



Reflective Practice: Tools and Challenges in Difficult Contexts

Anestin Lum Chi¹

¹ Government Technical College, Ndimi, Cameroon
Email: anestinelum@gmail.com

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Abstract

Reflective practice (RP) plays a prominent role in both the initial training and continuous professional development of teachers. It helps teachers to improve on their teaching practice by thinking about their experiences, identifying areas for improvement and making changes. This article discusses RP as a vital component of teacher training and development and presents a range of tools and practical strategies for encouraging and supporting teachers on their journey to becoming reflective practitioners, drawing on my personal experience and the experience of a pre-service teacher on teaching practice, whom I interviewed. But it also leverages on the Cameroon context, which reflects the realities of most Global South countries, in general, and Sub-Saharan Africa, in particular, to explain how and why many of the tools would not work very well in difficult contexts and suggests ways in which teachers working in such contexts can navigate the challenges. Given that RP is a continuous process that requires ongoing engagement and dedication, this article makes a case for teachers, especially those working in difficult contexts, to be encouraged and supported in the process.

Keywords: Reflective Practice, Teacher Training, Professional Development, Difficult Contexts

Introduction

The literature on continuous professional development (CPD) places agency with teachers and advocates that they must play an “active role in their own development” (Mann, 2005, p.104) in order not to plateau. One way through which teachers can activate their professional development is via RP, which enables them to learn and make improvements from their own experiences instead of resorting to academic publications and/or “expert” lectures that might be too theoretical or even incompatible with their classroom realities. Dewey (1933) posits that RP helps teachers not only to understand their current teaching but more so to shape their future practice as “one situation becomes an instrument of understanding and dealing effectively with the situations which follow” (p.29). But beyond merely learning from past experiences, RP actually warrants that teachers actually reflect on those experiences by gathering and interpreting data to inform change (Bailey, 2006). This way, RP becomes a systematic process with different steps involved.

Dewey (1933) as cited in Rodgers (2002, p.851) identifies six phases of reflection, which go from having an experience, interpreting the experience, naming problem(s)/question(s) that arise out of the experience, generating possible explanations of the problem(s)/question(s), formulating hypothesis and experimenting the hypothesis. Over the years, different models (Kolb, 1984; Driscoll, 1994) detailing the processes of RP have emerged. Famous amongst them and closely related to Dewey's is Gibbs' (1988) reflective cycle also made up of six stages, which are: describing an experience, stating feelings engendered by the experience, evaluating the impact of the experience, making sense of the situation, drawing lessons and planning to implement change. In all, whether "reflecting-in-action", while teaching, "reflecting-on-action", after teaching, (Schön 1983) or "reflecting-for-action" (Killion & Todnem, 1991), before teaching, RP begins with an experience that leads to an innovation, which improves the quality of teaching and learning. Rodgers (2002) beautifully captures this when he writes:

Reflection is not an end in itself but a tool or a vehicle used in the transformation of raw experience into meaning-filled theory that is grounded in experience, informed by existing theory, and serves the larger purpose of the growth of the individual and society. It is an iterative, forward moving spiral from theory to practice and practice to theory (p.863).

Although RP can be done individually, Dewey (1933) recommends doing it in a community. While supporting this view, Rodgers (2002) states that "in isolation what matters can too easily be dismissed as unimportant" (p.857). He further explains that collaborative RP "broadens the field of understanding", which enables practitioners to benefit from one another's perspectives. This dialogic approach to RP builds on the socio-constructivist theory, which emphasizes knowledge development through interaction with others. From this perspective, RP becomes a social rather than an individualistic activity. Doing RP with a peer or group does not only enhance knowledge construction but also makes the practice more sustainable and less likely to die out of lack of individual motivation. Given the general consensus on the importance of RP in teacher training and development, some tools have been proposed to foster it.

Tools and Strategies for Engaging in RP

The very first step in the reflection process deals with describing an experience, which requires data collection and analysis. These data collection and analysis strategies form the tool box for RP, which fits within the four lenses (self, peers, students and research) recommended by Brookfield (2017).

