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Using the Johari Window Model to understand ‘the role of evidence’ to actively support reflection among teaching practitioners in higher education

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides an exploration of the Johari Window Model, and its alignment with ‘evidence’ which is scrutinised and utilised for reflection and training educators within higher education settings. In this paper, the nature of evidence is explored through the lens of the Johari Window Model, which enables us as a community of educators to ascertain knowledge (as evidence) both known and unknown by others and ourselves. In literature, the concept of evidence (as an artefact) is often under-reported in terms of its significance, relationship to truth and impact. Collecting and making sense of evidence is often an important pre-requisite for academic practice, especially as it serves as a means of recognition for attaining accredited qualifications. Due to the need to complete these qualifications in a timely manner, we often fail to probe the accompanying evidence deeply enough, nor truly appraise it and query what it reveals about our practice and our private selves. The ‘window’ acts as a lens through which we can view various forms of evidence used in faculty development, with a view to encouraging others to make better use of evidence to honestly and openly reflect on their taught practice.

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Introduction

Understanding evidence

In this paper, the evidence that informs how teaching practitioners in higher education showcase their professional development and success is conceptually analysed in relation to the Johari Window Model. Evidence is often used to demonstrate attainment and continual professional development in faculty development¹ (for example Advance HE, UK). The central argument being made here is that, depending on the types of evidence available and the way in which they are utilised, certain sections of the window open up and expose individuals in various ways. The Johari Window Model (also referred to as the window in this paper for brevity) potentially operates as a framework to both judge types of evidence, explore its utility and ensure it is more meaningful. By contemplating how this is achieved, education practitioners are being invited to develop a more conscious approach and attitude to evidence and further investigate how they actively demonstrate their professional practice and ensuing development.

It has previously been argued that taught practice relies too heavily on intuition and tradition and, where there is limited empirical verification (or evidence), the resultant outcome is often poor teaching (Van Der Vleuten et al., 2000). Thus, evidence is essential for making judgments on taught practice. In this introductory section, evidence is defined, especially in relation to how it is made use of in faculty development. Conceptually, evidence is often regarded as definitive proof of something. Increasingly in faculty development, and in order to receive a qualification to teach in higher education, a standard requirement of evidence that showcases practice and supports claims by an individual is generally needed when applications undergo (internal) assessment for external validation (Newton et al., 2020). In its broadest sense and according to the Oxford dictionary, evidence is defined as ‘anything that establishes a fact or gives reason for believing something’. Generally speaking, evidence is construed as authentic, reliable and valid information.

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It can be used to support a particular idea or conclusion and can be contained within artefacts, observable actions and products (Sim et al., 2012). These collective ideas should hold true for any given situation. However, submitted evidence is also time sensitive and depends upon what an individual is thinking of and feeling at a particular time (Feldman, 2020); hence evidence could be considered weak or strong and consequently be enough or inadequate in providing the proof needed. Furthermore, making constructive use of evidence stems from having confidence in it and knowing how that confidence is invested (Neta, 2008). This effectively means that having confidence in evidential proof is something of a value-based judgement – evidence is considered meaningful or meaningless to the individual involved. Taking all these ideas together results in a more complex picture emerging of notions of evidence and ultimately affects how to engage with it. The notion of evidence as it is referred to in faculty development can be and usually is varied in terms of both breadth and depth with often several different artefacts being considered permissible in fulfilling course requirements (Guskey, 2002; King, 2013; Winberg & Pallitt, 2016; Wray, 2007). The type of evidence that we seek, how we go about seeking it, and how that evidence can be used more meaningfully to develop our taught practice are all important considerations. These aspects are discussed in this paper, through the lens of the Johari Window Model.

