Continuing professional development: key themes in supporting the development of professional practice

Steve Mann¹ and Katie Webb²

1. Introduction

We would like to start with a statement about the importance of CPD. Julian Edge, in a lecture, once said that true teacher development is always a case of ‘becoming’. In other words, a good teacher is always engaged, interested, and collaborative. The process of trying to be a better teacher, to understand learners just a little bit better, to develop materials that work just a little bit more effectively never really stops. If it did, then you might become stale, you might become self-satisfied, you might become disinterested. When you are new to the profession, there is by definition a lot to know, a lot to learn, and a lot to understand. However, the ‘ing’ in becoming and continuing is as important for 60-year olds as it is for 21-year olds. In fact, we believe, from our experiences of ageing, that the older you get, the more important this becomes. This chapter is admittedly personal and reflective, but we hope it can offer a few important touchstones for discussion, engagement, and comment.

In order to make this personal statement and provide a backdrop for the upcoming chapters in which the proPIC project³ is the focus, in this introduction we consider five different dimensions of CPD (see Figure 1) that we believe are crucial to its effectiveness. CPD is ongoing in its efforts to promote professional

1. Warwick University, Coventry, England; steve.mann@warwick.ac.uk; https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6347-1614
2. Warwick University, Coventry England; katie.louise.webb@gmail.com; https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9068-5781

learning and standards, and it fosters innovation, collaboration, and reflection. What follows is an attempt to make clear the value of the five dimensions. This chapter develops and extends arguments about CPD already made in Mann (2021) and some ground that was covered in Edge and Mann (2013).

Figure 1. The five dimensions of CPD

![The five dimensions of CPD](image)

The first key dimension of CPD is that it should be systematic and ideally it needs to be introduced and fostered during pre-service teacher education. The second dimension is that CPD is usually more effective and valuable if it is collaborative. The third feature of CPD is that innovation is at its heart, but innovation is not applying others’ new ideas; it is transformative, seeing innovation as something which starts with or at least involves practitioners. The fourth dimension is that Reflective Practice (RP) is essential and supports the first three dimensions mentioned above. The final dimension is that digital literacy and the appreciation of digital tools and platforms are now both inevitable and an integral dimension in the delivery and support of good quality CPD. This has been intensified and brought into sharp focus by COVID-19 which has turbocharged the necessity of digital options and practice.

2. **CPD**

Mann’s (2005) article on teacher development for the Language Teaching Journal was a chance to take stock of those elements of professional development that were at the heart of the literature. We looked back on this and considered
what is still the same and what is different today. Certainly, the sociocultural perspective, recognising the importance of context, and situated learning has become orthodox. The ideas of Prabhu (1990) and others (see Canagarajah, 2005; Holliday, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2001) have prevailed, and it is now common knowledge that there is no such thing as a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach to teacher education or development. Perhaps the one area that seems different is the role that digital technology now plays in our practice and professional development because of its ubiquitous nature.

Today, teachers and stakeholders involved in teacher education recognise the importance of teachers’ CPD. In theoretical terms, this has resulted in greater attention in the literature on the learning and teaching process and how this can best be supported. In practical terms, this means enabling teaching to continuously learn while they work (Mann, 2005). As evidenced by research, it is now understood that teachers’ classroom practices are shaped by their beliefs about teaching (Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012). That is to say, the decisions and actions of teachers in classrooms are influenced by their beliefs. Through CPD, teachers are exposed to new ideas and recent developments in the education field (Mann, 2021). As such, it is essential to ensure teachers’ CPD experiences are positive because then it is more likely that they will want to continue to learn and try new things out in their classrooms (Mann, 2021).

Because of the demands of society, a great deal of attention has been paid to ensuring good quality education. Student learning gains are often seen as evidence of quality education (Mann, 2021). Because effective CPD can positively impact learning gains, it is, internationally, viewed as vital (Joyce & Showers, 2002) and seen by many as one of the best ways to improve the quality of teaching (Hayes, 2019). Many teachers who engage in CPD are more committed to the profession and to developing and extending their teaching skills (Day & Leitch, 2007). In addition, CPD can positively impact how teachers view themselves and their self-worth (Mann, 2021). The importance of ensuring CPD is designed in an effective way, is viewed positively by teachers, and functions to facilitate teachers’ learning gains, is essential (Hayes, 2019). Yet, many CPD and In-Service Training Day (INSET) initiatives fail to do this. This is often because
teachers’ needs are not understood or taken into consideration by those designing the programmes (Borg, 2015b).