The Journal as a Reflective Tool

Journals connote the idea that a starting point for RP is through “self-lens” (Brookfield, 2017). Though commonly used in teacher training to help pre-service teachers to understand “evolving perceptions of themselves” (Brinton & Holten, 1989, p.344), journals are also useful for in-service teachers as a personal reflection tool. Keeping a teaching journal entails writing about one’s classroom experiences on a regular basis. With journals, teachers are able to describe, in details, their experiences, feelings arising from those experiences as well as lessons learnt. But as Mermelstein (2018) points out, the end goal should be to “enhance future lessons and not merely keeping a list of what worked and did not” (p.4). Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001) posit that “the act of writing begins a reflective, analytic process” (p.48) because as teachers write, they clarify their thinking and beliefs and monitor their practice better (Farell, 2007).

I remember how keeping a journal in 2019, when I first became a teacher trainer, helped me to think critically about how I was supporting teachers and adapting trainings to context. Though, time constraint prevented me from being consistent thereafter, I think my 2019 journal remains one of the most significant elements of my professional portfolio.

Although reflective writing seems very much an individualistic activity, it can be approached collaboratively “once issues of trust and confidentiality have been agreed upon” (Farrell, 2008, p.3). The process, which can be facilitated by online platforms such as blogs or Google drive, consists of passing on a single journal from one person to another. Each person writes about teaching problems in the same journal and also responds to others’ concerns. The group occasionally analyses journal entries for recurring patterns that may lead to broader discussions (Brock, Yu & Wong, 1992). Gebhard and Nagamine (2005), in a report about their dyadic journaling experience state that this form of reflective writing is “dynamic and constructive” (p.65) as teachers support each other and “enrich [their own experiences and practice] with the understandings and experiences of others” (Edge, 1992, p.4).

The advantage of written journals is that they can be revisited at any point in the practitioner’s career. However, one problem with this tool, in the case of pre-service training, is that “the focus of attention becomes the actual writing itself” (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p.18); not the reflection per se. Consequently, student-teachers tend to “fake what they write because of the demands of a TESOL course and the grading of this writing” (Farell, 2019, p.46). For in-service teachers who find writing to be time consuming, Mermelstein (2018) suggests audio or video journal keeping as alternatives to the written format.

Observation and Feedback as Reflective Tools

Brookfield (2017) explains that in addition to the self-lens, RP can be done through “peer lens”. One way of learning via colleagues is through observation. Observing a colleague’s class can provide useful insights for the observer’s own practice in the sense that in noticing a colleague’s error, the observer becomes aware of those same errors, which might have gone unnoticed in his/her own practice, or simply learns a new strategy from the observed colleague. In the citation below, a pre-service teacher recounts having learned a better strategy for teaching pronunciation by observing another colleague. Her experience reinforces the view that observation is not only beneficial for the observed but also for the observer.

The person that I observed was, er (.) really good at it. What happened is (.) I reflected on the good things this colleague did, which ended up making me realize how bad I did (..) you know. So (.) I saw something good and I was like (..) oh my God (..) I did this in a wrong way. For example (..) er (..) when I was doing pronunciation, I did not show students how to pronounce. I just told them to repeat after me. Then, during the lesson observation, I saw that my colleague divided the word, showed the number of syllables and stress pattern before asking learners to repeat after him. When I saw this, I was like (..) oh my God, I didn’t do that.

Observation serves the purpose of gathering data, which is later on used for “reflection-on-action” (Schön 1983) and “reflection-for-action” (Killion & Todnem, 1991) in a feedback session. For observation to be meaningful, the observer and the observed must agree on a focus prior to the observation. The observer’s role during the observation should be limited to gathering data on the agreed focus by taking notes; not evaluating the teacher being observed as this may produce feelings of insecurity and compromise opportunities to learn (Wajnryb, 1992). Observers should use descriptive tools such as rubrics as they are useful for providing feedback “in more informed and objective ways” (Hudson, 2014, p.72). These detailed descriptive accounts serve as data for the post-observation conference, during which both observer and the observed reflect. Richards and Lockhart (1994) recommend that observer and the observed meet immediately after the observation, when memories are still fresh, to “talk across the data” (Salas & Mercado, 2010, p.20). An important factor that enriches conversations in the feedback session is the data collected during the observation reason why a simple checklist for observers to tick is insufficient. It is important for discussions to be driven by some evidence such as a

descriptive account of the agreed focus. This not only nuances the feedback but makes it more evidence-based and strengthens instructional impact (Timperley, 2001). In order to do away with the expert–novice or adviser–advisee dichotomy that is characteristic of feedback conversations involving just two persons, Windsor, Kriewaldt, Nash, Lilja and Thornton (2022) recommend observation “involving multiple people with different perspectives” (p.644) as this allows for collegial exchanges with no one view appearing more valued.

