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Ilona Feld-Knapp

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Der vorliegende Beitrag befasst sich mit dem Begriff der Kompetenzorientierung im Fremdsprachenunterricht und setzt sich mit der widersprüchlichen gegenwärtigen Situation, die durch das Spannungsfeld von Kompetenzorientierung und Standardisierung geprägt wird, auseinander. Zuerst wird der Prozess der Etablierung der kommunikativen Kompetenz im Fremdsprachenunterricht diskutiert, dann wird der Wandel der curricularen Grundlagen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts von den Anfängen bis zur Entstehung der Bildungsstandards in einem Überblick reflektiert. Im Fazit wird auf die besondere Verantwortung der Lehrenden bei der Wahrnehmung unterschiedlicher Dimensionen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts im Kontext der Standardisierung sowie auf die spezifischen Aufgaben der universitären Fremdsprachenlehrerbildung eingegangen.

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Die Zielbestimmungen für das Kompetenzzulernen im Fremdsprachenunterricht gehen immer noch, jedenfalls weitgehend und in den meisten Curricula, auf Sprachlernkonzepte und Deskriptoren zurück, die im Gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmen für Sprachen (GER) aus dem Jahr 2001 niedergelegt sind. Diese wiederum gehen auf Theoretisierungen zurück, die weit ins

20. Jahrhundert zurückreichen. Mittlerweile ist eigentlich klar, dass die Skills-Orientierung, die den Kern des GER bildet und die einen globalen Siegeszug in den Fremdsprachencurricula und im Testwesen begründet hat, reduktiv ist und der Komplexität sprachlich-diskursiver Interaktion nicht Rechnung trägt. An diese kritische Wahrnehmung schließt sich die Frage an, wie man zu einer neuen, komplexeren Zielbestimmung der Kompetenzen des Sprachenlernens gelangen kann. Der vorliegende Beitrag versucht eine solche Zielbestimmung auf drei verschiedenen Wegen. Der erste betrifft die Modi der Kommunikation und ihr multimodales Zusammenspiel, sodass auch kulturell bedeutsame Modi wie die visuelle Kommunikation ins Blickfeld rücken. Zum zweiten soll die Zielebene diskutiert werden, auf die sich die Operatoren in den Könnensbeschreibungen richten; und drittens sollen Zielfelder jenseits des sprachlichen Lernens bestimmt werden, damit auch das kulturelle und das literarisch-ästhetische Lernen als ein integraler Bestandteil des kompetenzorientierten Sprachenlernens verstanden werden.

Thomas Fritz

**Kompetenzen: woher kommen sie, was können sie –
und was wir mit ihnen tun können und was nicht?**

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In diesem Beitrag soll das Konzept der „Kompetenzen“ – seine Ursprünge und seine Wirkungsweisen sowie die möglicherweise vorhandenen Schwächen – kritisch hinterfragt werden. Ausgehend vom Kompetenzbegriff bei Noam Chomsky bis hin zu soziologischer Kritik am „Catch-All-Term“ und neueren Kompetenzmodellen, die die Handlungsfähigkeit in den Mittelpunkt stellen, soll der Begriff der Kompetenzen in seiner Bedeutung für einen demokratischen und „modernen“ Sprachunterricht untersucht werden. Es soll auch der Frage nachgegangen werden, inwieweit die „Kann-Beschreibungen“ des Gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmens für Sprachen auch eine spracherwerbsfundierte Bedeutung haben können. Nicht zuletzt bedeutet ja „kompetent sein“ bzw. über „Kompetenzen verfügen“ etwas sehr Positives und sind handlungsbezogene Beschreibungen des „Könnens“ nachvollziehbarer und damit auch einfacher zu evaluieren als streng linguistische, grammatikorientierte Beschreibungen.

Tolcsvai Nagy Gábor

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Az emberi kommunikáció legáltalánosabb megvalósulási formája a beszéd-esemény. A kommunikáció alapegysége a beszélgetés. Minden emberi megszólalás szöveg. A nyelvi kommunikációs tevékenység ismeretei sémákba rendeződnek. Általánosságban nézve a beszélő a szövegben fogalmilag megkonstruál valamely dolgot, eseményt egy adott nézőpontból, amelyet a hallgató feldolgoz. A szöveg nyelvi összetevői különböző funkciókat töltenek be, amelyek párhuzamosan, együtt és egymásra hatva járulnak hozzá a szöveghez. A szöveggel mind alkotója, mind befogadója három fő formában találkozhat, ezek a szöveg fizikai megvalósulása, a szöveg műveleti feldolgozása és a szöveg értelemszerkezete. A szövegértést a műveleti szerkezet, vagyis a műveleti feldolgozás nyelvi művelettípusainak elkülönítésével és jellemzésével lehet megközelíteni. A szövegértés mentális koherenciaépítés, a szövegről való ismeret időben történő fokozatos felépítése – olyan művelet, amelynek során a szöveg befogadója a szöveg egyes nyelvi elemei között az értelmi összefüggéseket felismeri (vagy jórészt felismeri, vagy nem ismeri fel), és azokat folyamatosan összegezve, tehát a fő szereplőkre, jellemzőikre, folyamataikra és körülményeikre vonatkoztatva mentálisan elrendezi. A szövegértés sémákon alapuló alapvető megértő műveleteit a befogadó a szöveg alábbi koherenciátényezőin végzi el: dologfolytonosság (koreferencia), esemény-egymásrakövetkezés, a mondat mint kontextualizált jelenet, a dialógus fordulószerkezete, a monológ bekezdése, az összegző értelemszerkezet.

Raácz Judit

A szövegértés fogalma, fejlesztési területei, lehetőségei és gyakorlati megvalósítása az oktatásban 121

Az elmúlt évtizedekben megváltozott az olvasás, a szövegértés definíciója, valamint számos nemzetközi és hazai mérés igyekezett föltérképezni az egyes korosztályok szövegértési képességeit. A felmérések eredményei, az egyre szaporodó kutatások alapján mind kidolgozottabbá, összetettebbé, tágabbá vált a szövegértés fogalma és bővültek annak tartalmi keretei. Bővültek az ide sorolható tanulói készségek és azok fejlesztési feladatai is, valamint gazdagodott a gyakorlatban használható módszerek tárháza. Az iskolai oktatás egyik, tantárgyi kereteken is átívelő célja és feladata lett a különböző típusú szövegek értésének fejlesztése. Jelen tanulmány a meglévő kutatásokat, ered-

ményeket figyelembe véve azt igyekszik meghatározni és áttekinteni, mit is értünk ma a szövegértés fogalmán, a szövegértés mely fejlesztési területeit tartja számon a szakirodalom, milyen módszertani alapelvei, gyakorlatitípusai léteznek a gyakorlati szövegértés fejlesztésének, hogyan jelennek meg ezek az iskolai oktatásban, vagyis a tantervekben, a tankönyvekben, a tanítási gyakorlatban, illetve milyen lehetőségek, módszertani eszközök és kiadványok állnak ma a tanárok rendelkezésére a szövegértés fejlesztésére.

