify)</p> <p><input type="text"/></p>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

5. Professional qualifications (choose the highest)

- ☐ Certificate of Proficiency (Cambridge, Michigan)
- ☐ BA
- ☐ MA/MEd/MSc
- ☐ PhD

Other (please specify)

6. Teaching experience

- ☐ Less than 5 years
- ☐ 1-5 years
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ 11-15 years
- ☐ 16-20 years
- ☐ over 20

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

B. Types of Exam Classes

7. Which exam classes do you teach?

- ☐ One-exam classes (i.e. prepare students for one exam in the same class)
- ☐ Multi-exam classes (i.e. prepare students for more than 2 exams in the same class)
- ☐ Both one- and multi-exam classes (it takes longer to complete)

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

B1. One-exam Classes

*8. How frequently do you teach the following exams in one-exam classes?

	Never	Seldom	Not so often	Quite often	Always
First Certificate in English (FCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pearson Test of English (PTE General), Level 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Speaking Board (ESB), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test Of Interactive English, (TIE), B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational Development International (EDI) JETSET Level 5	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC), score: 505–780	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trinity College London, Certificate in Integrated Skills in English (ISE II)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Michigan State University (MSU-CELC)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kratiko Pistopiitiko Glossomathias (KPG) B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
City & Guilds, Certificate in ESOL International, Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
National Open College Network (NOCN), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*9. Please rate the importance of the following when teaching an exam in one-exam classes:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Neutral	Very important	Extremely important
Format of the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time available	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Level of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty of the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' age	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*10. Please rate the answers to the following questions. One-exam classes:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Are easy going classes for both teachers and students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase chances for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide more opportunities for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maximize stress for exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

C. Teaching Practices

***11. How far do you agree with the following? When I choose activities (e.g. multiple-choice, True/False, transformation) for one-exam classes, I do so because they:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are included in the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote chances for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motivate students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***12. When I use tasks (e.g. write an essay/story/letter, role play, project) in one-exam classes, I do so because I want to:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to work together	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson less routinized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*13. I provide feedback in one-exam classes when I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students when they do not understand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Involve students in the lesson	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' understanding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with information on the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*14. I use Greek in one-exam classes when I:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide examples	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students with certain activities or tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Give feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Correct students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach students something new	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realize that students do not understand because of their level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*15. What causes stress in one-exam classes?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of activities students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of tasks students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The difficulty of activities and tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parents' pressure for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social factors (e.g. state school hours of working, financial problems, family problems)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students sitting for only one exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*16. How important do you consider the following factors when using group/pair work in one-exam classes?

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' motivation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' collaboration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students practicing for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons less routinized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintaining students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

D. Exam-related Activities

***17. How frequently do you do the following in your one-exam classes?**

	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with test-taking strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with exam tips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Review answers to mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with exam content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discuss test procedures with students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage revision for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*18. I carefully choose exam-related activities because I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get them to study more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Practise working within time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage studying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase their autonomy as exam takers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach them how to study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Release stress and anxiety	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have ready-made material to help students in the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

B2. Multi-exam Classes

*19. How frequently do you teach the following exams in multi-exam classes?

	Never	Seldom	Not so often	Quite often	Always
First Certificate in English (FCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pearson Test of English (PTE General), Level 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Speaking Board (ESB), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test Of Interactive English, (TIE), B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational Development International (EDI) JETSET Level 5	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC), score: 505–780	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trinity College London, Certificate in Integrated Skills in English (ISE II)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Michigan State University (MSU-CELC)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kratiko Pistopiitiko Glossomathias (KPG) B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
City & Guilds, Certificate in ESOL International, Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
National Open College Network (NOCN), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*20. How far do you agree with the following? Multi-exam classes:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Satisfy students needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase chances for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide more opportunities for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maximize stress for exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

C. Teaching Practices

***21. How far do you agree with the following? When I choose activities (e.g. multiple-choice, True/False, transformation) for multi-exam classes, I do so because they:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are included in the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote chances for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motivate students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***22. When I use tasks (e.g. write an essay/story/letter, role play, project) in multi-exam classes, I do so because I want to:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to work together	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*23. I provide feedback in multi-exam classes when I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students when they do not understand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Involve students in the lesson	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' understanding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with information on the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*24. I use Greek in multi-exam classes when I:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide examples	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students with certain activities or tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Give feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Correct students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach students something new	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realize that students do not understand because of their level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*25. What causes stress in multi-exam classes?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of activities students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of tasks students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The difficulty of activities and tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parents' pressure for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social factors (e.g. state school hours of working, financial problems, family problems)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students sitting for more than two exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*26. How important do you consider the following factors when using group/pair work in multi-exam classes?

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' motivation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' collaboration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students practicing for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintaining students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

D. Exam-related Activities

***27. How frequently do you do the following in your multi-exam classes?**

	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with test-taking strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with exam tips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Review answers to mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with exam content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discuss test procedures with students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage revision for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*28. I carefully choose exam-related activities because I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get them to study more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Practise working within time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with the exam(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage studying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase their autonomy as exam takers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach them how to study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Release stress and anxiety	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have ready-made material to help students in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

B3. Both one- and multi-exam classes

Please note, all the following questions appear twice first referring to one-exam and second referring to multi-exam classes.

*29. How frequently do you teach the following exams in ONE-exam classes?