As we can see from the paragraph above, CPD for teachers has received a great deal of attention in the literature (see Hayes, 2019 for an overview). In particular, there has been a significant focus on teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning as this affects their decision to engage in CPD. Simon Borg has led the effort on this work (e.g. Borg, 2015a), but there have been other important contributions (e.g. De Vries, van de Grift, & Jansen, 2014) that have explored how teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching relate to their CPD. However, other advocates (Hayes, 2019; Maley, 2016; Prabhu, 1990) believe that good quality CPD means more than just exploring beliefs. While there has been much research into teachers’ beliefs, very little has been published regarding the application of those beliefs to classroom practices. We have known for some time that espoused beliefs are not the same as beliefs in action (Argyris & Schön, 1980; Kane, Sandetto, & Heath, 2002; Kaymakamoglu, 2018). In simple terms, what a teacher says they do may not be the same as what they actually do. Stance, positioning, and identity are complex, and one aspect of our identity which may be foregrounded in an interview may not be so evident in classroom observation of more ethnographic data (Richards, 2003). This has implications for researching CPD as well.

3. Established good practices for CPD

Having provided some background on the topic of CPD, this section offers a summary of accepted good practices in promoting and supporting CPD, which has been drawn from Borg (2015a), Mann and Walsh (2017), Bates and Morgan (2018), Hayes (2019), and Walsh and Mann (2019).

It is crucial that transmissive and top-down approaches to CPD be avoided. Although a focus on content is vital because it “anchors everything” (Bates & Morgan, 2018, p. 623), it is essential that time is allocated for “collaboration, peer-talk, and connecting theory and input to classroom events
and experiences” (Mann, 2021, p. 23). A didactic model “in which facilitators simply tell teachers what to do or give them materials without providing them opportunities to develop skills and inquire into their impact on pupil learning is not effective” (Cordingley et al., 2015, p. 8). When such approaches are avoided, trainers can focus on connecting input and tasks to teachers’ context (Moon, 2001) with a view to bridging the gap between practice and theory (Wallace & Bau, 1991). This is important because the theory that teachers are presented with needs to be connected to their practice in a way that is visible and pragmatic (Edge & Richards, 1993). To establish a fuller understanding of an innovative professional practice (Hayes, 2014) and help cement this connection in CPD processes, opportunities for teachers to practise skills in a positive environment (perhaps through tasks or microteaching) should be created (Mann, 2021). New knowledge then needs to be linked to existing experiences, beliefs, and “personal theories” (James, 2001, p. 4) because this can help to ensure the content of a CPD course is relevant to teachers’ actual roles (Weston, Hindley, & Cunningham, 2019).

CPD is stronger when it is example based and data-led (Mann & Walsh, 2017). To achieve this, vignettes, narratives, learner-feedback, transcripts, real teaching materials, demonstration lessons, peer observations, case studies of teaching, and videos can be included (Mann, 2021). In terms of the latter, short videos are preferred by teachers than whole lessons (see Mann et al., 2019). When teachers participate in the synchronous process, interactions need to be engaging (Mann, 2021). In addition, there should be further opportunity for follow-up reflection and communication between teachers (Wright & Bolitho, 2007). Approaches to professional learning, irrespective of how active, are only sufficient if they are sustained and reviewed (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Furthermore, CPD that is designed from the top-down is often limited in regard to its impact in the long term (see Joyce & Showers, 2002; Wedell, 2009). To put it another way, CPD is more effective when it is continuous and ongoing (Weston et al., 2019) and not one-off by design (Wedell, 2009). It can also be more successful if trainers, mentors, e-moderators, or coaches are supportive and encouraging (Lamb, 1995). One way this can be done is through the use of e-portfolios. Creating a collaborative or individual teacher (educator) e-portfolio is a possible way to
make CPD more sustainable (see Gulzar & Barrett, 2019). Another way to make CPD sustainable is through collaborative reflection, as was used in the proPIC project4.

An environment in which teachers are positioned as active participants in the learning process is also essential for effective CPD. To do this, learner data and classroom materials can be examined. In addition, it means helping teachers “grapple with aspects of practice (rather than prioritising theory and conceptual information)” (Mann, 2021, p. 23). Within such an environment, opportunities for sharing teacher knowledge can be created (Freeman, 2002). What teachers already know and believe will filter new information and thus needs to be acknowledged, otherwise it will form a basis of resistance. When teachers work in such a way, they establish what Desimone (2011) calls an “interactive learning community” (p. 69). Teachers are more likely to have positive experiences when a social environment is established where interaction is central and positive relationships are fostered (Hadfield, 1992; Moon, 2001). Creating an atmosphere where trusting relationships are built “is instrumental to creating a support group that works together to solve problems of practice” (Bates & Morgan, 2018, p. 624). When this is achieved, teachers will be more likely to discuss and address instructional issues or dilemmas with one another (Mann, 2021).