Károly Krisztina

A tudományos szakfordítási makrokompetencia:

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A tudományos szakfordítás a történelem során mindig meghatározó tényező volt a tudomány és az emberiség gondolkodásának fejlődésében, ma pedig – a globalizációnak és a technika gyors fejlődésének köszönhetően – minden eddiginél nagyobb méreteket ölt. Tudományos területen fordítást vagy szakemberek/tudósok végeznek, vagy fordítók, akik bár jártasak a fordítói szakmában, a diszciplínában elmarad a felkészültségük a szakmabeliektől. E területen ezért a fordítási tevékenységet végzők kompetenciái és a fordítások minősége eltérő. Nem véletlen így, hogy a fordítások minőségét gyakran kritika éri. Tanulmányom a tudományos szakfordítási kompetencia egyedi sajátosságait járja körül és kísérletet tesz annak elméleti alapú modellezésére, mint összetett, nyelvi és nem nyelvi, fordítási és egyes diszciplináris kompetenciákat egyaránt magába foglaló makrokompetencia. E komplex, de a fordítás egy konkrét fajtájára (a szakfordításon belül a tudományos szakszövegek célnyelvi átültetésére) kidolgozott elméleti megközelítés megoldást kínál a fordítási kompetenciamodellekkel kapcsolatosan általánosságban megfogalmazott egyes problémákra. Bár a legtöbb kísérlet számos kompetencia vagy alkompetencia kombinációjaként határozza meg a fordítási kompetenciát, megválaszolatlan maradt az a lényeges kérdés, hogy a modellekben azonosított tudás, képességek és attitűdök a fordítások mely körére terjeszthetők ki: csak a „profi” fordításokra, vagy bármely fordítási tevékenységre? A különféle megközelítések arra sem adnak egyértelmű választ, hogy vajon minden fordítási helyzetben és minden műfajú szöveg fordítására alkalmazható-e a modell, illetve hogy ezek esetében szükség van-e a kompetenciák mindegyikére. A tudományos szakfordítási kompetencia modellezésével e kérdésekre is választ keresek a tudomány fordítása vonatkozásában. A modell alapjául szolgálhat a szakterület kutatási eredményei rendszerezésének, a tudományos szak-

fordításra vonatkozó elméletek finomításának, hipotézisek alkotásának és tesztelésének, majd a kutatási eredmények fordítóképzésbe és a fordítási gyakorlatba történő hatékonyabb visszavezetésének, s ezáltal – hosszú távon – a fordítások minősége javulásának.

Sabine Dengscherz

Schreibfunktionen und Schreibkompetenz(en)

im Kontext DaF/DaZ. Reflexive Perspektiven 178

Schreiben ist Mittel oder Zweck, Tätigkeit oder Fertigkeit und erfüllt vielfältige Funktionen im Kontext DaF/DaZ. Dementsprechend hat auch Schreibkompetenz viele Facetten, die in engem Zusammenhang mit diesen Funktionen zu sehen sind. Der Beitrag versucht, Muster in diesen Zusammenhängen systematisch zu fassen. Ausgehend von einigen Besonderheiten des Schreibens, die für unterschiedliche Ziele fruchtbar gemacht werden können, werden drei Funktionen des Schreibens genauer betrachtet: Schreiben als Sprachlernaktivität, Schreiben als Erkenntnisgewinnung und Schreiben als Textproduktion. Auf dieser Basis werden Reflexionen über Schreibkompetenzen aus unterschiedlichen Blickwinkeln angestellt. Dabei werden insbesondere das Verhältnis von Sprachkompetenz und Textkompetenz, prozessorientierte Kompetenzen und Schreibstrategien sowie das Zusammenspiel von Kompetenzen beim wissenschaftlichen Schreiben im Kontext DaF/DaZ behandelt. Betrachtungen zur Entwicklung von Schreibkompetenzen sowie Überlegungen zu schreibdidaktischen Implikationen schließen den Beitrag ab.

Ursula Hirschfeld

Zur Entwicklung von Aussprachekompetenzen

bei ungarischen Deutschlernenden 210

Hören und Lesen, Sprechen und Schreiben in der Fremdsprache Deutsch sind eng mit phonetischen Kenntnissen, Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten verbunden, die jede/r Deutschlernende beherrschen muss, um mündlich oder schriftlich erfolgreich kommunizieren zu können. Im Beitrag werden inhaltliche, fachliche und methodische Aspekte des Lehrens und Lernens der deutschen Aussprache im schulischen Deutschunterricht in Ungarn erörtert und Schlussfolgerungen für die Aus- und Weiterbildung angehender und praktizierender Lehrpersonen gezogen.

Bernhard Offenhauser

**Deutungsmuster in der Landeskunde und Sinus-Milieus®:
Förderung der interkulturellen Kompetenz – Identitäts-
konstruktionen sichtbar machen und hinterfragen 231**

Unter Sinus-Milieus® versteht man die Bezeichnung für Gruppen gleichgesinnter Personen, deren Lebensführung ähnliche Grundwerte und Prinzipien gemein sind. Dementsprechend zeichnen sich diese Milieus durch erhöhte Binnenkommunikation gegenüber jener mit anderen Gruppen aus. Mit Sinus-Milieus® wird somit die individuelle subjektive (Alltags-)Wirklichkeit abgebildet. Objektiv lassen sich diese Lebenswelten nicht messen, sie können vielmehr nur über das Alltagsbewusstsein eines Individuums erfasst werden. In einem jüngeren Ansatz der Landeskunde Vermittlung wird die kritisch-reflexive Herausarbeitung von Deutungsmustern, die nicht zuletzt sozialen Mustern entspringen, angestrebt. Selbst- bzw. Fremdzuschreibungen zu verschiedenen Sinus-Milieus® ermöglichen somit ein Reflektieren der Lebenswelten und der Lebensstile auf Basis der selbst- bzw. fremddefinierten Werteorientierung und Alltagseinstellung. Ziel ist daher, etablierte Denk- und Deutungsmuster zunächst kennenzulernen, diese zu reflektieren und sie schließlich aufzubrechen. Ferner soll ein Beitrag zum theoretischen Hintergrund für zuschreibungsreflexive Ansätze der Landeskunde geleistet werden. Es sollten Möglichkeiten aufgezeigt werden, wie das breite Spektrum der eigenen, ähnlichen und anderen Lebenswelten respektive Kulturen sein kann, und somit ein Versuch unternommen werden, der Erfüllung der Deskriptoren C-1 bis C-3 aus dem REPA entgegenzukommen. Konkret findet das Deutungslernen mittels Sinus-Milieus® Anwendung in Gebieten, welche die Gesellschaft und das Individuum im Wandel zum Thema haben. Somit wird gemäß dem REPA die Deutung und das Verstehen eigener und anderer kultureller Phänomene angestrebt und zum Ziel gesetzt, Kontaktsituationen, an denen Individuen mit unterschiedlichen Kulturen beteiligt sind, vorzuentlasten, kennenzulernen und zu reflektieren.

Ildikó Lázár

**Intercultural competence in language teaching:
Changes in beliefs and practice? 250**

A review of the role and status of intercultural competence development in the curriculum and practice of English language teacher education programs

is followed by a presentation of the results of a survey administered after a cooperative learning (CL) workshop for teachers (Lázár 2020) as well as the insights gained from a follow-up interview-based study concerning language teachers' professional development experiences and the impact these had on their self-reported views on changes in their thinking about teaching intercultural competence in foreign language classes. The results of these two studies enrich our understanding of what makes teachers' beliefs change, which underscores the need for reforms in language teacher education with special attention to the development of the attitude, skill and knowledge components of intercultural competence in foreign language teaching.

Perge Gabriella

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A tanulmány a magyarországi intézményes idegennyelv-oktatás tartalmi szabályozásának kérdésével foglalkozik. Az oktatás tartalmi szabályozásában kulcsfontosságú szerepet töltenek be a különböző szinteken megjelenő tantervek. Hazánkban 1995 óta a legfontosabb curriculum a Nemzeti alaptanterv, mely makroszinten az intézményes keretek közötti idegennyelv-oktatás alapelveit és célkitűzéseit meghatározza. A Nemzeti alaptanterv a magyarországi köznevelés tartalmi szabályozásának legfőbb eszköze, mely oktatáspolitikai szempontból is rendkívül nagy jelentőséggel bír. A tanulmány célja a Nemzeti alaptanterv fejlődése és alakulása állomásainak áttekintését követően a 2020-ban életbe lépett dokumentum és a hozzá kapcsolódó kerettantervek elemzése és reflektálása különös tekintettel az élő idegen nyelvek tanítására és tanulására vonatkozóan.