	Never	Seldom	Not so often	Quite often	Always
First Certificate in English (FCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pearson Test of English (PTE General), Level 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Speaking Board (ESB), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test Of Interactive English, (TIE), B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational Development International (EDI) JETSET Level 5	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC), score: 505–780	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trinity College London, Certificate in Integrated Skills in English (ISE II)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Michigan State University (MSU-CELC)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kratiko Pistopiitiko Glossomathias (KPG) B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
City & Guilds, Certificate in ESOL International, Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
National Open	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

College Network
(NOCN), Level 1

***30. How frequently do you teach the following exams in MULTI-exam classes?**

	Never	Seldom	Not so often	Quite often	Always
First Certificate in English (FCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pearson Test of English (PTE General), Level 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
English Speaking Board (ESB), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test Of Interactive English, (TIE), B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational Development International (EDI) JETSET Level 5	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Test of English of International Communication (TOEIC), score: 505–780	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trinity College London, Certificate in Integrated Skills in English (ISE II)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Michigan State University (MSU-CELC)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kratiko Pistopiitiko Glossomathias (KPG) B2 Level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
City & Guilds, Certificate in ESOL International, Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
National Open College Network (NOCN), Level 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

***31. Please rate the importance of the following when teaching an exam in one-exam classes:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Neutral	Very important	Extremely important
Format of the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time available	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Level of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty of the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' age	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***32. Please rate the answers to the following questions. One-exam classes:**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Are easy going classes for both teachers and students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase chances for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide more opportunities for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maximize stress for exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*33. How far do you agree with the following? Multi-exam classes:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Satisfy students needs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase chances for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entail more work for teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide more opportunities for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maximize stress for exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

C. Teaching Practices

Please note, all the following questions appear twice first referring to one-exam and second referring to multi-exam classes.

***34. How far do you agree with the following? When I choose activities (e.g. multiple-choice, True/False, transformation) for one-exam classes, I do so because they:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are included in the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote chances for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motivate students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***35. How far do you agree with the following? When I choose activities (e.g. multiple-choice, True/False, transformation) for multi-exam classes, I do so because they:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Are included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are included in the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote chances for language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Motivate students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

***36. When I use tasks (e.g. write an essay/story/letter, role play, project) in one-exam classes, I do so because I want to:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to work together	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson less routinized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***37. When I use tasks (e.g. write an essay/story/letter, role play, project) in multi-exam classes, I do so because I want to:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Teach according to the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Follow the coursebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to participate	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage students to work together	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Make the lesson more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*38. I provide feedback in one-exam classes when I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students when they do not understand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Involve students in the lesson	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' understanding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with information on the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*39. I provide feedback in multi-exam classes when I want to:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Help students with the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students when they do not understand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Promote language learning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Involve students in the lesson	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Check students' understanding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with information on the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*40. I use Greek in one-exam classes when I:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide examples	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students with certain activities or tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Give feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Correct students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach students something new	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realize that students do not understand because of their level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*41. I use Greek in multi-exam classes when I:

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Explain things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide examples	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students with certain activities or tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Give feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Correct students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach students something new	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realize that students do not understand because of their level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*42. What causes stress in one-exam classes?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of activities students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of tasks students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The difficulty of activities and tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parents' pressure for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social factors (e.g. state school hours of working, financial problems, family problems)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students sitting for only one exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*43. What causes stress in multi-exam classes?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
The fact that exam classes are intensive classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of activities students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The types of tasks students do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The difficulty of activities and tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Parents' pressure for success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social factors (e.g. state school hours of working, financial problems, family problems)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students sitting for more than two exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*44. How important do you consider the following factors when using group/pair work in one-exam classes?

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' motivation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' collaboration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students practicing for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons less routinized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintaining students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*45. How important do you consider the following factors when using group/pair work in multi-exam classes?

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Students' participation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' motivation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students' collaboration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students practicing for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more interesting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making lessons more fun	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintaining students' attention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Number of exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

D. Exam-related Activities

Please note, all the following questions appear twice first referring to one-exam and second referring to multi-exam classes.

***46. How frequently do you do the following in your one-exam classes?**

	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very important	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with test-taking strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with exam tips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Review answers to mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with exam content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discuss test procedures with students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage revision for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

*47. How frequently do you do the following in your multi-exam classes?

	Never	Not so often	Quite often	Very often	Always
Have students do the task/activity within set time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get students to do activities/tasks similar to those included in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with test-taking strategies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide students with exam tips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mark, correct and give feedback using exam band scores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Review answers to mock tests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with exam content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Discuss test procedures with students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage revision for the exam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Factors affecting teachers' choices when teaching exam classes

***48. I carefully choose exam-related activities because I want to:**

	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important
Prepare students properly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Get them to study more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Practise working within time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with time limits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarize students with the exam(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourage studying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase their autonomy as exam takers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teach them how to study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Release stress and anxiety	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have ready-made material to help students in the exams	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix VI: Research Consent Form

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM (COPY)

Name of Researcher(s) <i>(to be completed by the researcher)</i>
Title of study <i>(to be completed by the researcher)</i>

Please read and complete this form carefully. If you are willing to participate in this study, circle the appropriate responses and sign and write the date in the declaration at the end. If you do not understand anything and would like more information, please ask.

- I have had the research satisfactorily explained to me in verbal and / or written form by the researcher. **YES / NO**
- I understand that the research will involve: *video recorded classroom observations only of teachers and not students, video recorded interviews before the beginning of the observations in November 2013 and after the interviews in April 2014.* **YES / NO**
- I understand that I may withdraw from this study at any time without having to give an explanation. **YES / NO**
- I understand that all information about me will be treated in strict confidence and that I will not be named in any written work arising from this study. **YES / NO**
- I understand that any audiotape material of me will be used solely for research purposes and will be destroyed on completion of your research. **YES / NO**
- I understand that you will be discussing the progress of your research with the committee at the University of Cyprus. **YES / NO**

I freely give my consent to participate in this research study and have been given a copy of this form for my own information.