CPD also works better when teachers have the chance to engage and interact collaboratively. Collaboration is necessary, but not sufficient (Cordingley et al., 2015) unless it is “closely aligned with structured input and appropriate and achievable goals” (Mann, 2021, p. 23).

While there is no one-size-fits-all approach to CPD, as we have highlighted above, and as a number of important reviews have shown (see for example, Broad & Evans, 2006; Orr et al., 2013; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2008), good practices for CPD have been identified. As is evident from these practices, when designing CPD, the teachers and the constraints of a particular context must be considered. This is something we feel is extremely important and is something

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we want to reiterate to the reader before we move onto detailing and providing examples of the five dimensions of CPD that we consider core to effectiveness.

### 3.1. Systematic

CPD processes need to be structured, wide-ranging, and systematic. Evidence from Allier-Gagneur, McBurnie, Chuang, and Haßler (2020) highlight that ‘effective teacher education programmes’ are systematic. They argue that both face-to-face and online versions should concentrate on pupil learning outcomes; involve effective teaching practices using modelling; acknowledge teachers’ existing knowledge, views, and experiences; and create opportunities for teachers to build on this existing knowledge (Mann, 2021). In addition, they argue for the development of practical subject pedagogy instead of theoretical general pedagogy and on “empowering teachers to become reflective practitioners” (Mann, 2021, p. 22). CPD should be designed in a way that it can be trialled and refined (see also Hayes, 2019). It is more effective when it involves peer-to-peer support and engagement and aims to motivate teachers (see Lamb & Wyatt, 2019). Embedded forms of CPD, in which teachers learn in their own contexts, are better (Allier-Gagneur et al., 2020; Borg, 2015a; Walsh, 2002). CPD is also more successful when it is supported by teachers’ institutions and ministries of education and when there are clear policies in place to ensure it runs systematically (Mann, 2021).

One example of an attempt to channel teacher CPD through a workable framework that is adaptive enough to serve the above requirements is the British Council’s (2016) Teaching for Success approach. The approach is structured around a unique CPD framework for teachers, teacher educators, and school leaders. Drawing on Evans (2002), the initial trials of the teacher framework reported in Bolitho and Padwad (2013), and the studies into English language teaching reported in Hayes (2014), the Teaching for Success framework divides teaching into 12 core professional practices representing the ‘content’ of teachers’ knowledge (see Figure 2). It provides levels of attainment that map onto qualifications as well as descriptions of competency described as awareness, understanding, engagement, and integration, and to various levels
of professional qualifications. As a ‘legacy’ of the implementation of an earlier model within language teaching contexts, the framework indicates levels of attainment in the Common European Framework of Reference for language (CEFR) scheme for competency in a foreign language.

Figure 2. Teaching for Success framework (British Council, 2019, p. 5)

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The Teaching for Success framework has been successfully implemented in a range of contexts. For instance, as part of a larger ambitious educational reform programme, the Teaching for Success framework acted as conceptual grounding and a catalyst in establishing and improving teacher practices in Montenegro (Madzgalj & Kandybovich, 2018). The framework has been also proactively used in Armenia in recent years by the British Council Armenia office for developing and offering teacher development opportunities to English language teachers nationwide and has received positive reviews by the teachers. In addition, blended learning materials based on the Teaching for Success framework were evaluated very positively in a project for teachers in occupied Palestinian territories and particularly for teachers of English (British Council, 2019).

By utilising a framework such as the one above, teachers and teacher educators can map stages of development, identify needs, and decide on activities to engage in to develop the skills relevant to meeting these needs. When utilised to this effect, they can provide the pathways to achieve improvement in teaching and learning and, in turn, ensure that practice in the classroom demonstrates new professional learning and contributes to improved learning outcomes. That is to say, frameworks can help to ensure CPD is systematic. These lines of argument are similarly made by Oesterle and Schwab (2022) in Chapter 2 this volume, in which they offer a framework of CPD in the form of a multimodal online handbook that includes various linked documents and other external online resources.