Tünde Sárvári

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Evaluation ist ein wichtiger und unerlässlicher Bestandteil des Lehr- und Lernprozesses und dementsprechend des Spracherwerbs. Unter Evaluation verstehe ich in Anlehnung an Grotjahn und Kleppin einen Oberbegriff zu Testen und Prüfen, der sich auch auf unterrichtliche Bewertungsformen wie Beobachtungen, Korrekturen, Lob und Tadel bezieht. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht liegt eine Evaluation vor, wenn eine Bewertung der Sprachkompeten-

zen vorgenommen wird. Die kommunikative Sprachkompetenz von Lernenden wird in verschiedenen kommunikativen Sprachaktivitäten aktiviert. Im Frühbeginn, den ich als ein Spezialgebiet des Fremdsprachenlernens betrachte, das eigenständige Ziele und Methoden hat, haben die mündlichen Sprachaktivitäten das Primat. Aus dieser Überlegung heraus wird im vorliegenden Beitrag nach einem kurzen theoretischen Einstieg anhand von repräsentativen Beispielen aus der Unterrichtspraxis erörtert, wie Lernstand und Lernfortschritt im frühen Fremdsprachenunterricht kindgemäß eingeschätzt und evaluiert werden können.

Dóra Pantó-Naszályi

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Sprachmittlung ist ein etablierter eigener Kompetenzbereich im europäischen Fremdsprachenunterricht. Ihre Bedeutung wird auch dadurch untermauert, dass im 2020 erschienenen Begleitband zum Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen neu entwickelte Beispielskalen für Sprachmittlung eingeführt worden sind. Selbst im ungarischen Nationalen Grundlehrplan (Nat 2020) enthalten die Richtlinien für den Unterricht der lebenden Fremdsprachen einen erweiterten Kompetenzbegriff in Anlehnung an den GER. Um den didaktisch-methodischen Handlungsraum von DaF-Lehrenden in Ungarn in dieser Hinsicht zu erweitern, wird im Beitrag zunächst ein kurzer definitorischer Exkurs geboten, wo Sprachmittlung im Kontext allgemeiner Zielsetzungen des institutionellen DaF-Unterrichts beschrieben und positioniert wird. Für die Überlegungen ist in erster Linie das fremdsprachen-didaktische Verständnis der Sprachmittlung relevant. Im Kontext der Förderung der verschiedenen Kompetenzbereiche der Fremdsprachenlernenden sollen Möglichkeiten und konkrete praktische Beispiele von Sprachmittlung im DaF-Unterricht gezeigt werden. Im Beitrag steht die Fragestellung im Fokus, wie Fremdsprachenlehrende ihre Praxis im Sekundärbereich durch eine bewusste Förderung der Sprachmittlungskompetenz bereichern können. Dazu werden Anregungen zur aufgabenorientierten Kompetenzförderung gegeben, die aus fachdidaktischer Perspektive reflektiert werden. Die Beispiele zur Unterrichtsplanung und -durchführung, sowie zur Aufgaben- und Übungsgestaltung werden je nach Sprachniveau – unter Berücksichtigung des Online-Unterrichts – aus der eigenen Unterrichtspraxis angeführt.

Krisztina Kórosi

**Immer wieder Lieder? Überlegungen zur
Förderung der Hörverstehenskompetenz mittels
deutschsprachiger Popsongs 354**

Der vorliegende Beitrag setzt sich zum Ziel, das Potenzial der deutschsprachigen Lieder zur Förderung des Hörverstehens der Lernenden aufzuzeigen und ihre Potenziale den DaF-Lehrenden bewusst zu machen. Am Anfang der Arbeit wird kurz darauf hingewiesen, was sich die Lernenden in Bezug auf Hörverstehen im DaF-Unterricht aneignen sollten, dann der Frage nachgegangen, wie dies erreicht werden kann. Die Grundhypothese der Studie ist, dass mithilfe von deutschsprachigen Popsongs (die als authentische Hörtexte betrachtet werden) die Hörverstehenskompetenz aller DaF-Lernenden besonders gut gefördert werden kann. Danach wird gründlich untersucht, welche Lieder sich für den DaF-Unterricht eignen und wie sie in den Stunden eingesetzt werden können. Ausgehend von dem Schülerwissen wird auch das Lehrerwissen unter die Lupe genommen. Mit dem Ziel, dass diejenigen, die diesen Beitrag lesen, in der Zukunft im Unterricht selbstsicherer und bewusster mit Songs umgehen werden, wird auch ein konkreter deutscher Popsong ausgewählt, nach textgrammatischen und didaktischen Aspekten analysiert und anhand der Ergebnisse dieser Analysen auch eine Hörverstehensaufgabe zum Lied erstellt.

Herta Márki

**Die Konzeptualisierung von Menge. Zur Entwicklung der
Sprachkompetenzen von Lernenden mit unterschiedlichen
L1 an ungarischen Schulen 370**

Der Beitrag stellt ein fremdsprachendidaktisch angelegtes Dissertationsprojekt vor, das sich zum Ziel setzte, die Besonderheiten der individuellen Mehrsprachigkeit von Lernenden mit unterschiedlichen L1 am Beispiel der Konzeptualisierung von Menge zu beschreiben und zu untersuchen. In der hier vorgelegten Studie sollen die Ergebnisse der Dissertation im Allgemeinen sowie – um auch in die empirische Untersuchung einen Einblick zu gewähren – exemplarisch am Beispiel der Reflexionen einer Probandin referiert werden.

Anna Daróczy

Textkompetenz angehender ungarischer DaF-Lehrender.

Ein Dissertationsprojekt 400

Der Beitrag stellt ein Dissertationsprojekt zum Thema Textkompetenz von ungarischen DaF-Lehramtsstudierenden vor, das die Autorin seit 2017 an der ELTE Budapest durchführt. Der Schwerpunkt des Dissertationsprojekts liegt auf den Besonderheiten der Kompetenz bezüglich Rezeption von Fachtexten, die angehende ungarische DaF-Lehrende benötigen, um ein philologisches Studium in deutscher Sprache in nicht zielsprachiger Umgebung erfolgreich zu absolvieren. Der Bericht zielt darauf ab, nach der ersten Phase des Doktorandenstudiums und der Forschung eine Zwischenbilanz zu ziehen und über die bisher geleistete Arbeit zu reflektieren.

Vivien Ropoli-Szabó

**Lexikalische Kompetenz: Eine Studie zur Untersuchung
der Besonderheiten der Sprachentwicklung von DaF-**

Lernenden mit Muttersprache Ungarisch 429

Der Beitrag stellt das Forschungskonzept eines Dissertationsprojektes vor, das sich zum Ziel setzt, die Besonderheiten der Sprachentwicklung von DaF-Lernenden mit Muttersprache Ungarisch zu untersuchen, und dabei die Besonderheiten der Entwicklung der lexikalischen Kompetenz in den Mittelpunkt stellt. In der Arbeit wird in erster Linie eine durchgeführte Pilotstudie, in der die verwendeten Instrumente getestet wurden, behandelt; darüber hinaus gewährt der Beitrag eine Übersicht über den aktuellen Stand der Forschung sowie einen Einblick in die ersten Ergebnisse der empirischen Datenerhebung.

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Intercultural competence in language teaching: Changes in beliefs and practice?¹

1 Introduction

Our understanding of what the aims of foreign language education are and how languages can be most effectively learned has changed significantly in recent decades and this is reflected by the changes in international and local language policy documents, language coursebooks and the results of research in the field. Goals such as communicative competence, intercultural education, global citizenship and democratic school culture have been discussed and written about extensively. However, the teaching methods that language teachers use have not necessarily followed the changing aims very closely. In fact, studies show that the majority of teachers resist changes and many language learners still learn languages in traditional ways and face obstacles in the way of successful intercultural communication in Hungary and in many other parts of the world.

The present study reviews and clarifies key concepts ranging from culture and intercultural competence through 21st century expectations in education to teachers' beliefs, including descriptions of pedagogical approaches and activity types that have proved to be conducive to the development and assessment of competences deemed essential in our times. The differences in terminology used in different parts of the world and in different fields of education to describe more or less the same concepts are often misleading. As a result, clarity in establishing how the most important notions and phenomena are understood in this study is essential.

The definitions of key concepts is followed by a review of the relevant literature on expectations from language teaching and teacher education in policy documents from the perspectives of intercultural education and reform pedagogy. The analysis of changes in policy documents reflects the evolution of new goals in education and the brief review of some of the research avai-

1 Based on Lázár, I. (2022). *Mirrors and windows in language teacher education – Intercultural competence and reform pedagogy*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

lable helps us understand where we are in the process towards 21st century goals in language education.