Signature:

Date:

Appendix VII: Coding Scheme for the analysis of observation data

TEACHING STRATEGIES

General Organisation – Wok Mode

Org. T→Ss	The teacher talks to student(s) when she does something
Org. S→T, C	The student talks to teacher/class when he/she does something
Org. W. Sup.	The students work alone without supervision
W.M. Gr.S.	The students work in groups of the same exam
W. M. Gr.Dif.	The students work in groups of different exams
W. M. Ind. W	The students work individually
W. M. Pr. W	The students work in pairs
W.M.cl.W	The teacher does the activity/task with the student

Language

L1	The teacher uses L1 (Greek)
L2	The teacher uses L2 (English)

Class behaviour

C.B.An.r	There are instances of anxiety and/or the teacher reprimand the students
C.B.L.	There are instances of laughter and joking

Questions

Q. E.	Teacher answers students' questions on the exam / ask students how they did on their mock tests/exam activities
Q. L.	Teacher answers questions on the lesson of the day
Q. C.	Teacher asks students to clarify they have understood/ Teacher asks students if they need more clarifications
Q. A.	Teacher asks students to assess them

Assessment

Ass. Ex.	The teacher assesses students on the exams
Ass. L.	The teacher assesses students the lesson of the day
Ass. Sp. Ex.	The teacher assesses students on specific exam
Ass. Ex. Sc.	The teachers assesses students using exam scores
Ass. T. Sc.	The teacher assesses students on her own style, not taking into consideration the exams.
Ass. Peer	The teacher asks students to assess each other (peer – assessment)

Feedback

F. Ex. Str.	The teacher gives feedback according to the exam requirements. Advice on exam strategies, how they should do in the day of the exam
F. I.	The teacher gives feedback on the item she has taught. Like: Bravo/No/ Yes/Good or repeat the answer
F. T→S	The teacher gives feedback to one student
F. T→class	The teacher gives feedback to the whole class
F.C.	The teacher corrects the students with the feedback she provides. Provides answer to something students do not know like translation
F. St.	The teacher asks feedback from the students.

Error Correction

E.C. Ex.	The teacher corrects according to the exams
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E.C. T.	The teacher corrects according to his/her own style without taking into consideration the exams. Teachers corrects translation, pronunciation, grammar
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Explanations/Suggestion

Expl. Ex.	The teacher gives explanations and suggestions on the exams
Expl. L.	The teacher gives explanations and suggestions on the lesson of the day. Explains the exercise, theory, why the answer is correct or wrong.

Materials

M. NNS	The teacher uses materials for non-native speakers
M. Auth	The teacher uses authentic materials
M. Course	The teacher uses the coursebook/practice test book
M. Read	The teacher uses graded readers
M. T.Made	The teacher uses teacher-made materials (photocopy, notes)
M. S.Made	The teacher uses student-made materials

Test References

ECCE R.	The teacher focuses on ECCE.
PTE R.	The teacher focuses on PTE.
TIE R.	The teacher focuses on TIE.
Exams R.	The teacher refers to exam(s).

Exam-Related activities / Instances of Washback

T/A. Str.TL	The activity/tasks is done in strict time limit
T/A. Sim. Ex. M.	The activities and tasks are similar to the exams
TTS	The teacher gives students test-taking strategies, exam tips, tricks
Mock. Ex.	Students do mock exams
MTBS	The teacher marks, corrects and gives feedback using exam band scores according to the exams
R.Ans.	Review answers to test questions one by one / corrections of mock exams and practice tests / Word counting in writing/score
Form. EP	Familiarizations with exam content /Format/Exam procedures
Test. Pr.	Test procedures discussed (talking about the test situation, discussing examiner's expectations, refer to candidates' behaviour to the test, talk about time
Enc. Rev.	Encouraging study of the test / Revisions for the test/ organize their work Explains why they should do that

ACTIVITIES

Reading

R. 1	Time spent on reading activities
R. 2	Read aloud
R. 3	Translate
R. 4	Skimming
R. 5	Scanning
R. 6	Practice reading techniques
R. 7	Multiple choice
R. 8	Text/note completion
R. 9	Gap filling

R. 10	True/False
R. 11	Answer questions
R. 12	Contextual guessing
R. 13	Summarising
R. 14	Providing titles
R. 15	Discussing cohesion, coherence, linking, sequencing
R. 16	Vocabulary use / explanation
R. 17	Put the sentences in order
R. 18	Keep notes from model texts, reading texts, exercises
R. 19	Reading technique- shows the technique

Listening

L. 1	Time on Listening activities
L. 2	Listen with pauses
L. 3	Listen and translate
L. 4	Analyse the transcripts
L. 5	Dictation
L. 6	Practice listening techniques
L. 7	Multiple choice
L. 8	Text/note completion
L. 9	Gap filling
L. 10	True/False
L. 11	Answer questions
L. 12	Ignoring unknown words and focusing on the general meaning
L. 13	Guessing of unknown words
L. 14	Focusing on key words
L. 15	Keep notes while listening
L. 16	Listening Technique

Speaking

S. 1	Time on Speaking activities
S. 2	Translate
S. 3	Practice fluency / clarity
S. 4	Practice native like language
S. 5	Repetition
S. 6	Revision
S. 7	Role play
S. 8	Describe a picture / discuss using pictures-prompts
S. 9	Sustain a monologue
S. 10	Discussion
S. 11	Negotiating for meaning
S. 12	Strategic competence
S. 13	Paraphrasing
S. 14	Organisation
S.15	Use / practice of appropriate vocabulary
S.16	Practice sentence formation
S.17	Answer questions

S.18	Practice specific language
S.19	Memorization
S.20	Brainstorming/ Collect Ideas
S. 21	Questions on Book/ Investigation Topic/ News Story/Discussion
S. 22	Present something