3.2. Collaborative

Evidence shows that top-down approaches are less effective than programmes which are constructivist, dialogic, and actively include sharing between teachers (see Mann & Walsh, 2017). Wyatt and Dikilitaş (2016) show that engaging teachers in more constructivist CPD positions them as knowledge generators and makes them more likely to engage in research and gain deeper practical knowledge. Furthermore, when CPD is done collaboratively, it fosters an environment of openness, trust, and support among teachers, which facilitates the
sharing of ideas, doubts, and difficulties (Forte & Flores, 2014). Collaborative CPD takes many forms, including team teaching; collaborative planning; peer coaching, mentoring and observation; collaborative project writing; and Co-operative Development (CD). While the context that teachers are working in may make one of these forms more appropriate than another, it is important that collaborative CPD is a bottom-up, teacher-led process, as this can help promote professional learning (Mann & Walsh, 2017). In other words, collaborative CPD is best when teachers in their own contexts decide how to work with one another (Desimone, 2011).

One type of collaborative CPD that we both have experience with is CD. CD typically involves two or more teachers meeting to develop a line of thought or argument, with a view to reflecting on and improving their individual professional practices (Edge, 2002). In CD meetings, one teacher takes on the role of ‘Speaker’ and the other of ‘Understander’ (Mann, 2002). The Speaker’s role involves talking “through an idea or a personal concern” (Mann, 2002, p. 197), while the Understander’s role is to remain non-judgemental and avoid giving advice or steering the talk towards their own agenda but instead to listen and assist the Speaker in articulating their own ideas as they clarify and discover where they lead (Edge, 1992). As the Speaker works on their own development (Edge & Attia, 2014), the Understander supports them by using a number of what are called ‘Understander moves’ (see Edge, 1992 for the CD framework). In this way, the impetus for development arises from the Speaker themselves through the support of the Understander.

CD has been established as a viable option for collaborative CPD and can be operationalised in a number of ways (see Mann, 2002 for group development; Edge, 2006 for CD via email; Boon, 2005 for instant messenger CD; Webb, Mann, & Aqili-Shafie, 2022 for videoconferencing-mediated CD). It has been shown to enable teachers to achieve a greater awareness of their own strengths and skills and to support positive changes in teaching (Webb et al., 2022). For some text-based and video examples of CD, Edge’s CD website7 is a great

resource. Positive changes in teaching can also be brought about through peer observation, which is another type of collaborative CPD.

Although most teachers have, at some point in their careers, been observed, this is typically for assessment and/or appraisal purposes. Peer observation for development differs fundamentally from traditional types of observation because it is a non-judgemental, freestanding procedure that enables teachers to research areas of their choice (Mann, 2005). That is to say, it is not premised on the idea that the teacher being observed can be ‘developed’ by acting on or taking into consideration the suggestions of the observer (Webb, 2020). While there is a wide variety of models that teachers can adopt when engaging in peer observation (see Cosh, 1999; Freeman, 1982; Gosling, 2015), it is vital that there is mutual trust and respect among peers (Ahmed, Nordin, Shah, & Channa, 2018; Gosling, 2002; P’Rayan, 2013; Wang & Day, 2001) and that teachers are able to choose their partners (Carroll & O’Loughlin, 2013). Furthermore, because the most widespread use of observation is for the purpose of evaluation, teachers should be given the opportunity to engage in discussions that expose them to the type of developmental and/or reflective talk that the observations are aiming to promote (Webb, 2020).

Although research has yet to ascertain what, if any, benefit exists between peer observation and student learning/achievement (Donnelly, 2007; Gosling, 2015), teachers report that the process is useful for “self-assessment and improvement of teaching skills” (Donnelly, 2007, p. 127). While this may also be true with traditional types of observation, the collaborative element is important because teachers who engage in peer observation practice new skills and apply new strategies more frequently than colleagues who work alone (Showers & Joyce, 1996). Much like the case with CD, peer observation has a positive impact on camaraderie and collegiality (Atkinson & Bolt, 2010; Hamilton, 2013). Furthermore, it can be organised by teachers themselves, meaning that the teachers are centrally involved in decisions about the content and process of CPD, while being supported by the schools or education systems in which they work. When done in this way, CPD can achieve positive and sustained impacts on teachers (see Borg, 2015a).
Other forms of collaborative CPD are also valued by teachers themselves. For example, there has been a lot of recent attention on the benefits of Teacher Activity Groups (TAGs). The benefits of this kind of collaborative CPD are thus multifaceted (Borg, Lightfoot, & Gholkar, 2020). Through collaborative practices, teachers work together proactively to reflect on and respond to local problems, which, in turn, can enhance learning and promote collegiality. Communities of Practice (CoPs), TAGs, and Teacher Study Groups (TSGs) can have a positive impact on student learning gains (see Firestone, Cruz, & Rodl, 2020 for a fuller review) because teachers “work collaboratively on issues of contextual relevance, reflect on affordances and constraints and develop action plans to work towards solutions and innovation” (Mann, 2021, p. 24). This, in turn, promotes critical reflection among teachers and increases their agency (McAleavy, Hall-Chen, Horrocks, & Riggall, 2018).