The results of the first phase of an interview study described here focuses on self-reported changes in teachers' beliefs about aims, activities and teaching in general. The interview study was the follow-up to a survey conducted among in-service teachers, which shed some light on why Hungarian teachers are often reluctant to reduce the amount of time devoted to traditional classroom activities and frontal teaching in their classrooms and why they tend to be unwilling to take the risk of implementing innovative techniques such as cooperative learning, project work or other learner-centered activities. The conclusions include recommendations for pre-service language teacher education as well as suggestions for the course design of continuous professional development workshops on intercultural competence and reform pedagogy for practicing teachers.

2 Theoretical background – Key concepts

2.1 Culture in language teaching

When we are asked about what teaching culture means in language classrooms, we tend to start talking about the literature, history, geography, sights, music and arts of the target language country or countries. This is what we were taught and language coursebooks typically present similar aspects of culture. In the case of English language teaching in Europe, for a long time this usually meant, for example, the history of some of the sights in London, a poem or short story from the United Kingdom, and perhaps a song or two to include pop culture, too. More recently, however, facts about well-known sights, natural wonders and famous people from other English-speaking countries also feature in many teaching materials. In addition to the question about whose culture should be included in language course books especially in the case of a lingua franca like English (Kimmel 2020), it is also worth reflecting about what exactly we mean by culture in the language teaching-learning context. In the traditional sense of the word described above, culture obviously has countless interesting and important elements, but many studies indicate that there are other, perhaps even more essential components for language learners that should find their way into foreign language classrooms.

First of all, it is important to distinguish between “big ‘C’ culture” and “little ‘c’ culture” (Halverson 1985). School subjects like literature, geography, history, arts and music are often placed under the umbrella term “civilization”

or “big ‘C’ culture” as opposed to the category of “little ‘c’ culture”, which includes beliefs, behaviors and social practices, elements that are perhaps less visible and less tangible but without knowledge about them, speakers of a foreign language might become “fluent fools” (Brembeck 1977). The well-known iceberg analogy of culture based on Ruhly (1976) compares the notion of culture to an iceberg only the tip of which is visible whereas a very large part of it is difficult or impossible to see or grasp. The items in the hidden body of the iceberg include an endless list of notions from definitions of respect or beauty to patterns of group decision-making, ideals governing work ethic, as well as values relating to cooperation, leadership, authority, prestige, health, love, child-raising, and so on. In other words, language and culture are interwoven and “little ‘c’ culture” rightfully claims an important place in foreign language classrooms if we intend to prevent our learners from looking foolish despite their possibly fluent and accurate language use.

Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2010) point out that culture is learned, transmissible, dynamic, selective and ethnocentric and that the facets of culture are interrelated (pp. 12–13). Similarly, Kramsch (1998) defines culture as “membership in a discourse community” and a worldview, i.e. “a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting” (p. 10).

Barrett, Byram, Lázár, Mompoin-Gaillard and Philippou (2014) attempt to define culture by dividing it into material culture such as tools, goods, foods or clothing; social culture consisting of language, religion, laws, rules of social conduct and folklore; and subjective culture including “beliefs, norms, collective memories, attitudes, values, discourses and practices which group members commonly use as a frame of reference for thinking about, making sense of and relating to the world” (Barrett et al. 2014: 13–14). Looking at culture through a different lens, Holló (2019) describes it as falling into three different main categories: civilization, speech and behavior patterns and text/discourse structures and skills. In her model, civilization includes history, literature, sights, institutions, values, humor, etc. The category called speech and behavior patterns contains elements such as behavior, etiquette, language functions, pragmatic and socio-linguistic features, body language and cultural dimensions among other things. Finally, the category named “text/discourse structures and skills” includes discourse features (such as text/topic structure, figures of speech, coherence, logic, cohesion, public speeches, mediation, etc.), and discourse processes and skills (such as focusing on issues, developing and structuring ideas, drafting and outlining).

Leaving earlier descriptions of (national) cultures behind, many professionals now seem to agree that “cultural identity includes our social identities based

on cultural group memberships” because we are members of several groups in society (Croucher 2017: 101) and that “cultural groups are always internally heterogeneous groups that embrace a range of diverse practices and norms that are often contested, change over time and are enacted by individuals in personalised ways” (Barrett et al. 2014: 13). This also entails that

all cultures are dynamic and constantly change over time as a result of political, economic and historical events and developments, and as a result of interactions with and influences from other cultures and [...] their members’ internal contestation of the meanings, norms, values and practices of the group. (Barrett et al. 2014: 15)

Despite all of the above, the wish to generalize about cultural traits and behaviors that are typical in other countries has long been with us in language education as well. However, many coursebooks reinforce stereotypes by the selection of information and illustrations about elements of the target language culture(s) and so-called typical behaviors that they include and sometimes compare across cultures. The intention to sensitize language students to similarities and differences between other culture(s) and their own can help them understand the world and discern specific learned behaviors that they have internalized, now take for granted, and often assume to be universal. This may be useful provided that it does not result in stereotyping and judgmental thinking. This is especially important because cultures change over time as a result of political, economic and historical events, and as a result of encounters and communication with people from other cultures. As Barrett and his colleagues point out, cultures also change because of their members’ internal reinterpretation of norms, values and practices of their own group. Popular or fashionable new constructions often become internalized by many and change the culture itself in the process (Barrett et al. 2014).

2.2 Intercultural competence

Intercultural competence is generally required in communication at face-to-face meetings and interaction involving people coming from diverse cultural backgrounds (Jandt 2009: 30), which today, especially in times of global lockdowns, often take place online. Intercultural competence has also been seen as an extension of communicative competence: “Intercultural competence is to a large extent the ability to cope with one’s own cultural background in interaction with others” (Beneke 2000: 109). Native-like competence as an aim of language learning has been re-evaluated and replaced by communicative competence, and subsequently by intercultural (communicative) com-

petence by many professionals (e. g., Byram 1997; Kramsch 1998; Corbett 2003; Lange & Paige 2003). Explicitly rejecting the native speaker model and a sole focus on teaching the target language civilization for developing intercultural competence in foreign language teaching, Byram and Fleming (1998) claim that someone who has intercultural competence “has knowledge of one, or, preferably, more cultures and social identities and has the capacity to discover and relate to new people from other contexts for which they have not been prepared directly” (p. 9). At around the same time in the United States, Fantini (2000) describes five constructs that should be developed for successful intercultural communication: awareness, attitudes, skills, knowledge and language proficiency. He also cites the following commonly used attributes to describe the intercultural speaker: respect, empathy, flexibility, patience, interest, curiosity, openness, motivation, a sense of humor, tolerance for ambiguity, and a willingness to suspend judgment (Fantini 2000: 28).

What are the diverse cultural backgrounds that many authors refer to? According to Barrett and his colleagues (2014), “cultural affiliations are fluid and dynamic, with the subjective salience of cultural identities fluctuating as individuals move from one situation to another, with [...] different clusters of intersecting affiliations – being highlighted depending on the particular social context encountered” (p. 14). Changes in how salient we consider some of our cultural affiliations and some of the facets of our identity are also linked to the changes that take place in our goals, needs, and interests throughout our life.

It follows from the fluid and dynamic nature of culture and identity that “an intercultural encounter is an encounter with another person (or group of people) who is perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself” (Barrett et al. 2014: 16) and any interpersonal encounter can be regarded as an intercultural encounter when cultural differences are perceived and made salient either by the situation or by the participating individuals’ own orientation and attitudes. As a result, in an intercultural interaction, people do not respond to the other person (or people) on the basis of their own individual personal characteristics – instead, people tend to respond on the basis of their affiliation to another culture or set of cultures. Barrett and his colleagues (2014) highlight that in such situations, intercultural competence is required to ensure that the interaction comes across as harmonious and successful for all parties involved.