Writing

W. 1	Time on Writing activities
W. 2	Planning
W. 3	Write paragraphs/sentences/ the whole letter/essay/article
W. 4	Analyze a model text
W. 5	Practice a format / layout / organization
W. 6	Scrutinizing rubrics
W. 7	Discussing cohesion, coherence, linking, sequencing, vocabulary use, use of key words and topic sentences, grammar
W. 8	Different types of texts, genres
W. 9	drafting
W. 10	spelling and punctuation
W. 11	Practice sentence formation
W. 12	Answer questions
W. 13	Practice specific language
W. 14	Memorization
W.15	Brainstorming ideas/ Collect Ideas
W.16	True/False
W. 17	Present their work in class
W. 18	Keep notes

Grammar / Vocabulary

G/V. 1	Time on Writing activities
G/V. 2	Lexical
G/V. 3	Grammatical
G/V. 4	Lexicogrammatical
G/V. 5	Translation
G/V. 6	Memorization
G/V. 7	Guess meaning of unknown words
G/V. 8	Study rules, explain theory
G/V. 9	Practise with worksheets,
G/V. 10	Work with phrasal verbs, prepositions, idioms, collocations, definitions, idioms
G/V.11	Fill the blanks
G/V.12	Multiple choice
G/V. 13	Transformation
G/V. 14	Word Formation

TASKS

T. T1	Jigsaw Tasks
T. T2	Information Gap
T. T3	Problem Solving
T. T4	Decision Making
T. T5	Opinion Exchange

T.L.F	The language function that the task focuses on (express opinion, persuade, describe, etc)
T. C. Pr	The cognitive process that the task requires (listing, ordering, comparing, etc)
T. Topic	The topic of the task (food, jobs, entertaining, hobbies, etc)
T. L.S.	The skills that students use to complete the task (listening, speaking, writing, reading)
T. Out	The outcome of the task (open/closed)
T. Inter.	The interaction of the students to complete the task (one-way / two-way)
T. T. Type	The text type that the students use or are required to produce (articles, letters, reports, ads, etc)

P 5: Teacher 1 Lesson 2 ME 2nd hour 1st Term.

Path: Managed in My Library -> D:\Phd\...\Teacher 1 Lesson 2 ME 2nd hour 1st Term.rtf
Media: RICHTEXT

Printed: 2015-12-03T10:56:01
By: Super

From HU: Washback Study on Teaching Practices
HU-Path: [C:\MY FOLDERS\Atlas.ti\Washback Study on Teaching Practices.hpr7]

Codes: 16

Memos: 0

Quotations: 231

Families: T1, ME, 1ST, Lessons
Teacher 1, ME, 1st Term
Teacher 1, ME, 1st Term with Follow-Ups

Comment: <none>

001 **Teacher 1, 15-11-13, 2ND HOUR, M.E.,**
 002 **1st Term**

002 **Teacher:** Informal letters or e-mails

003 Informal. When you think of informal who do you think we
 004 write to?

004 Who can we write to an informal letter?

005 **Student:** Something who know

006 **Teacher:** Somebody we know

007 Somebody we know very, very well, our grandparents,
 008 our friends, our cousins, pen pals from another country.

008 What expressions, what phrases can we use in informal
 009 letters or e-mails?

009 **Student:** Informal

010 **Teacher:** Expressions that you use when you talk to your
 011 friend in everyday language. For example, you can say
 012 "Hey, what's up? How are you?" When you close your
 013 letter you can say "Love, Best wishes, Take care"

011 **Student:** (asks what informal and formal means)

012 **Teacher:** Just always think about the situation in the
 013 rubric. Have you already read it and translated it?

013 **Student:** Yes

014 Let's go to exercise one.

015 **Student:** (Εδώ δεν έχω καταλάβει τι κάνουμε= I haven't
 016 understood what we are doing here)

016 **Teacher:** Ok, let's find out.

017 "Read the rubrics below. Underline the key words. Find
 the imaginary situation, the imaginary reader, type of
 writing task and the specific topics" It says "You have
 seen the following advertisement in the Daily Mail. Want
 to be a tour guide? Do you like working with large groups
 of people? We are looking for friendly and energetic
 people to work as tour guides in August. Contact Andy