The pre and post observation conversations are opportunities to reflect first for-action (in the pre-phase), then on-action and eventually for-action again (in the post-phase) leading to change in practice for both observers and the observed.

Video Recording as a Reflective Tool

A recurring idea in this paper, which had been strongly echoed by Walsh & Mann (2015), is the need for RP to be data-led. The advantage of using video recording is that it shows the subtle bits that might be difficult to capture in a written account by observers. Videos are “one of the most powerful means of promoting RP” (Walsh & Mann, 2015, p.358) because they enable teachers to notice or recall specific events in their teaching. Videos provide “authentic” data (Rich & Hannafin, 2009), which is valuable for self-reflection, post-observation discussions and collaborative learning.

In self-reflection, teachers use recordings to analyse students’ behaviours and monitor their classroom talk using Walsh’s (2006) Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework. Walsh and Mann (2015) explain that “by recording their classes and then completing the SETT grid, teachers establish a snapshot of their verbal behaviour while teaching” (p.358). This corroborates a pre-service teacher’s account (below) of how recording and transcribing helped her to notice that her talk was problematic and failed to engage learners effectively.

So (.) after I transcribed, I looked at the transcript and saw that (..) from this point to this point, the student were very robotic and I talked a lot. At first it was my intuition. I felt that there was a problem somewhere. But after looking at the transcription, I could identify the problem area. The evidence for students’ lack of engagement was my talk time. As I saw in the transcription, I was basically lecturing (..) not engaging students in the activity.

The following excerpt of the transcription referred to by the pre-service teacher shows extended teacher talk.

T: Desertification

Ss: Desertification (.) de (.) desertification (.) desertification.

T: I know it is annoying to repeat words but (.) for some reason, this might help you to understand the word (.) better (.) once you say it more than one time, read about it and contextualize it, then it becomes easier to (.) memorize too.

Moving on to the second word that [name taken out] mentioned as a noun, it is a verb here (..) Overcultivate by definition means to cultivate too much or more than you should (..) So (.) let us look at this word overcultivate and divide it into two parts (..) over and cultivate.

Cultivate on its own means to prepare land for crops. When you over do it, it becomes dangerous. Can we repeat the word, overcultivate, three times please?

Ss: Overcultivate (.) overcultivate (.) overcultivate.

Although using recordings for self-reflection helps teachers to engage in more “focused and interpretive analysis” (Gaudin & Chaliès, 2015, p.53) of their teaching, Seidel, Stürmer, Blomberg, Kobarg and Schwindt (2011) argue that teachers tend to be less critical when reflecting on their own and advocate for video-based reflections in communities of practice wherein there is mutual trust.

Videos can also be used to enhance the quality of post-observation feedback. Because videos provide a visual representation of the teaching, observed teachers are more likely to resonate with the feedback provided to them. I remember experiencing this in a post-observation session. I would have imagined that my peer observer’s feedback was very harsh as she commented that:

Instructions were very long and clumsy, making it difficult for learners to understand. Learners wasted time trying to find out from their peers what they were required to do instead of getting on task immediately. Not enough monitoring as teacher was taking attendance and recording work done instead of supporting learners on task.

I was able to resonate with this feedback because I could see the evidence. The video evidence fostered my sense of self-evaluation and critical reflection as perceived in this excerpt from my self-evaluation form.

As I watched the video, I discovered that the class was very rowdy during the activity. Learners could be heard asking their friends what they were required to do. I monitored a bit at the beginning and quickly moved on to do other things.

As exemplified above, videos act as a distancing tool that enable observer and the observed to approach post-observation conversations objectively. This balances the feedback, makes it evidenced-based and non-judgmental and redefines power relationship between observer and the observed, who become active agents in the co-construction of feedback as they watch recordings and reflect together aiming for a transparent and detailed, rather than superficial and one-sided feedback which might lead to low self-esteem for the observed teacher.