According to Byram’s (1997) influential model, intercultural communicative competence requires certain attitudes, knowledge and skills in addition to linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence. The attitudes include curiosity and openness as well as readiness to see other cultures and the

speaker's own without being judgmental. The required knowledge is "of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction" (p. 51). Finally, the skills in Byram's (1997) model include skills of interpreting and relating, discovery and interaction as well as critical cultural awareness/political education.

Intercultural (communicative or communication) competence is generally defined as "the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive and behavioral orientations to the world" (Spitzberg & Changnon 2009: 7), similarly to many other definitions by Byram (1997), Moran (2001), Corbett (2003), Bennett and Bennett (2004), Deardorff (2009) and Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2010) among others.

Kramsch (1998) claims that culture becomes less strongly linked to nations and countries and has to do with the construction of meaning and imagined communities, later also referred to as third place and a symbolic dimension of intercultural competence (Kramsch 2009). In one of her articles, Kramsch (2011) describes symbolic competence and suggests that the notion of third culture must be seen less as a place and more as

a symbolic process of meaning-making that sees beyond the dualities of national languages (L1–L2) and national cultures (C1–C2). The development of symbolic competence does not replace the hard won notion of communicative competence that has served us so well in the last 25 years, but it includes a systematic reflexive component that encompasses some subjective and aesthetic as well as historical and ideological dimensions that communicative language teaching (CLT) has largely left unexploited. (Kramsch, 2011: 355)

According to the Council of Europe publication (Barret et al. 2014):

Intercultural competence is a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through action which enables one, either singly or together with others, to:

- understand and respect people who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself;
- respond appropriately, effectively and respectfully when interacting and communicating with such people;
- establish positive and constructive relationships with such people;
- understand oneself and one's own multiple cultural affiliations through encounters with cultural 'difference'. (Barrett et al. 2014: 16–17)

More recently, in Byram's revised edition of *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence* (Byram 2020), the well-known model of the

five components of intercultural competence and the full model of the combination of communicative and intercultural competence have not changed. The new edition helps clarify “how the models and the suggested implementations should be understood in the light of the complexities of the world today and of advances in the field of language and intercultural education” (Risager 2020: ix). As a result of changes in the world, lack of civility in public discourse and his own perceptions and engagements with intercultural and democratic citizenship projects, Byram (2020) emphasizes that language learners should not only be encouraged to be open, curious and ready to discover and reflect on other cultures and their own but should also be assisted in becoming engaged and responsible citizens in and after school with a view to changing societies for the better. The component of intercultural competence called critical cultural awareness is “an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of an explicit, systematic process of reasoning, values present in one’s own and other cultures and countries” (Byram 2020: 66) in order to challenge blind convictions and pave the way for collaboration with others because one of the major roles of education is for students to become globally engaged and interculturally competent citizens.

2.3 Language proficiency in the 21st century in policy documents

What society and the labor market expect from students graduating from their educational institutions should normally have an impact on what schools do to prepare their learners for their adult life in society and a successful professional career. The following skills – often referred to as soft skills – and attributes are usually listed as desirable in many job advertisements these days: cooperation, empathy, critical thinking, problem solving, life-long learning, information technology (IT) skills, autonomy, creativity, adaptability, responsibility and cognitive flexibility among others. This section looks at some of these attitudes and skills in light of the competences that need to be developed by all teachers according to reference works written by education professionals and published by international organizations and national authorities.

Recent international policy documents and reference books often emphasize the intercultural dimension of teaching a variety of school subjects within or together with global competence development. For example, UNESCO published a reference book on *Intercultural Competence* (2013) and an educational framework entitled *Global Citizenship Education* (2014). The aim of

the latter is to help “learners to engage and assume active roles, both locally and globally, to face and resolve global challenges and ultimately to become proactive contributors to a more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, secure and sustainable world” (p. 15). Global citizenship education is guided by the aim to develop in learners the competences they need to respond to the challenges of the 21st century (UNESCO 2014). The United Nations’ *Sustainable Development Goals* (United Nations 2015) and the educational materials they provide serve similar purposes. Target 4.7 of the *Sustainable Development Goals* (United Nations 2015) is to ensure that by 2030 all learners acquire knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship, and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development. Global competence requires a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values successfully applied to global issues and intercultural situations.

In Hungary, the National Core Curriculum (Government of Hungary 1996) prescribed the compilation of thematic collections for incorporating the ideals of democratic citizenship and intercultural education into the curriculum. Twenty-six years ago it already emphasized the importance of developing cultural awareness and an appreciation for people from other cultures. The 2005 edition of the National Core Curriculum is based on values centered around democracy, humanism, respect for and development of the individual, promoting cooperation of core communities (family, home country, Europe, the world), gender equality, solidarity and tolerance. According to their guidelines for the teaching of foreign languages (Government of Hungary 2005), the development of communicative competence includes the development and maintenance of pupils’ positive and motivated attitude to language learning, the learnt language, the people speaking that language, their culture and learning about other languages and cultures in general. The 2012 edition of the Hungarian National Core Curriculum (Government of Hungary 2012) also highlights the importance of intercultural understanding, intercultural skills, intercultural communication and intercultural competence in the sections entitled “Communication in foreign languages”, “Social and civic competence” and “The principles and goals of teaching foreign languages”.

The 2020 edition of the National Core Curriculum (Government of Hungary 2020) seems to put more emphasis on developing the learners’ national and European identity but acknowledges the importance of learning foreign languages and getting to know other cultures, acquiring knowledge and understanding of cultural differences, and developing attitudes of curiosity and

acceptance. One of the expected learning outcomes is the ability to notice differences and similarities between the learners' own culture and the target language culture and to convey Hungarian values in the foreign language. According to the document, foreign language proficiency has social, cultural and economic benefits, and specifies mobility, language awareness, interdisciplinary approaches, complex thinking skills, social responsibility, self-directed learning, autonomy, creativity and access to information in a knowledge based society among the advantages (Government of Hungary 2020). The word 'intercultural' features in 11 places in the foreign languages section of the document but intercultural skills and intercultural awareness are not defined. In fact, the word 'intercultural' is often used in the sense of target language cultures and civilization so the question arises whether teachers using the National Core Curriculum (Government of Hungary 2020) as their guideline for writing their pedagogical programs, syllabi and lesson plans will know what exactly intercultural competence is and how to incorporate the intercultural dimension in their teaching.

2.4 Pedagogy

Curricula and policy documents do not typically recommend teaching methods to help achieve the expected learning outcomes they set. As a result, there is little information and guidance in these documents concerning the methods, approaches and techniques that are conducive to the development of competences, let alone intercultural competence. The 2020 edition of the National Core Curriculum (Government of Hungary 2020) does not provide guidelines either but emphasizes actively involving students in the teaching-learning process in varied experiential activities often based on reading comprehension and writing skills development, providing sufficient cognitive challenge to the learners and using digital tools in addition to the traditional language classroom procedures.

Educators can have a lasting influence on their students' motivation to develop in many essential areas not only by incorporating innovative activities but also by modeling the right behavior and organizing the learning process in ways that are conducive to the development of global, democratic and intercultural competences (Lázár 2015a). For example, lecturing about democracy and the importance of intercultural competence will not be credible and is not likely to have an impact if teachers are not democratic and interculturally competent in their communication and their approach to the teaching and learning process. Students' needs and expectations should be elicited, and

aims, processes, assessment and rules of conduct should be negotiated with the learners if teachers wish to model intercultural, global and democratic competences. It is also counterproductive to use teaching materials that reinforce stereotypes and biased views and create even larger gaps between learners with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Instead it is recommended that teaching and learning resources for intercultural and democratic competence development should be based on a non-essentialist model of culture (Holliday 2016).

In the research described in the present paper, a variety of teaching styles, methods, techniques, channels and work forms were discussed. The survey and the interview study inquired about activities that build on experiential learning, discovery techniques, a creative expression of ideas, analysis and reflection, collaborative knowledge construction, cooperative pair or group work, and mingling and walking or other movement in the classroom and beyond. The reason for this is that in order to see real change in learners' development as a result of educators' practice in the classroom, following Pestalozzi's advice is important: We need "to activate 'the head, the heart and the hands' through learning by doing, while catering for all sensory channels and learning styles, and continuously reflecting on needs, aims and changes in thinking throughout the process" (Lázár 2015a: 16). The activity types in the focus of the research also reflect the belief that teaching and training are more effective if they lead to deep and long-term engagement and if they cover the development of awareness, attitudes, skills, knowledge and understanding at the level of individual and societal practice.