TAGs and TSGs can be seen as forms of CoP. Internationally, CoPs are now viewed as a practical and efficient option for CPD (e.g. Al-Habsi, Al-Busaidi, & Al-Issa, 2021). People involved in CoPs “share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly” (Wenger, 2011, p. 1). The concept has been extensively embraced by professional groups of various kinds within language teacher education for various reasons (Hayes, 2019). For example, practising teachers involved in a CoP may be focused on classroom related issues and improving their practice. Teacher trainers, on the other hand, could be focused on feedback and want to learn how to provide it more efficiently. The CoP then would provide a place in these instances for teachers to share and discuss collaboratively. They afford the opportunity for professional development, while providing a space for teachers to engage socially and provide emotional support to one another (Mann, 2021).

3.3. Innovative

We believe that innovation is a key element of CPD goals and processes. When we talk about innovation, however, we usually think about new innovations which someone else (e.g. companies such as Sony, Apple, Cambridge English)
makes available to us. However, in CPD terms, the powerful way to think about innovation is that it starts with or at least involves the practitioner. This view of CPD as an innovative process is reflexively tied to context and it is worth making some points about the importance of keeping a constant connection between innovation and context.

Innovations are not easily generalisable, because each context has its own constraints, affordances, and dynamics. This is something that Adrian Holliday recognised in his influential book on appropriate methodology’ (Holliday, 1994). There is no point in adopting a ‘best method’ or ‘innovation’ from some organisation or expert if the context in which it is being used has not been considered. As was highlighted in Edge and Mann (2014), this means that:

“an in-depth appraisal of the context is vital before introducing an innovation. The ‘hybrid model’ (Henrichsen, 1989) provides a useful system for identifying contextual factors likely to facilitate or hinder the change process and this gives us a good start in responding to Holliday’s call for the recognition of the importance of a detailed, ethnomethodological understanding of the innovation situation in making judgements of appropriacy” (p. 38).

It is practitioners who have that detailed up-close understanding of a teaching context (both constraints and affordances).

When we strive for appropriate methodology in terms of what we aim for our teacher trainers to achieve, we move away from the idea of generalised ‘best practice’ towards ‘praxis’. This is essentially where we are situated, functioning in a ‘post-method condition’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). In such a context, there needs to:

“be a renewed and corresponding recognition of the importance of situated learning and appropriate methodology. In order for appropriate and situated methodology and learning to happen, tools need to be sufficiently flexible that they can be tailored to specific contexts and
facilitate the kind of up-close professional understanding that CPD was originally designed to foster” (Edge & Mann, 2014, p. 36).

For example, Kurtoğlu-Hooton (2013) shows how innovative tools enable close-up and data-led attention to teaching and CPD potential. Furthermore, teachers need to develop a healthy degree of scepticism towards so called ‘best practice’ and more importantly, they need to be positioned as innovators and problem solvers.

In 2013, Edge and Mann published a book on innovation in teacher education. One of the key concepts was that a new idea is not the same as an innovation (Edge & Mann, 2013). To be considered an innovation, an action needs to have been taken. We argued that to be truly innovative as practitioners we must concentrate on the process, engage in ongoing self-evaluation and reflection and pay attention to “how we teach or train as to which topics get covered along the way, or the tools that we employ” (Mann & Edge, 2013, p. 5). For this reason, we requested that contributors outline the steps and details of how they introduced, implemented, and evaluated their innovations (Mann & Edge, 2013). For instance, Samb’s (2013) article in the book on formative assessment would not be considered by many as a new idea. However, in the Senegal context it is an innovation (Mann, 2013). Similarly, Lesley Dick’s (2013) work (see Edge & Mann, 2013) would not be seen as revolutionary. Many trainers and teacher educators have used ‘top tips’ with their trainees. What makes this an innovation is that Dick’s top tips are formulated from trainee led discussions (Mann, 2013). Each time Dick (2013) works with a new group the tips are re-examined and renewed and this gives the feeling that the reflective process of stepping back has become embedded in the task itself. For Dick (2013): “I have used top tips in input sessions and in teaching practice feedback sessions for years but have never really taken a step back and queried why it worked and what it did” (p. 143). Of course, teacher educators can provide top tips, frameworks, models, and examples of good practice. However, at the same time, novice teachers need to be critical and prepared to adapt. Above all, in relation to CPD, they need to be realistic and sensitive to implementation and innovation in their context.
Above, we have highlighted that innovations are not the same as ideas; here, we wish to draw on the Japanese concept of ‘kaizen’, as we believe it is useful in understanding the kind of innovation that we should be promoting in our work as teacher educators. Kaizen is a Japanese management and business philosophy. It can be translated as kai (‘change’) and zen (‘good’) and together it has a metaphorical meaning of ‘continuous improvement’ and so is very close to the CPD concept (Mann, 2013). The objective of promoting kaizen is to involve and empower all workers in continuously improving the workplace in order to make it more efficient (Mann, 2013). Edge and Mann (2014, p. 40) argue that if we apply the same concept to CPD we can focus on the following:

- the practice of continuous quality improvement within one’s teaching;
- innovation is based on many small changes rather than radical changes;
- ideas for change and improvement come from teachers and students themselves; [and]
- teachers take ownership for their work and related improvements.

We believe that focusing on innovation in CPD in this way can be powerful. As many teachers and teacher educators will know, it is not often practical or realistic to make big changes. Furthermore, it is not necessary. Making much smaller changes and adjustments can have a big impact on quality (Edge & Mann, 2014, p. 40). In fact, Jane Willis, (personal correspondence) once highlighted the significance of small tweaks in task-based learning and teaching. These small tweaks and adjustments are forefronted in kaizen as they can have a big future impact (Edge & Mann, 2014).

### 3.4. Reflective

We have already stated that a teacher becomes an active learner only by trying new things in the classroom as this creates an opportunity for reflection. This is important because RP is essential to teacher development (Farrell, 2019; Mann
Teachers learn about their own practice by systematically reflecting on their experiences (Richards & Farrell, 2005). While the latter has been known for some time, questions still remain over how opportunities for reflection can be systematically provided. In the words of Bailey and Springer (2013), developing “programmatically feasible forms of support for reflective practices that do not detract from a sense of personal initiative, autonomous choice, and ownership by teachers” (p. 120) is challenging. Yet, this is not the only challenge because transmissive styles of education, which were once prevalent, may have made it so that teachers are unfamiliar with reflecting in explicit ways (Mann & Walsh, 2017). In fact, in our experience, we have found that reflection can be difficult to get used to for both novice and experienced teachers. Thus, reflection needs to be appropriately operationalised and it needs to be supported and scaffolded. This is particularly important for novice teachers in pre-service teaching programmes. They need to understand that real reflection and not pseudo reflection (Hobbs, 2007) is an important part of their ongoing CPD. Therefore, before detailing some of the operational aspects of reflection for CPD, we think it is important to make clear that we believe that “reflection is a skill that should be fostered from the beginning of the learning-to-teach process” (Lee, 2007, p. 321). That is to say, it should happen in pre-service preparation programmes and is not only something in-service teachers should be encouraged to do. To highlight the importance of this, we would like to return to our earlier point about ‘becoming’ and ‘continuing’. If teachers are familiarised with reflection from the beginning of their careers, then it is much more likely that they will understand the benefits of reflection, which, in turn, will increase the likelihood that they engage in it for their continuing development. Furthermore, proving this opportunity early on will enhance understanding of “what reflection is and how it might be enhanced for maximum effect” (Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2005, p. 222). Russell Stannard provides an example of how screen-capture can be used to foster reflection in this video.

As mentioned above, embedding reflective elements in CPD can be challenging as it requires flexibility. If teachers are forced from the top-down to engage in

8. https://vilte.warwick.ac.uk/items/show/33
reflection in a prescribed manner, then it is likely that it will become a chore and the result will be superficial engagement and/or inauthentic reflection (Mann & Walsh, 2017). Furthermore, not all tools are sufficiently orientated to a teacher’s particular contextual needs. As such, when possible, teachers should be given agency over the tools that they use to reflect. Some of the main reflective tools used to encourage and facilitate reflection are discussion (including teacher discussion groups and post-observation conferences), journal writing, classroom observations, video analysis, and action research (see Farrell, 2016 full range of reflective tools).

Giving teachers ownership over the way they engage in RP can help to ensure that it serves as a means for improving teaching and aiding teachers’ professional development. However, when teachers reflect on their own, they face no challenges to their thinking and therefore their reflections can be superficial or shallow (Day, 1993). For this reason, we take the position that reflection is more effective when it is done collaboratively. As highlighted above, collaboration facilitates “new understandings to emerge, current practices to be questioned and alternatives to be explored” (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 190). It is also more effective when it is data-led and systematic.