More so, video recordings enhance collaborative learning by mitigating the constraints of teachers' availability at a given place and time to observe and/or reflect. Recordings shared via online platforms allow many teachers to deconstruct and reconstruct a given teaching practice enabling a synergy of "horizontal expertise" (Mtika, Robson & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p.67) in scaffolding a teacher's development. Interestingly, it is not only the teacher whose recording is being discussed that benefits; even viewers also improve on their practice as they "draw multiple connections to their own practice" (Goldman, 2007 as cited in Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013, p.14). The pre-service teacher's account above, of being able to identify a problem with her approach to teaching pronunciation by drawing on the observation of another colleague's lesson, supports this.

Given that it is demanding to view full recordings, teachers may opt for a reviewed, shortened and focus-specific footage. In reviewing the full recording to select bits for reflection, observers develop "selective attention" as they "hone in on [specific] situations" (Seidel et al., 2011, p.260). The reviewed footage then serves as "a stimulus to provide talking points and promote discussion" (Walsh & Mann, 2015, p.359) during reflection.

A challenge to using video is its intrusive nature in the teaching-learning process which can lead to modified behaviour for students. Teachers could make lesson videoing a regular activity so that learners become accustomed to it.

Lesson Study as a Tool for RP

Another tool that enhances data-led RP through "peer lens" with opportunities for collaborative learning and improvement of both self and collective efficacy is lesson study. In lesson study, lesson plans constitute data and act as catalysts for reflection. In this model of RP, teachers plan lessons, observe a member of the group teach the lessons, record evidence of what worked and/or did not work well and use the observational evidence to "co-construct interpretations and responses" (Edwards, 2010, p.153) to problems of practice. The lessons act as a distancing tool during the feedback as the centre of attention is the lesson; not the teacher who taught it.

Lesson study can be done in teacher development groups (as a department or as

critical friends) or in team teaching. In team teaching, two or more teachers plan, teach and evaluate a class together (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Just as in lesson study, experience sharing and reflective dialoguing (Mann & Walsh, 2017) for-action (during the shared-planning) and on-action (after teaching the lesson) is central. Prior to the start of the collaborative venture, it is necessary to establish conditions that ensure the safety of group members so that they feel confident enough to share their thoughts (Richardson, 1997).

Although the “cyclic nature of lesson study allows for systematic refining of lessons” (Jansen, Knippels & van Joolingen, 2021, p.287), it is time consuming especially if the group meets in-person. Also, “cultural expectations of teaching differ depending on the context” (Farrell, 2019, p.42). To mitigate these challenges, teachers should resort to online platforms and restrict group membership to teachers working in the same context.

Students’ Feedback as a Reflective Tool

A third lens for approaching RP is through students (Brookfield, 2017). By asking students to provide feedback on the teaching-learning process, teachers generate data for reflection. Students’ opinions add value to teachers’ reflections. Teachers can rely on input from learners to explore and analyze critical incidents that arise in their classroom, especially those related to learners’ socio-economic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Richards & Farrell, 2011), or to understand their own teaching performance. Kiely & Davis (2010) report that reflecting on and collaboratively analyzing critical incidents help to improve the social and interpersonal climate of the classroom.

I remember being puzzled by my learners’ inability to complete in-class tasks effectively despite their engagement at the lesson delivery stage. Focus group discussions with students helped me to identify that the problem was with the way I gave instructions and failed to monitor as seen in this excerpt of students’ feedback from my reflective journal for an action-research project.

Sometimes, we do not understand the concepts well. We are also confused by the instructions; we are not sure about what to do and if we are doing the exercises correctly or not. We will be more confident doing exercises if you provide examples. If you encourage us too while we do the exercises, we will be sure that we are on track.

A possible limitation to using this tool might be students’ hesitation to provide honest feedback depending on the nature of the issue being addressed. To mitigate this challenge, teachers may opt for anonymous surveys instead of face-to-face interviews or

explain that students' participation will not affect student-teacher relationship.

Reflecting Via Action-Research

Action-research is in itself a reflective process of problem solving which leads to improved practice. It involves systematic data collection, analysis, reflection on findings, implementation of change and possibly another reflection on how effective the changes are. Data can be collected using all of the tools mentioned above. An interesting feature of action-research is that reflections on findings are done by reviewing literature on the problem, what Brookfield (2017) refers to as reflecting via "scholarship lens".