As many education professionals have confirmed, experiential learning or "learning by doing" involving experience, comparison, analysis, reflection and cooperative action is significantly more effective and not necessarily more difficult to implement especially if these teaching and learning methods are supported by the official national and local curricula as well as policy makers, inspectors and school heads (Lázár 2015a). Cooperative group work, debates and discussions, for example, can be implemented in the teaching of any subject but as Medgyes (1997, 1999) points out, the target language is both the means and the end of language teaching, consequently language classes can be the carriers of almost any content and thus become immensely useful sources of knowledge for the learners.

In his most famous book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Freire (1970) talks about education becoming an act of depositing. He criticizes schools because teachers are considered all-knowing and learners are not actively participating in their learning, in voicing concerns, interacting and problem-solving, but

are expected to receive, memorize, and regurgitate information. The father of critical pedagogy claims that the traditional approach has a disempowering effect on learners and can lead to misuse of power. He promotes the belief that teaching should challenge learners to examine power structures and patterns of inequality within the status quo. Freire's antidote to the dehumanization of schools is the development of critical thinking and pedagogy that encourages participation.

A very long time after Pestalozzi's and Freire's teachings, the Council of Europe's *Education for Change – Change for Education Teacher Manifesto* still claims that

The models of schooling we inherited from the past tend to be elitist, hierarchical and exclusive; features which have perhaps softened over the years, but which have not really been challenged by the democratisation of the secondary and tertiary education that many countries have experienced in recent decades. (Council of Europe 2014: 21)

Everyone with some experience in education is likely to agree that the atmosphere in schools and in many classrooms and training rooms is still quite often competitive and authoritarian. In order to change behaviors and favor the integration of new concepts, priorities and roles, teachers in professional development courses as much as

learners in classrooms would benefit from experiential learning within a socio-constructivist approach, allowing them to observe, reflect, compare, research, experiment – all activities that are not often integrated sufficiently into traditional choices such as 'learning by heart' and frontal approaches where there is one 'educator who knows and talks' and a 'learner who does not know and listens'. (Council of Europe 2014: 20)

Rethinking education, accepting new teacher roles, empowering students in the negotiation of content and tools, involving them actively in decisions and activities, developing their autonomy and thus reducing teachers' power in the traditional sense might still seem frightening to many despite the fact that this has been advocated by educational professionals like Pestalozzi, Dewey,

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gers, Freire and Montessori for a very long time and through humanistic language teaching by Stevick for more than 40 years (Stevick 1980). However, sound instructional design, classroom management and the selection of the most appropriate tools for the intended learning outcomes are just as essential in renewed online and face-to-face educational settings as in fairly traditional classrooms. The teacher's role remains central to providing a structured and

engaging learning environment.

Moving from a competitive and authoritarian classroom atmosphere to a cooperative and democratic one, teachers' communication style also has to be reconsidered. When examining how teachers talk during a language lesson, teacher talking time (TTT) is what first comes to mind. Trainee teachers learn in methodology courses that the sheer quantity of teacher talk indicates how much space is left for the students to practice the foreign language. As a result, language teachers have long been encouraged to monitor how much they speak (Thornbury 1996). The quality of teacher talk has also been the target of a lot of critical attention, but this is usually done to make sure students are provided with linguistically acceptable and valuable input (O'Neill 1994). However, Enyedi and Lázár (2018) claim that the style and the overt and hidden purposes of what a teacher says are often even more powerfully influential than the proportion or linguistic quality of teacher talk in a lesson. This is not only about teacher talk being engaging and comprehensible or serving as a good language model for learners. It is definitely about much more because the way a teacher speaks sets the working culture of a lesson with clear messages about power relationships, norms, rules and roles in the classroom. "Learners do not only understand what the teacher instructs them to do but at the same time they also get or feel the underlying messages. The way a teacher expresses his or her authority, demonstrates critical thinking or resolves a conflict in class all send messages to the students beyond practice in the target language" (Enyedi & Lázár 2018: 61).

Very little use has been made of the possibilities provided by online platforms for connecting groups of language learners living in different countries in informal settings or structured activities. By promoting independent learning, active participation and cooperation, this type of learner-centered blended learning scenario in a course not only ensures collaborative construction of knowledge but also develops essential communication and cooperation skills as well as attitudes of openness, curiosity and acceptance, components that are all essential for successful intercultural communication in a foreign language. For more information about such a project linking four classes in four different countries for 3 months to support their intercultural learning, see two studies by Lázár (2015b, 2016).

To conclude, it seems vital for teachers to learn about participatory classroom management, practice innovative face-to-face, blended and online teaching-learning methods, acquire the necessary skills for establishing a safe learning environment, and develop assertive, nonviolent, non-confrontational communication skills and conflict resolution techniques for their own and their students' wellbeing and development.

2.5 Professional development and changes in teachers' beliefs

The personal theories, beliefs and preconceptions of teachers are powerful in shaping their understanding of teaching and good practice. In this study, the terms beliefs and personal theories are used interchangeably and are understood in the sense that a personal theory or a belief is “a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour” (Borg 2001: 186). Consciously or most often unconsciously, teachers' beliefs will guide them in making decisions both in the planning and the implementation of teaching activities and assessment practices.

Many studies show that resistance to change is a common feature across different subject areas and phases of education. Research results on the perceived role of developing intercultural competence and the impact of training (Lázár 2011) revealed that even young trainee teachers take a long time to modify or let go of deeply rooted beliefs and convictions about the overall aims, the most suitable content and the appropriate methods of teaching a foreign language. In a study conducted with Finnish teachers, Virta (2002) emphasized that pre-service teachers' beliefs act like “friction in teacher education because the entrants to teacher education have often been good students in traditional schools and successful in teacher-driven instruction, and therefore unwilling to change their beliefs” (p. 688). His study shows that teachers often teach as they were taught.

The term “pedagogy of discomfort” (Boler 2004; Porto & Zembylas 2020) refers to a pedagogical approach that makes (trainee) teachers leave their emotional comfort zones because discomforting emotions are important in challenging dominant beliefs, social practices and norms that sustain stereotypes and discrimination, and in creating openings for empathy, solidarity and transformative education. Although many professionals seem to suggest that it is only by seriously challenging and reflecting on dominant beliefs that changes can occur in teachers' personal theories and classroom practices, discomforting professional development courses are not very frequent.

People usually accept to change their ways as a last resort and even that last minute change tends to be fragile. For example, new models of practice easily erode when the teaching-learning environment is stressful as highlighted by Korthagen and his colleagues:

The resistance to change is even greater because of the pressure that most student teachers feel to perform well in the classroom. In stressful conditions, people try even harder to keep their equilibrium... Thus teacher educators appear to be involved in the paradox of change: the pressure to change often prevents change. (Korthagen et al. 2001: 70)

Korthagen's onion model is useful in guiding reflections about the different layers that may initiate change in teachers (Korthagen, 2004): Behavior is the outside layer on top of competences, identity, beliefs, and finally, mission at the core of the concentric circles. Many of the layers of the onion can only be guessed through the person's behavior so the deeply held beliefs that guide us are often misinterpreted. To make matters even more complex, the different layers are not static, they do influence each other, and there can also be outside influences that induce change. Korthagen (2004) suggests that in teacher education all the layers of the onion should be addressed and reflected upon. The summary of the results of a survey administered after a cooperative learning (CL) workshop and the follow-up interview study invited teachers to experiment and share their thoughts about all the layers of the onion.