Org. T -> S(s)~ W.5~
 W.M.Cl.W.~
 Q.A.~

L2~

F. T -> S~
 F.I.~

























F. T -> S~ L2~
 F.I.~
 Expl. L~

F. T -> S~ L2~
 F.I.~

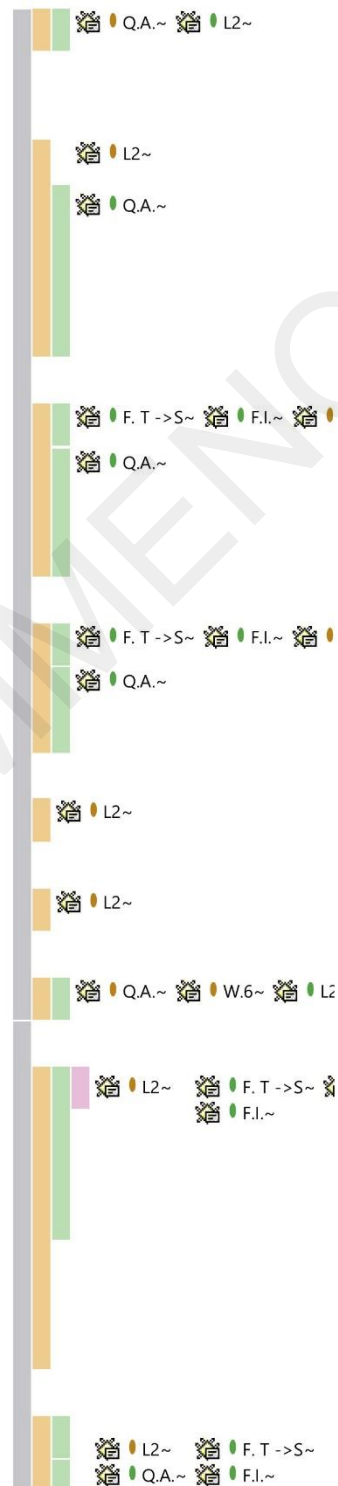
M. Coursebook~

L2~

W.6~

- Trevor at Write your email applying for the job. 120-180 words"
- 018 First of all, based on that, what is the situation?  Q.A.~
- 019 **Student:** To be a tour guide
- 020 **Teacher:** That's the job.  F. T -> S~  L2~
- 021 The situation is ...?  F.I.~
- 022 You have lots of people with you and you have to explain where you are going, give the history of each place you go to.  F. T -> S~  F.I.~
- 023 Who is the imaginary reader?  Q.A.~
- 024 **Student:** Andy Trevor
- 025 **Teacher:** Trevor  F. T -> S~  F.I.~  L2~
- 026 What type of writing task is this?  Q.A.~
- 027 **Student:** Formal
- 028 **Teacher:** Type of writing task.  L2~
- 029 It's an email.  F. T -> S~  F.I.~
- 030 What are the specific topics that you have to include?  Q.A.~
- 031 What should you include?
- 032 You have to mention your qualifications, what else?
- 033 **Student:** Experience
- 034 **Teacher:** Relevant experience you have and your character.  F. T -> S~  L2~  F.I.~
- 035 Exercise b.
- 036 Why am I reading?  Q.A.~
- 037 Roula, read b.
- 038 **Student:** (student reads)
- 039 **Teacher:** Ok, what is the situation here, Roula?  L2~  Q.A.~
- 040 What's the situation?
- 041 **Student:** (Τι να πω; =What should I say?)
- 042 **Teacher:** Based on what you just read, only what you read, what's the situation?  L2~  Q.A.~
- 043 What's your letter going to be about?  W.6~
- 044 **Student:** About a refuse to an invitation

- 044 **Teacher:** Before you refuse what's the invitation?
- 045 **Student:** I am invited by my pen pal friend Jack to stay with his family
- 046 **Teacher:** So, Jack invited you to stay with his family.
- 047 Ok, who is the imaginary reader?
- 048 Who is going to read this letter?
- 049 You are writing to pen friend Jack who is going to read the letter?
- 050 **Student:** Jack
- 051 **Teacher:** Jack, exactly.
- 052 What type of writing task is this?
- 053 Is it an email, is it a letter, a composition?
- 054 What is it?
- 055 **Student:** E-mail? A letter
- 056 **Teacher:** "Write a letter in reply" So, it is a letter.
- 057 What specific topics do you have to do, to write in your letter?
- 058 **Student:** To refuse to the invitation
- 059 **Teacher:** And?
- 060 **Student:** And explain why I can't go Good!
- 061 **Teacher:** Spiridoula, read c.
- 062 **Student:** (student reads)
- 063 **Teacher:** So, Spiridoula, what is the situation here?
- 064 **Student:** I will write a letter for my friend, Tony,
- 065 **Teacher:** What's the situation? That you can't go.... To his brother's wedding.
- 066 Ok, that's the situation.
- 067 That you can't go to his brother's wedding.
- 068 Who is going to read that, Spiridoula?
- 069 Who is going to read the letter?
- 070 The email, sorry.
- 071 **Student:** Tony.
- 072 **Teacher:** Tony



- 073 What type of writing task is this?
- 074 Is it an email, is it a letter, a composition, article?
- 075 Email.
- 076 What specific topics do you have to include?
- 077 What does it say that you have to do?
- 078 You have to...?
- 079 **Student:** Apologize
- 080 **Teacher:** And?
- 081 **Student:** Explain.
- 082 **Teacher:** Explain what? Why you can't go.
- 083 Ok, d. Mariza, read d.
- 084 **Student:** (student reads)
- 085 **Teacher:** What's the situation here? You went to...
- 086 **Student:** A restaurant
- 087 **Teacher:** Ok, and..?
- 088 **Student:** And the food was not very good
- 089 **Teacher:** Who is the imaginary reader here?
- 090 Who is going to read?
- 091 Who is going to read it?
- 092 **Student:** One minute, the manager of the restaurant.
- 093 **Teacher:** Ok, what type of writing task is this, Mariza?
- 094 **Student:** A letter.
- 095 **Teacher:** Is it going to formal or informal?
- 096 **Student:** Formal?
- 097 **Teacher:** Formal, ok? Because you are writing to the manager of the restaurant.
- 098 And what must you include in the letter?
- 099 **Student:** Complain and say what action you expect to be taken
- 100 **Teacher:** You have to explain why you are complaining and what you expect will be done.
- 101 Do you understand why we did this exercise?
- 102 **Students:** Yes

103 **Teacher:** Why?

104 **Student:** To find the (student asks for unknown word)

105 **Teacher:** Main topic

106 **Student:** Find the main topic, who is going to read the email, what we write in this, what to include

107 **Teacher:** Good. So, when you have something like this and they tell you, write a letter, write a composition, write an email whatever, they give you the rubric; just a little box with the information that you need.

108 When you read it you have to understand it.

109 First of all, what you are writing.

110 What you are writing, an email or a composition, an article or an email?

111 Secondly, you have to understand who is going to read this email or letter.

112 In your mind you have to think about whether it is going to be formal or informal and secondly, when it says "write and tell them, write a letter to the manager of the restaurant expressing your reasons for the complaints and saying what action you expect to be taken"

113 When they tell you write a letter and do this, this, ask for this, this you have to write everything that they ask for.