Sowa (2009) recommends including action-research in teacher training curriculum so that pre-service teachers can be equipped to investigate challenges that might arise in their classroom in the future. By collecting data on a given issue, analyzing the data and reviewing related literature, teachers "start reflecting more critically about their practice, particularly with respect to strategies they [use] in the classroom" (Sowa, 2009, p.1031).

My experience supports this view. I remember, while investigating ways of helping my learners to complete in-class activities effectively, how reading and reflecting on literature related to giving and checking instructions and monitoring activities helped me to improve on my practice (as evident in the excerpt below from my reflective journal).

Giving instructions is an art. I really never thought instructions demanded so much time and effort to design. Flashback, I now understand how the routine question (is that clear/do you understand?) I used to ask at the end of my instructions was inappropriate in checking how ready learners were to get on task. It is obvious they really never understood; reason why they almost never completed tasks. It is very clear to me now that the quality of my instructions determines learners' output per task. Moving forward, I will think through my instructions more carefully when designing tasks for my classroom and ensure my instructions are CCCCCD – Clear (use simple language); Concise (short and direct to the point); Checked (use ICQs to check understanding); Chronological (given step-by-step and in an orderly manner); Demonstrated (provide a clear demo/practical example for learners to build on). I used to rush over instructions to allow learners to spend more time doing activities but I just realized that the rush was never worth it because learners never did the right thing.

Levin and Rock (2003) advocate for a collaborative approach to action-research. In a study on the effects of collaborative action-research on pre-service and in-service teacher partners, they report positive benefits for mentor-mentee relationship “focused on critical analysis of teaching and learning rather than simply replicating see-and-do-as-I-do mentoring that often occurs between pre-service and mentor teachers” (p.137). However, they warn that for collaborative action-research to be successful, “attention must be focused on sustained dialogue, shared work and a common mission” (Levin & Rock, 2003, p.147).

In all, the tools discussed above are useful for supporting teachers to become reflective practitioners. I recommend blending two or more tools to allow for compensation of the weaknesses of one tool by the strengths of another, for increased effectiveness of RP. However, like every human venture, RP comes with challenges, which are further compounded by context realities.

Constraints to RP in Difficult Contexts

RP has gained increasing attention in the field of teacher education as a vital tool for teacher development and improving learning outcomes. However, RP implementation can be challenging in difficult contexts. The expression *difficult contexts* connotes West’s (1960) idea of “teaching in difficult circumstances”, a phrase that depicts the realities of most Global South educational contexts – realities which remain largely ignored in mainstream English language teaching discourse. A difficult educational context may be defined as a context in which teachers face multiple barriers such as low wages and limited access to resources.

In this section, I leverage on the literature on teachers’ working conditions in Cameroon, which reflect the realities in most Global South countries, in general, and Sub-Saharan Africa, in particular, to discuss why teachers might find it challenging to engage in RP.

Teachers’ Working Conditions in Difficult Contexts: The Case of Cameroon

Cameroon, like many countries in the Global South, is a low-middle income country. Although issues surrounding teachers’ working conditions and salaries, in particular, are a source of controversy, recurrent strikes suggest low earnings and poor working conditions. In a study on teacher pay in fifteen African countries conducted in 2020, Evans, Yuan and Filmer report that teachers’ monthly salaries are lower than other formal sector workers’ with comparable levels of education and experience.

The World Bank reports that only 53.152% of secondary school teachers in Cameroon were trained as at 2015; trained teachers here refer to those who received pre-

service teacher training required for teaching in Cameroon and who are automatically absorbed into the public service upon graduation. This figure thus corroborates statistics for secondary school teachers who are employed as civil servants. The other closed to 47% of teachers were made up of “contract teachers” (Chudgar, 2015) and those working in private and mission schools, which are on the rise in the country (World Bank, 2018). This short supply, in Cameroon, reflects global realities where the demand for teachers outstrips supply (UIS 2012). Consequently, private schools, which are gaining grounds in the education sector in many developing countries, resort to hiring teachers who have not been trained. Evans, Yuan and Filmer, 2020 note that “although [contract and private teachers’] job responsibilities are similar to those of civil-service teachers, their salaries are typically substantially lower” (pp.8-9). The situation is even worst for those in private schools who, in addition to low earnings, lack job security. Consequently, “teachers often hold a second job [...] and/or offer private tuitions” (Lambert, 2004, pp.3-4) to increase their earnings.