3 The interview study

Although teachers' beliefs are typically resistant to change (see Lamb 1995, Harris & Lázár 2011 among others), the final aim of the study presented here is to explore the participating teachers' goals, practices and self-reported influences on their personal theories over the years, especially in connection with the need for and different ways of using innovative pedagogy and developing components of intercultural competence in language classes. The conclusions drawn will hopefully contribute to our understanding of which factors help teachers re-evaluate their ideas and what influences are likely to develop a desire for change in them. A follow-up study will have to explore whether teachers' stated beliefs and inferred personal theories are reflected in their classroom practices.

3.1 Research design

Prior to the interview study, a survey filled out by 128 teachers at the end of continuous professional development (CPD) workshops on cooperative learning (CL) as defined by Kagan (2009) shed light on the tendency that although the principles of cooperative learning and the competences it develops

are considered very important or even indispensable by 95% of the respondents (121 teachers), only 5% of the participants (7 teachers) use some cooperative structures in their teaching on a regular basis, which is in line with what Einhorn (2015), Feld-Knapp (2015) and Rapos and Kopp (2015) claim about the need for reforms in language (teacher) education in Hungary.

The participants of the CL workshops claimed to have the following obstacles in the way of changing their teaching methods: CL requires too much preparation time, lessons are too short for CL activities, they have large groups of students in small classrooms, they have mixed ability groups and the students not used to innovative methods. In addition, although some participants of the survey mentioned social competence and some intercultural skills and attitudes as clear learning outcomes of cooperative activities, the teachers seemed to be largely unaware of any link between the use of cooperative learning structures and its potential to develop intercultural competence (Lázár 2020).

The results of the above study called for further investigations into the nature of change in teachers' beliefs and practice. In order to obtain rich data and gain deeper insights into the matter, an interview study seemed to be the most appropriate approach. I found it important to investigate why teachers are often reluctant to reduce the amount of time devoted to traditional classroom activities and frontal teaching in their classrooms and why they tend to be unwilling to take the risk of implementing innovative techniques such as cooperative learning or other interactive learner-centered activities like project work or drama more often. To this end, a qualitative data collection process was designed to learn more about the nature of changes in teachers' beliefs and personal theories about language teaching and innovation. In 2021 I started to conduct in-depth interviews with a selection of the language teacher participants of the workshops of the previous study as well as other teachers and school-based teacher trainers in order to gain insights into what self-reported factors induce changes in their beliefs about their aims in language teaching, what makes them change or adapt their teaching methods, and in general, how they feel about innovation in English language teaching.

3.2 Participant selection and data collection

Five in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with secondary school English teachers from three different schools. Participant selection was purposeful as it was important to have great variety in the respondents' age, experience and perceived attitudes to teaching and innovation. I knew two

of the teachers quite well. I had observed five English lessons for secondary school learners held by one of them earlier. In addition, both of them participated in one of the CL workshops described in the preceding study and as a follow-up to that, I co-facilitated several professional development workshops for teachers with both of them. Despite differences in their years of experience and school contexts, I consider both of these teachers equally professional, reflective and innovative.

However, in order to understand what makes (or does not make) teachers change, it seemed essential to find respondents who might be less innovative. Interestingly, but quite understandably, two of my teacher contacts refused to recommend “not so innovative colleagues” as respondents, claiming that there are no such English teachers in their school. As a result, and for fear of losing too much time, I decided to drop this criterion for selection and found the other three participants based on availability. Nevertheless, the results show wonderful diversity in the teachers’ attitudes to innovation.

Inter- viewee	Teaching (mentoring) experience in years	Influential CPD courses or programs and their topic
Sarah	42 (28)	Master of Ed in Manchester, PhD in Hungary, mentor training course
Cecilia	30 (14)	Erasmus UK (teaching with minimal resources), Malta (online tools), Pestalozzi Program and Pestalozzi Fridays (cooperative learning, intercultural education, nonviolent communication, bullying, formative assessment, global competence)
Edit	26 (5)	2 nd MA degree, mentor training course, short workshops at language teachers’ conferences
Greg	21 (-)	British Council online course (on digital learning)
Klára	16 (5)	Social renewal program training, mentor training course, Delta and IH courses (cooperative learning, equity, innovation, interactive whiteboards, conscious planning, new strategies for teaching grammar, lexis, skills, drama, critical thinking)

Table 1: Influential CPD courses of the participants

As can be seen in Table 1, the participants' years of teaching experience vary between 16 and 42 years and they teach English at all levels (from beginner to C1) and to all age groups (learners from 13 to 19 years of age in secondary schools). The three schools where they work are practice schools with a very good reputation. This also means that the schools have a contract with the university and regularly receive trainee teachers who do their teaching practice in their institution. As a result, all of the respondents are used to trainees observing their lessons and four of the participants are in fact mentors (school-based teacher trainers). Their task is to guide the trainees while they are doing their practicum by supporting them in lesson planning and by reflecting on the trainees' lessons during post-lesson discussions.

In order to protect the anonymity of the participants, pseudonyms are used and the data sets compiled during the research process were archived with pseudonyms and codes. The data collected for the research project is confidential and will never be handed over to a third party.

3.3 The research tool

The interview schedule was designed and piloted and the questions of the semi-structured interview intended to elicit as much information as possible in the following four topic areas:

- 1) What influential continuous professional development courses have the participants attended in the past 15 to 20 years? And why did they find them influential?
- 2) What else has made the participants change their thinking about teaching and what else had a transformative impact on their practice in the past 15 to 20 years?
- 3) Apart from developing English language proficiency, what other goals do the participants have or what other competences do they wish to develop in their EFL learners?
- 4) What kind of activities do the participants like to use in EFL classes to meet their aims? Ten different activity types were used as prompts in the interview to help elicit as many examples and stories as possible. Some of these activities were based on Lázár (2015c).

The interviews were conducted in Hungarian in four cases because that is the native language of the interviewees and the researcher. In one case, the interview was conducted in English as the interviewee is not a native of Hungary and does not speak the language well enough to express complex ideas. The interviews took place online (in Zoom) and lasted between one and a half and

two hours. I recorded the interviews with the teachers' consent and transcribed and translated them into English.

Having considered the recommendations published by Byram, Porto and Wagner (2021) in connection with ethical issues in potentially transformative research, the dilemma of teachers as potential instigators of societal change was discussed with the interviewees and any possible decisions about their future classroom practices as a result of their participation in the interview study were obviously left at their discretion.

3.4 Data analysis

The transcripts of the interviews were sent back to the participants to check if they found the text a faithful rendition of what they intended to say. Reading the substantial amount of transcribed interviews carefully and using the constant comparative method, the data were broken down into meaningful chunks and coded into categories, using color-coding to find key points, similarities and differences in the teachers' experiences and views. Each new unit of meaning was then subjected to analysis, compared to other meaningful extracts and then grouped with those belonging to the same category. If there was no existing similar unit, then a new category was formed (Maykut & Morehouse 1994).

Obviously, there might be other ways to approach the collected data, and subjectivity is unavoidable when deciding which information and which accounts of experiences we find illuminating and which we ignore or leave behind unnoticed. However, to assure the reader that the research is credible and reliable, and that the findings may be transferable, steps were taken according to the principles of naturalistic investigations as recommended by Lazaraton (2003) among others. For example, I made it clear for the participants that my aim was to explore what there is, in other words to learn from and about them and to gain insights into their thinking about teaching. The interviews were conducted in a positive atmosphere with friendly professional exchanges about experiences and no threatening or negative tones in order to build trust and better understand the participants' personal theories. Thick descriptions of the results are provided in order to allow readers to determine whether the findings of this research project may be transferable to their contexts. By presenting the conclusions with disciplined subjectivity, in other words, as possible rather than certain, my intention was to achieve credibility.

3.5 Results and discussion

The teachers' memories about influential training programs or professional development courses showed great variety not only in terms of the length and topic of these programs or sessions but also in connection with the reasons for their powerful nature. For several of the participants CPD courses seem more impactful when they are experiential with sufficient space and time for experimenting with new activity types or techniques and when they can reflect on their advantages and drawbacks in a supportive environment. As Klára pointed out, "Trying things out multiple times and having enough time for reflecting about and discussing with others both process and outcomes are really valuable." Cecilia put it this way: "I like experiential learning, especially when it's thought-provoking, challenging, inviting me to try new things out in a supportive, and inspiring (often international) group of colleagues where there is constant collaboration and feedback."