Data-led reflection requires some kind of evidence. This does not have to be evidence from hours and hours of observation or weeks of research. In fact, the kind of data-led reflection we are proposing is “small-scale, localised, context-specific, and private, and conducted by teachers for their own ends” (Walsh & Mann, 2015, p. 354). One of the emerging and promising areas of developing RP is the use of e-portfolios (see also Cuesta, Batlle, González, & Pujolà, 2022, Chapter 7 this volume). In fact, this has the capacity to develop reflection and our next dimension, digital skills. Developing as a professional requires a lifelong commitment to learning and research (Day, 1999) and a portfolio approach to working with novice teachers helps with professional identity building and improvement of reflective skills. It provides a space for pre-service teachers to develop and document good teaching practices and innovation. It also encourages them to make connections between theory and applications, and to sustain professional networks and CoPs beyond the immediate education
programme (see Gulzar & Barrett, 2019). Embedding tools like e-portfolios and CD helps foster reflection as an essential part of CPD. These tools also make evident that inquiry and reflection are valued as central professional learning processes by those organising CPD. This, as highlighted by Borg (2015a), can ensure that CPD achieves positive and sustained impacts on teachers, learners, and organisations.

3.5. Digital

Integration of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is an important element of most recent approaches to CPD. ICT can help to shift the power, control, and agency to the teacher to make decisions about where to place their focus, and improve the inclusivity of professional development (Lightfoot, 2019). It can also make CPD more accessible, as it is not “constrained to a particular time or place” (Ally, Grimus, & Ebner, 2014, p. 48). To put it another way, it can facilitate the type of CPD that we have been promoting throughout this chapter, in the sense of being “site-based” and “self-directed” (Gaible & Burns, 2005, p. 15f.). Over the last few decades, as the world has become ever increasingly digitised, it has become more important to integrate technology in teacher education and development programmes. This is because exposing teachers to such technology will have the impact of improving their digital literacy, which, in turn, can facilitate effective use of technology with learners (Ally et al., 2014).

While there is a large variety of tools (e.g. e-portfolios, blogs, videos) and platforms (e.g. online, mobile, social media) that can be used in the delivery and support of good quality CPD, geographic factors and resources will need to be taken into consideration when deciding which is most suitable for a particular context. In higher resource contexts, there will be a greater opportunity to maximise those that are more complex and that require higher bandwidth whereas in lower resource contexts, the options will be more limited (Lightfoot, 2019). In terms of higher resource contexts, later in this book, in Chapter 7 this volume, Cuesta et al. (2022) discuss how interactive portfolios can be used as learning tools with prospective teachers in higher education institutions. In
terms of the way digital tools can be utilised successfully in under-resourced and remote areas, Motteram, Adi, N’goran, and Dawson (2021) and the TATE (Technology Assisted Teacher Education) project are prime examples. In a series of schemes run under the TATE project, WhatsApp has been used to engage teachers, in different geographical areas, including Benin, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire (see Motteram & Dawson, 2019), and Jordan (see Motteram, Dawson, & Al-Masri, 2020) in developmental activities. As can be seen from the excerpt below (Table 1), teachers often use the chats to discuss issues they are facing in their classrooms.

Table 1. WhatsApp chat: Syrian teachers discussing a common classroom issue (Motteram et al., 2020, p. 5742)