114 For example, it says "express your reasons for the complaint and what action you expect to be taken."

115 I am going to write them why I'm complaining, give examples, and have to say what I expect to be done.

116 Whatever they say, you have to write everything.

117 You don't choose what you want or I will read this and that's it.

118 Whatever they ask you, they ask you for two points.

119 You have to write both of them.

120 They ask you for three points, you have to write all three of them.

☒ L2~

☒ F. T -> S~

☒ F.I.~

☒ L2~

☒ Expl. L.~ ☒ L2~

☒ F. T -> S~

☒ F.I.~

121 Whatever they ask you, you have to include everything.

122 You read this underneath?

123 **Student:** Yes.

124 **Teacher:** So, we don't have to go through this again.

125 Informal reading "Dear Gary, Dear Aunt Jane, Dear mum
whoever, cousin"

126 Or you don't have to start with "Dear" you can say "Hi
Georgia! Hi Spiridoula!"

127 Here in the informal letters can we use short forms,
abbreviations, can we say "I'd, I'm" ?

128 Yes, you can.

129 In general. Informal letter is the way you write to
somebody, is exactly the same way you speak to him.

130 For example, when you speak to your friends, you see
them every day, do think about proper language or do
you just use every day expressions?

131 **Student:** Every day expressions

132 **Teacher:** So, this is what you can do in informal letters,
too, or emails.

133 It goes for people that you know very, very well.

134 Now, let's go to exercise two.

135 Spireta, read exercise two so we know what we are doing
here.

136 **Student:** (student reads)

137 **Teacher:** Ok, you are not going to write anything, don't
panic.

138 It's already written underneath.

139 Now, we have the letter, sorry the email, but we are
missing what each paragraph is about.

140 And underneath a, b, c, d

141 Spireta, for paragraph one what did you put? What title
did you put, a, b, c, or d?

142 It's when you start the paragraph, so, what will you use?

☞ L2~

☞ F. T -> S~

☞ F.I.~

☞ Expl. L.~

☞ L2~

☞ L2~ ☞ C.B.AN.r~

☞ W.4~

☞ Q.A.~

	What's the title?	
143	Student: Opening remarks	
144	Teacher: And reason for writing	道 L2~
145	Ok, 1b. Can you read the first paragraph, the introduction?	
146	Student: (student reads)	
147	Teacher: "How's it going?" Entered	道 L2~
148	Ok, opening remarks "How's it going?" reason for writing	道 F. T -> S~
	"I entered this wild life competition, I won first prize, I want to tell you about it."	道 F.I.~
149	Spireta, what title did you give to the second paragraph?	道 Q.A.~
150	Student: "Write news and details"	
151	Teacher: 2d	道 L2~
152	Read paragraph two.	
153	Student: (student reads)	
154	Teacher: Nine	道 L2~
155	Two hundred	
156	Pounds	
157	So, the second paragraph is giving him the news, and it's giving him all the details, how he took the picture, how he won the first prize, everything.	道 F. T -> S~
		道 F.I.~
158	It gives all the details.	
159	What did you put for paragraph three?	道 Q.A.~
160	Student: "further details and invitation"	
161	Teachers: Yes, 3a. Read it.	道 F. T -> S~ 道 L2~
162	Student: (student reads)	道 F.I.~
163	Teacher: Sixteenth	道 F. T -> S~ 道 L2~
164	Pm	道 F.I.~
165	So, in paragraph three what did you do?	道 Q.A.~
166	He is still telling him about his news "I still can't believe it, I'm so excited" and he is telling him why he is inviting him. "They are presenting me the prize and I want you to come". Ok?	道 Expl. L.~

167 He is giving him all the details he needs for his invitation.

168 Paragraph four what title did you give?

169 **Student:** "closing remarks" (student reads)

170 **Teacher:** I had.

171 Sixteenth.

172 And then you just close it and tell him if he can come "I'd better go now" it's completely informal.

173 Exercise three

174 So far, it was easy do you have any questions?

175 Exercise three says "Mark the following sentences as O (opening remarks) or C (closing remarks). What does each include reason for writing, apology etc?

176 Here we have eight sentences and you are going to tell me first of all if it is opening or closing remarks and then you are going to tell me what each include.

177 For example, Georgia read the sentences and everybody tells us if it opening or closing remarks.

178 **Student:** (student reads)

179 **Teacher:** Is it opening or closing?

180 **Student:** Opening, closing

181 **Teacher:** You write it in the end. Closing.

182 What is the person doing here?

183 When I tell you "what do think we get together next week?"

184 What am I doing?

185 **Student:** (asks for unknown word)

186 **Teacher:** Suggest

187 **Student:** Suggest get together next time

188 **Teacher:** Suggest meeting

189 Suggest, double g, meeting

190 Here on the little line you write O or C, opening or closing, next to it write suggest meeting, we have to write what each one includes.

Q.A.~

F. T -> S~ L2~
F.I.~

Q.C.~

Expl. L.~
W.13~

L2~
Q.A.~

F. T -> S~ F.I.~
Q.A.~

F. T -> S~
F.I.~
L2~

L2~ F.I.~

Expl. L.~

191	Suggest meeting	
192	Ok, Georgia, read two.	
193	Student: (student reads)	
194	Teacher: Would write that at the beginning or at the end?	👤 L2~ 👤 QA.~
195	Opening or closing?	
196	Student: Open	
197	Open.	
198	What is the person doing here?	👤 QA.~
199	Student: Apologize	
200	Teacher: For?	👤 L2~
201	Student: (asks for unknown word)	
202	Teacher: Sooner, earlier.	👤 F. T -> S~ 👤 L2~ 👤 F.I.~
203	Apologizing for not writing sooner or earlier	
204	Write: apologizing for not writing earlier.	
205	Ok? Three	
206	Student: (student reads)	
207	Teacher: Where do find this? Opening or closing?	👤 QA.~ 👤 L2~
208	Student: Closing	
209	Teacher: Closing. What is this "Give my best wishes to your family."?	👤 F. T -> S~ 👤 L2~ 👤 👤 F.I.~
210	Wishes	
211	Ok? Four.	
212	Student: (student reads). Opening?	
213	Teacher: Opening. And what are we doing here?	👤 F. T -> S~ 👤 L2~ 👤 👤 F.I.~
214	Student: Happy for this reason?	
215	Teacher: So, what am I doing?	👤 L2~ 👤 QA.~
216	I am...? I am congratulating you.	👤 F. T -> S~ 👤 F.I.~
217	Congratulating	
218	Five.	
219	Student: (student reads)	
220	Teacher: Opening or closing?	👤 L2~ 👤 QA.~
221	Student: Closing	