Evidence in faculty development

In faculty development more specifically, evidence can be construed as a way of knowing (Nutley et al., 2013) and taken a step further may be thought of as: empirical knowing, theoretical knowing or experimental knowing (Brechin & Siddell, 2000). All three of these ways of knowing are applicable to academic practice and are generally incorporated into training programmes targeted at faculty development. Empirical knowing is data-driven so might include measures of success (e.g. numbers of students graduating or satisfaction rates of particular courses). Theoretical knowing is often associated with understanding and assimilating pedagogical learning in terms of developing one's practice as a teacher, but also encompasses conceptual understanding, knowledge of empirical research, and a developed capacity for ethical deliberation (Orchard & Winch, 2015). Experimental knowing is evaluative and focuses on doing, learning and developing, for example through a classroom-based action research project. If we follow this train of thought, it also means that evidence within faculty development is a relatively broad and open concept. Furthermore, in faculty development, evidence is used to tell a personal story of professional development and therefore it needs to be a careful blend of items that does just that. Hence, evidence is usually atypical in that it is essentially a personal artefact that individuals are happy to present in a public way for professional scrutiny. Examples of permissible evidence might include reflective diaries that highlight both good and bad experiences (Elwyn et al., 2000) and honest student evaluation (Golding & Adam, 2016). The evidence that it is possible and desirable to collect ultimately supports efforts to demonstrate individual academic practice in a holistic and credible manner. Essentially, evidence is also about considered change, whereby personal (e.g. greater efficacy), professional (quality of use and understanding of knowledge and skills) and cultural (e.g. fostering of a collaborative spirit) changes are brought to the fore (King, 2013).

When different forms of evidence are included, or when those that already exist are utilised in a different way, the end result is that more of the window opens up, leading to greater and more significant exposure of the individual by revealing parts of themselves that are otherwise unknown. Therefore, the Johari Window Model might prove a useful framework through which to gauge evidence and its viability in the professional development of higher education teachers. A critique of the Johari Window Model and its conceivable use as a lens through which evidence in faculty development can be considered is provided in the next section.

Theoretical models used to develop teaching in higher education settings

Prior to exploring the Johari Window Model, it is useful to say something of other models which have been used to guide faculty development, and develop taught practice. Three of these are mentioned in this work – those that are primarily reflective, although the list is not exhaustive: Kolb's experiential learning cycle model (Kolb, 2005), Schön's framework on reflective practice (Schön, 1987) and Mezirow's transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1981). Each has its own strengths and weaknesses, and is used often in faculty development. Kolb's work takes account of four distinct ways of learning (including reflection²) and supports

educators in putting together lesson plans and taking account of the different ways in which students learn. However, it can seem a little oversimplistic in terms of what it means to learn and be a learner, failing to account of the more holistic context in which learning occurs (Bergsteiner et al., 2010). Schön's framework, which distinguishes between reflection-in-action (real-time adjustments) and reflection-on-action (deliberate analysis afterwards), encourages lifelong learning and personal growth, but may overlook the social dynamics of professional practice as it remains confined to the individual (Hébert, 2015). Mezirow's theory looks at change in adult behaviour, perspectives, and attitudes through reflection and encourages personal growth and development, but transformation is not always achievable and can be emotionally demanding (Calleja, 2014).

A critique of the Johari Window Model

The Johari Window Model stands apart in that it was not developed by educationists, but often serves as a theoretical lens to better facilitate effective communication (Saxena, 2015; Verklan, 2007). For example, by enabling individuals to find their blind spots,³ identify strengths, and improve their understanding of others and themselves. It is also used to observe the dynamics of a person's self-awareness which relates to their behaviour, feelings and motives (Lumbanraja et al., 2024), and to self-assess skills and build better awareness of communications with others (Cassidy, 2014). Equally, it might serve as a useful framework through which evidence in relation to faculty development can be reflected upon, as it is often associated with self-disclosure⁴ (Rasheed et al., 2019). The Johari Window Model is a theoretical model developed by Luft and Ingham (1955), which stipulates that there are essentially four dimensions of being: (1) Known to self/known to others; (2) Known to self/unknown to others; (3) Unknown to self/known to others; and (4) Unknown to self/unknown to others. Luft describes the original model in his own words as 'a graphic model of awareness in interpersonal relations' (Luft, 1961) and, more recently, it has been described as 'a disclosure/feedback model of self-awareness, an information processing tool' (Cipriani, 2004). These definitions illumine how useful the model could be for faculty development purposes, especially as there are sections of the window that are effectively 'safe', for example aspects of an individuals' teaching practice that are known to self/known to others and sections that are more 'dangerous', e.g. not known to self/not known to others. Faculty development is aimed at development through a critical, reflective exposing of one's teaching practice, and effectively moving from safe spaces to more dangerous ones. A diagrammatic representation of the Johari Window Model is provided for reference (Figure 1).