Another feature that seems to make some learning experiences more influential than others is when they manage to show either surprising new approaches or applications or well-known practices in a completely new light. The surprise element was especially emphasized by Edit, Greg and Sarah. Some interviewees talked at length about technological advancement and how they became energized when they mastered a new software, application or video game for teaching English (Cecilia, Greg and Sarah). Sarah also spoke in superlative terms about her academic studies in language pedagogy. Others acknowledged the powerful learning they often experience when working with trainee teachers and/or colleagues (Klára, Cecilia, Edit and Sarah). Perhaps quite naturally, participants of continuous professional development events also seem to be ready to change in the long run when they have a sense of success when implementing the new approach or a few innovative activities in their practice for the first time. Feelings of success often seem to derive from positive feedback from learners, colleagues and trainee teachers, giving teachers positive reinforcement about their ideas, techniques or approaches as well as energy and motivation to be open to innovative ideas in general. These findings seem to be in line with the recommendations by Harris and Lázár (2011), with many of the studies from around the world published in the British Council's *Innovations in the continuing professional development of English language teachers* (Hayes 2014) and the findings of an extensive report on what CPD courses make the most difference to teachers sponsored by Oxford University Press (Walter & Briggs 2012).

As for the respondents' frequently used activity types to reach their stated aims in language classes, Cecilia and Klára often use nearly all of the learner-centered activities that I inquired about during the interview and Edit uses about half of them frequently. Cecilia, Klára and Edit mentioned that cooperative learning was helpful but they did not mention any cooperative activities other than the ones I described in our discussions during the interview. They seem to use CL occasionally but perhaps to some extent unknowingly or unconsciously, and not necessarily keeping to all the principles of CL. Greg and Sarah only use 2 or 3 learner-centered activity types, mostly the ones that also qualify as useful practice tasks directly preparing learners for language examinations. These activities (jigsaw reading, debate and role-play) often feature in the coursebooks or in their favorite supplementary materials, which obviously helps them incorporate these activity types on a regular basis.

Additional activities and approaches the participants added without being prompted were in fact outnumbered by the practices that they discontinued over the years. Somewhat surprisingly, the most valuable insights could be gained from analyzing the answers the teachers gave to the questions about discontinued practices in their teaching and their reasons for abandoning them.

Klára realized that skills should be taught and not just tested and focuses more on skills development practice now. She also likes task-based collaborative learning and often uses this in her practice. She added that "group work used to be less structured, and things were not so consciously done" in her classes. Cecilia stopped giving minuses for missing homework or wrong answers (three minuses usually equal a bad grade in Hungary). Instead she is now experimenting with gamification. What she does not like anymore about traditional assessment is calling on students, making them stand up or come to the front of the class and checking their homework or asking them questions to test their knowledge in front of the whole class, which used to be common practice in Hungarian schools. She believes that those assessments are a waste of time and they destroy the good atmosphere of the lessons. Cecilia used to negotiate and sign a class contract (classroom rules) with all of her groups but recently she replaced it by constant negotiations about the activities and the forms and criteria of assessment. She also revealed that she had stopped insisting on students learning the phonetic symbols when teaching pronunciation.

When asked about discontinued practices and new ideas and approaches in her teaching, Sarah found it difficult to think of any. Then she added that she does not use cassettes and overhead projectors anymore but "started using

jigsaw, debates and the internet at different periods” during her career, and “now I’m at the point that I’m using so many.” As a most memorable learning experience, she mentioned the mentor training course, which had a lasting impact on her thinking about the need to build positive relationships in the classroom and the ability to find something positive in every student, every trainee teacher and every situation. This positive attitude was also clearly felt during the interview.

As the interviews took place during lockdown, many of the answers included recent experiences with online teaching. Greg, for example, discovered the benefits of collaborative writing in wikis and “speaking” in forum discussions. He also started to encourage students to record themselves and create podcasts. He also claimed to have stopped using non-creative drills, as he prefers more creative and communicative drills these days. Nevertheless, he emphasized that analytical explanations and conscious awareness raising of grammatical rules should not be condemned. At one point he seemed upset, saying that he “stopped using ‘trendy’ communicative activities that were probably never tested by those who had invented them.” Although this was not elaborated on, the above comments suggested that Greg holds on to some traditional approaches and when experimenting with something new, he prefers activities that he designs himself.

Edit, speaking of the lockdown period due to the pandemic, talked about the discovery that she started splitting her classes into small groups for separate online lessons with each small group of learners for more opportunities to practice speaking. She also mentioned that she uses fewer drills than before and loves a song-based collaborative discussion technique she learned at a workshop. Both of these work forms allow students to contribute more to the discussion, participate more actively and receive more feedback about both their language use and their personal ideas and opinions.

As far as the participants’ goals with English teaching are concerned, not very surprisingly three of them mentioned communicative competence. Autonomy as an important learning outcome was brought up by two of the teachers. Developing learners’ note-taking skills was of great importance for Sarah. Global competence was only mentioned by Cecilia. However, as she elaborated on the term and what she does in the classroom to develop this competence, it seemed to become clear that she only meant education for the protection of the environment by global competence.

In addition to the above, Klára, Cecilia and Edit added many of the following skills and attitudes as expected learning outcomes (not all of them using exactly the same words): cooperation, good atmosphere, willingness to

communicate, appreciating diversity, opening a window to the world, empathy, critical thinking, tolerance, acceptance, active and attentive listening skills, respect, responsibility, and a sense of community. Interestingly, many of these items feature among the attitudes and skills components of intercultural competence but although one of the respondents mentioned social competence as a goal in passing, none of them used the term 'intercultural competence'. Nevertheless, the same three teachers seemed to be more open to innovation and a lot more conscious of what they do and why as well as more enthusiastic about learning new things in order to reach their goals, which included many of the components of intercultural, democratic and global competence as defined by Barrett and his colleagues (2014), Lázár (2015a), OECD-PISA (2017) and Byram (2020).

4 Conclusions and the need for further research

Obstacles to change usually include teachers' fear of relinquishing power and losing face or prestige, their lack of time and energy for creativity and innovation and rare support from school leadership and educational authorities (Harris & Lázár 2011). In the present study, favorable conditions for self-reported change in teachers' beliefs and practices were examined with special attention to how they develop intercultural competence in their language classes.

The participants of the interview study seemed to be accustomed and open to innovation in English language teaching to varying degrees. On the basis of the presented data, to use Korthagen's (2004) onion model, it seems that their competences, identity, beliefs and mission were shaped at different times and in different ways and this depended more on their personality and individual learning experiences than their age or verbalized goals in language teaching. It is interesting to note that they all enjoyed the interviews and the long discussions during data collection, and admittedly learned from them. There were quite a few 'aha moments' and 'oh, I never thought of it that way' as well as comments about wanting to try out a new idea in their practice the week after the interview.

Encouraging teachers in experiential and reflective teacher education programs and professional development courses to reflect on their own language-learning biography, their goals and priorities in teaching as well as the changes that their thinking has gone through over the years seems to encourage critical pedagogical thinking and hopefully improved pedagogical practice, promoting teaching methods such as cooperative learning that can help create more

peaceful, cooperative and interculturally competent communities in the language classroom and beyond.

The focus of this study was on self-reported changes in teachers' beliefs and the influences that might help them develop professionally to better support their learners' needs, including intercultural competence development. Although intercultural competence was not explicitly mentioned by any of the interviewees, many of its components seem to have become priorities for most of the participants over the years.

Follow-up lesson observations and interviews are planned with the same participants to explore whether they had any additional ideas as a result of the first interview and to see what changes in their thinking and practice their participation in the study has resulted in. Being involved in an interview study usually has a 'pedagogical' effect on interviewees, and in fact, it is a possible training technique if well adapted. Further research is needed to listen to the voices and experiences of a large number of teachers, but it seems that more pre- and in-service teachers should be encouraged and supported to participate in workshops, courses and continuous professional development events that focus on reform pedagogy and intercultural competence development.

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