Appendix IX: Sample of Follow-up Coding

P 6: Teacher 1 Follow up Lesson 2 ME 1st hour

Path: Managed in My Library -...Teacher 1 Follow up Lesson 2 ME 1st hour 1st Term.rtf
Media: RICHTEXT

Printed: 2015-12-03T10:56:20
By: Super

From HU: Washback Study on Teaching Practices
HU-Path: [C:\MY FOLDERS\Atlas.ti\Washback Study on Teaching Practices.hpr7]

Codes: 41

Memos: 0

Quotations: 51

Families: T1,ME, 1ST, Follow-Ups
Teacher 1, ME, 1st Term with Follow-Ups
Teacher 1, ME, Follow-Ups

Comment: <none>

01 TEACHER 1, 15-11-13, FOLLOW-UP, ME, 1ST TERM

02 **Interviewer:** Well, in the first hour you taught composition writing, formal letters. So, why did you teach the way you taught today, tonight? In general.

03 **Teacher 1:** In general, I just wanted to explain to them how to write a formal letter. I tried to explain them as much as I could, as possible and I took it one step at a time. I didn't have a particular order how to teach it. It just as came into my head. Just to get across how to write a formal letter.

04 **Interviewer:** In the beginning you asked them some questions in order to revise- let's say- the formal letters.

05 **Teacher 1:** Just in case somebody didn't remember or didn't quite understand from the last year or years before what a formal letter is. Plus the one student in here is new this year. I didn't have her last year. I don't really know what she knows, what she doesn't know. I just try to cover the class in general.

06 **Interviewer:** After that you read a rubric and analyze it, and you discuss with the students how to answer it. Why did you do that?

07 **Teacher 1:** Just they can understand the exercise in depth. Understand it a little bit better with the questions. I want to see if I ask the question who can answer them. Because when you ask you can see immediately who is going to respond, actually if they understand, if you see somebody kind of looking at you in a doubtful way, you know that they didn't understand. So, I want to do it as much as possible.

08 **Interviewer:** Then, after that you write the plan on the board and it is copied again by asking questions

09 I just want them to be involved, not make it a boring

W.5~
W.8~

Explain~

Taught Spontaneously

Q.A.~

Matter of Understandi

Students' Needs/Level

Q.A.~

Assess~
Matter of Understanding~

Q.A.~

W.2~

Student Participation / Inter

- lesson when I just write and I just say and they just lookbecause you are going to lose them after two minutes. I want them to participate as much as each one can.
- 10 Interviewer: At the you wrote the letter with them. Why was that important writing with them? Why did you do that?
- 11 Teacher 1: Because usually when we give them the composition, for this case the letter, if we didn't do anything, I give them for homework, each child would understand it in a different way. So, when they come back and read their homework, the one would say "Oh, I didn't understand how to do it" or would write one big paragraph and mix all the details. So, in this way, they keep the plan for a future reference and know exactly what to write in each paragraph.
- 12 Interviewer: So, for the future reference that you mentioned, you mean the exams?
- 13 Teacher 1: The exams, of course.
- 14 Interviewer: You give them some suggestions on how to write, like you revise it again.
- 15 Teacher 1: As a revision, and what I see is that they generally think of one sentence and that's it. And sometimes they can't express the sentences they are thinking of, and they get stuck. And they just lose it from there.
- 16 Interviewer: Then you give some suggestions on how to use whatever you did in both writing and speaking.
- 17 Teacher 1: The vocabulary, some useful sentences, phrases, for their oral tests again. So that they can use it and broaden their vocabulary a little bit.
- 18 Interviewer: So, you have the exams in mind again?

Concentration - Attention~

W.3~
W.M.Cl.W.~

Exams~
Matter of Understanding

Ready material for future
Examples~

W.13~
W.7~
W.9~

Students' Needs/Level~

Ready material for future re
Examples~

Exams~

19 Teacher 1: Oh, yes.

20 Interviewer: In this writing class you had the exams in mind.

21 Teacher 1: Yes, in case they have a letter to write, or a composition. We are going to do everything keeping the exams in mind. Whatever comes up at the test, the know because they will have already done it in class so that they can respond.

22 Interviewer: Do you keep the scores? Do you score their writing?

23 Teacher 1: Do you mean with a grader or something?

24 Interviewer: Yes.

25 Teacher 1: No, no. I just give them my comments, my feedback.

26 Interviewer: Then you gave them the homework.

27 Teacher 1: Which is similar to what we did on the board so they can familiarize themselves with it.

28 Interviewer: And then you did some checking because you didn't have time, last time.

29 Teacher 1: Yes, it took us five minutes. So, instead of starting something new and won't be able to finish it, I just did that to fill in the gap.

30 Interviewer: Would you follow the same pattern if you taught one-exam classes?

31 Teacher 1: Yes, basically yes.

32 Interviewer: Then, the second hour. You taught writing again but informal letters this time. You did exactly the same thing, you asked the same students in order to revise

Exams~

Examples~

Ass. T. Sc.~

F.I.~

Familiarity L.~

Homework~

Fill in the gap in lesson~

G/V. 3~

ME vs OE classes~

33 Teacher 1: Tried to get them off, somebody would even a little whatever, just to say something.

34 Interviewer: You read the rubric, you explained and analyzed that. Why was that important again?

35 Teacher 1: Because if that comes up at the exam, and probably will, I want them to know that just read the entire rubric also, look for certain points. Keep in mind who is going to read it, is going to be formal or informal. I want to do that with them, take one step at a time, so they know exactly what they are going to write and not spend the time wondering... thinking.