Cognisant of the fact that a large number of teachers are not trained and in a bid to guarantee quality education in both public, private and mission schools, especially in a context where CPD opportunities are very limited, the pedagogic inspectorate of the ministry of secondary education produced harmonized syllabuses and schemes of work to be followed by all teachers across the national territory. This situation reflects realities in other countries where teachers are expected to use harmonized lesson plans or follow a given structure of a “perfect” lesson plan when preparing and delivering lessons.

This brief overview of the situation in Cameroon, with broader applications in similar difficult contexts, raises potential constraints to effective RP implementation.

Context-Related Challenges to RP

The literature above suggests that possible constraints to RP in Cameroon and other similar Global South contexts can be linked to lack of time, skills and organizational structure. These constitute major road blocks on teachers’ journey to becoming reflective practitioners.

The greatest benefits of RP come with consistency. Reflecting consistently requires time and effort and can become “heavily parasitic upon [teachers’] normal working lives” (Allwright, 2005, p.354). In Cameroon, just as in many low resource countries in the Global South, where teachers juggle with workload as they shuttle between two schools and/or private tuition, adding a time commitment for RP to their already busy schedule and other pressures becomes hugely demanding and can lead to teacher burnout (Ibid.). However, a way out for teachers who see RP as an investment in their own CPD is to engage in RP less frequently so that they do not add pressure on themselves and use automated tools to set reminders for RP sessions.

Hierarchical structure, which is firmly established in most Sub-Saharan Africa countries, hinders opportunities for RP. To make up for the shortage of qualified expertise and to upskill “unqualified” teachers, harmonized schemes of work are imposed. These harmonized schemes prepared at the level of the national pedagogic inspectorate and enforced as a must-follow further compound the situation. Pedagogic inspectors visiting schools expect to see every teacher following a fixed lesson structure with some predefined approaches whereas realities vary between urban and rural areas and even within the same district. This routinized “so-must-it-be” pedagogy discourages teachers from reflecting and innovating. However, reflective teachers could take advantage of their margin of control, when inspectors are not around, to try what works best for them and their learners.

Some schools have also instituted a culture of competition, which impedes collaborative reflection among teachers. For example, lesson observations are organised in such a way that they become a source of competition for teachers. The race for who does what best impedes opportunities for learning as observations are geared towards evaluating teachers rather than supporting their professional development. A way out for teachers in such schools, who desire to engage in RP, is to resort to non-judgemental communities of practice out of their immediate school environment.

Another constraint to RP is the lack of know-how. In Cameroon, just as in other difficult contexts, where a good number of teachers are untrained (Chudgar, Chandra, & Razzaque, 2014) and opportunities for CPD are far-fetched, teachers either lack the necessary skills to take on RP or face challenges using reflective tools, especially when doing so individually. A pre-service teacher’s account (below) of her fruitless attempt at using video recording for RP supports this view.

So the video recording was actually a bit problematic. Mm-hmm (..) because the angle that I took the video from was not really good. So (.) I could only see students’ back. I could not see students’ faces in the video (..) it was my mistake. I feel like if I put the camera to face the students, I would have seen their reaction of my lesson and it would have been helpful.

This teacher’s experience shows that although video recording is a powerful reflective tool, it can become meaningless if teachers are not skilled at shooting or editing the clips; hence the need for teachers to be supported with the necessary resources and training. While teachers may need to collaborate with others and cross-learn, they also require the support of education authorities to learn and develop technical skills that go with implementing RP.

Conclusion

This article explains what RP is, why it is important and how teachers can become reflective practitioners. It discusses some tools and practical strategies for engaging in RP but also leverages on the case of Cameroon, while considering broader applications, to raise some challenges to effective RP implementation in difficult contexts. In all, it argues that RP is important for teachers' CPD and for quality teaching. This is why in raising challenges, it also suggests ways of navigating these in difficult contexts. Some of the ways suggested include engaging in RP less frequently but at regular intervals with the help of automated reminders, taking advantage of one's locus of control and collaborating with supportive peers provided they are "open-minded", "responsible" and embrace RP "wholeheartedly" (Dewey, 1933). Although teachers may be perceived as self-agents of their professional development, their ideal self-agency can only glow when they engage with "motivated and motivationally supportive others" (Ushioda, 2003, p.92). It is in interacting with others that teachers learn and develop the necessary skills for effective and meaningful RP.

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