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<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>User</th>
<th>Message</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>18:56</td>
<td>ML</td>
<td>I have many levels in one class. How I can help the weak students without effect the good students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:01</td>
<td>ML</td>
<td>Some students don’t know even the letters and some of them don’t know the tenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:02</td>
<td>ML</td>
<td>Reported speech for example.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:04</td>
<td>GY</td>
<td>So some are beginners and some have some language, is that what you mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:11</td>
<td>QM</td>
<td>I think we need more than one way to deal with that problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:17</td>
<td>ML</td>
<td>I tried to give the weak students supporting lessons to explain the tense at the beginning then referred it to reported speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:17</td>
<td>QM</td>
<td>We have to divide them and give every group what they need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04/05/2017</td>
<td>19:19</td>
<td>ML</td>
<td>I did it but the good students were not satisfied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As well as providing a space for teachers to expand their pedagogical content knowledge (Motteram et al., 2020), WhatsApp can connect teachers to a wider network who otherwise might be geographically isolated. Of course, there are many more examples of the ways in which digital tools can be incorporated to serve developmental purposes. For advice, activities, courses, and developing engaging materials, we recommend Peachey (2016, 2017).
One specific tool for CPD that we would like to focus on is the inclusion of video for classroom observation (e.g. Schwab, 2020). This allows for demonstration of real-life situations, provides time for practice and feedback, and can provide ongoing opportunities for follow-up and coaching. When using video in this way, teachers can either watch videos of their own classes or those of others. The benefits of having teachers watch video-recordings of their own lessons is that it provides the opportunity for them to examine different aspects of their teaching (Lofthouse & Birmingham, 2010) and thus can act “as a stimulus for critical reflection” (Orlova, 2009, p. 30). It also enables them to identify any strengths and weaknesses in their teaching (Rich, Recesso, Allexsaht-Snider, & Hannafin, 2007; Tripp, 2009; Wu & Kao, 2008). The advantage of using a video of another teacher (rather than looking at oneself) is that the focus of attention is taken away from one’s own pre-occupations and concerns.

When the focus is not on oneself and the teachers plan to meet up with others to discuss their observations (which given the above is unsurprising to find that we recommend), then it will be important to use a framework or checklist to focus the discussion and ensure the discourse is non-judgemental. This can have the benefit of being both collaborative and systematic. For example, the use of a framework such as Steve Walsh’s SETT framework (Walsh, 2019) has the capacity to focus attention on a range of classroom interactive behaviours. The process builds awareness of classroom competence (e.g. giving instructions and feedback, and developing rapport). Used in conjunction with a digital tool such as VEO9 (Seedhouse, 2021) or Swivl10 (see Oesterle & Schwab, 2022, Chapter 2 this volume), pairs or groups can explore their own efforts in the classroom. Our experience suggests that it is often challenging for novice teachers to find the balance between their talk (teacher talking time), wait time, and other talk types. One of the challenges for teachers is developing sensitivity to both encouraging talking and allowing for silence. Navigating giving instructions, eliciting language and asking questions is not an easy matter, and video can certainly help build greater awareness of classroom options.

9. https://veo.co.uk/
The use of digital video can also provide concrete examples of instructional practices that avoid much of the ambiguity of written descriptions (see Masats & Dooly, 2011). A video extract is not just a ‘model’ but can provide a strong stimulus for discussion and associated reflective thought for viewers. Hiebert and Hollingsworth (2002) also argue that the educational community lacks a shared language for describing aspects of teaching and that video has a particular role to play here. For example, key phrases such as ‘problem-solving’ or ‘language experience’ often mean different things to different teachers. Videotapes of lessons therefore offer the possibility of pinning down aspects of classroom experience so that the teacher has a clearer frame of reference and can therefore be more specific about their own actions and intentions. Video extracts also offer the possibility of co-constructing knowledge through interpretation (see Mann et al., 2019 for more examples from the Video in Language Teacher Education project[11]).

4. Conclusion

In this article we have argued that in order to ensure that CPD is effective and valued, it should be systematic, collaborative, innovative, reflective, and digital. For each dimension, we have given several concrete examples to illustrate the kind of CPD that we are arguing it is necessary to promote. Our decision to include more than one option under each dimension is key to the ethos of this and subsequent chapters. Flexibility over the tools and platforms used for CPD and the way in which CPD is organised and carried out allows for it to be tailored to the specific local, national, or international contexts in which it is happening, and thus to facilitate the kind of up-close professional understanding that it is fundamentally aiming to foster. We have reiterated the idea that when possible, teachers should be given the choice over the way they engage in CPD, and stated that it should be a collective enterprise that is supported by schools and educational systems. When done in this way, we believe that teachers are more likely to have positive perceptions of CPD and that it will therefore have

[11] https://vilte.warwick.ac.uk/
a greater chance of becoming an ongoing process rather than a periodic event. This, in turn, will increase the likelihood of CPD having a sustained impact on the teachers themselves, the learners they work with, and the organisations in which they work.

5. **Key resources**

The British Council has lots of CPD publications, resources, and links (including their influential CPD framework – [https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/](https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/)).

Simon Borg maintains a blog which is full of relevant links and comments to issues in CPD ([http://simon-borg.co.uk/](http://simon-borg.co.uk/)).

University of Warwick maintains two CPD resources with links, videos, and publications ([https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/research/vilte/resources/](https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/research/vilte/resources/) – [https://vilte.warwick.ac.uk/](https://vilte.warwick.ac.uk/)).

**References**


Chapter 1


Chapter 1