36 Interviewer: What influenced this choice? The exams again?

37 Teacher 1: Yes.

38 Interviewer: Because rubrics are very important for the exams

39 Teacher 1: In order to understand how to read it, how to perceive it and what to take out of there.

40 Interviewer: And then, you continue analyzing the rubric and then you give some suggestions on letter writing in general. Why do you give these suggestions to them?

41 Teacher 1: I want them to understand that when they do the writing, they don't have to go down in certain way. They can use as many expressions as they can, in general, or let's say for today it was an informal letter, there is not always one way of starting a formal letter. And "Oh, my God I can't think of it, I'm stuck, I can't write any more. I can't continue it". There are so many ways. Just express what you want. You can't think of a word written now, say it in a different way. Try a different approach.

42 Interviewer: So, you didn't have the exams.

43 Teacher 1: I still do that. I don't want them to learn a fixed

W.6~

Exams~

Ready material for future re
Examples~

Exams~

Expl. L.~
W.6~

Matter of Understanding~


Language Learning~


Suggestion / Advice for Exa


Language Learning~

- phrase for each thing. Learn different things, understand there are different ways to do it.
- 44 Interviewer: What about the rubric that you analyzed so much? If we didn't have the exams, would you do that again?
- 45 Teacher 1: Maybe if I didn't have the exams, I would spend so much time on it. I wouldn't over-analyze it so much.
- 46 Interviewer: I see. Then you did some exercises in the book that were based on informal letters. So, you analyzed the model text, each paragraph. So, why did you do that?
- 47 Teacher 1: Just for them to understand what to write in each paragraph. You are supposed to write specific items in one paragraph and not going to repeat them in the second paragraph. You write them, you are done. You are going to the second paragraph, you have different things to write. You don't mix them up, whatever you remember. Try to put them in a certain order.
- 48 Interviewer: You think model texts help them out?
- 49 Teacher 1: Yes. I think so, because they see how it is actually written so they can get an idea. You don't go to the second paragraph, you mention one think, then you are in the third paragraph and you remember "Oh, I didn't write this. I'll just stick it here in the third paragraph." It has a sequence. You have to follow certain order, put things in order.
- 50 Interviewer: Maybe you can see what the exams ask
- 51 Teacher 1: Exactly, that's what I'm trying. Whatever they ask, you have to write. Whatever the suggestions are, you write as many things as they ask you.
- 52 Interviewer: So, if we were not in the exams, would give

 W.6~


 Give more time because of thi

 W.4~

 Matter of Understanding~

 Examples~

 Exams~

 Teach it but not in such det

- them a model to analyze it so much?
- 53 Teacher 1: We would analyze it, but probably not get into such details.
- 54 Interviewer: I see. You practiced some vocabulary and phrases, some opening and closing; all them in reference to informal letters in order to...?
- 55 Teacher 1: For the test.
- 56 Interviewer: To practice again what the test asks for.
- 57 Teacher 1: Yes, and how to respond to it.
- 58 Interviewer: So, if it was the exam, would you do something more free type of writing.
- 59 Teacher 1: If it wasn't for the exam...? Maybe yes. But now because I have the exams in mind, because the composition is the same. I am going to do different composition now and different one later, is the same. At least the composition get in the right direction.
- 60 Interviewer: You taught formal and informal letters. Would you teach them again if they weren't in the exams?
- 61 Teacher 1: Yes, definitely.
- 62 Interviewer: Do you find them useful in their life?
- 63 Teacher 1: Yes, they might want to write to a magazine for a book or favorite actor or something.
- 64 Interviewer: And you used English language throughout both hours. Why?
- 65 Teacher 1: Again, because I think they are in a level where they can fully understand, or even when they don't understand 100% or 90 %, they can understand what I am saying. I try to explain as much as I can so there aren't any questions. And I ask them in the end if there is something that they don't understand, and if there is something that they don't understand noway I will just tell

Language Learning~

No Exam Influence~
W.5~

L2~
Students' Needs/Level~

them in Greek.

66 Interviewer: So, you if you didn't have a book, the course book, would you teach differently?

67 Teacher 1: Yes, because now I am guided, I know what exactly I have to do. If I didn't have the book, I had to make a plan on my own.

68 Interviewer: What would you do then?

69 Teacher 1: I don't know. I've never taught by myself, I always had books to be honest with you.

70 Interviewer: You developed vocabulary and phrases and a useful language and analyzing model text talking about closing and opening. Would leave something out if you didn't have the course book?

71 Teacher 1? Maybe I would left out the exercise where you are supposed to use a word to fill in the blank in the right form. That's not something they are going to do on the test. We just use it for as grammar reference; just the y can revise and practice grammar a little bit.

72 Interviewer: Would you teach differently? Would you use a different teaching strategy? For example, you do the exercises teacher to student, they work individually or the whole classroom with you? Would you do something different? Do you have your own material?

73 Teacher 1: Maybe I would do a little more group work where they can work together by themselves and not me guide them what to do exactly. I let figure it out on their own, see what they come up with.

74 Interviewer: So, do you think that it's the book's fault that you teach the way you teach?

75 Teacher 1: Yes...

76 Interviewer: That you didn't use any group work or pair

Coursebook Influence~
M. Coursebook~
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W.5~
W.7~
W.M.Gr.S.~

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No Exam Influence~
Omit it if not exams~

Coursebook Influence~
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W.M.Gr.S.~