The Johari Window Model surfaces blind spots and enables individuals to identify and work through the deficiencies they are somewhat ignorant of (Raveendran & Gopakumar, 2007). The model can seem simplistic, although its main criticism does not stem from the model itself but its utilisation; often uncomfortable truths are exposed which could be taken advantage of (Verklan, 2007). Work carried out by Oliver and Duncan (2019) is perhaps apt in terms of considering how evidence with respect to faculty development might be framed using the Johari Window Model. The authors discuss how different sections of the window

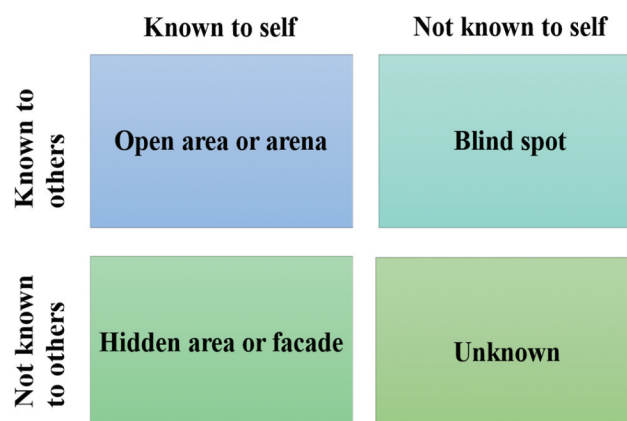


Figure 1. Johari Window Model (adapted from Luft & Ingham, 1955).

potentially depict a certain positioning in the relationship between the self and the other. These are: points of sharing (when one has self-knowledge and others do not have knowledge of them), asking and listening (when one does not have self-knowledge, but others have knowledge of them) and exploring together (when one does not possess self-knowledge, and others do not have knowledge of them either). Interestingly, the perspectives offered up by Oliver and Duncan could easily be applied to faculty development. Evidence of growth and accomplishment of the educational practitioner, and by way of self-reflection – teaching observations are a prime example of this – requires deep personal engagement with these artefacts alongside a supporting platform that encourages open and honest revelations.

Characteristics of evidence in faculty development

In this paper, the concept of meaningful evidence is explored, although within faculty development this is often a personal judgement based on personal values; values are important drivers of change but are often overlooked (Bamber & Stefani, 2016). According to Bamber (2013), evidence in faculty development encompasses three main aspects; alongside values, direction is deemed important, and whether the evidence itself is considered fit for purpose. Taking each of these in turn and in relation to this notion of evidence, it is necessary to consider which values are of importance, what is meant by direction, and who determines what is ‘fit for purpose’.

Firstly, according to Harland and Pickering (2011), our values enable us to make good choices and additionally influence the way in which we see the world and how we operate within it. These authors provide examples of values related to teaching, which include academic honesty, openness/vulnerability, integrity, accountability and reward. Similarly, success, effectiveness and excellence are also considered values according to Skelton (2012). More recently, having fun and being supportive have been added to this list (Wong & Chiu, 2017). Depending on the value or set of values that are held most dear, the way in which evidence is thus understood and used can differ. For example, being open and vulnerable in faculty development means that every part of the window is potentially exposed, especially if a reflective teaching journal is submitted as evidence (Lavin & Goodman, 2023); when the journalling is structured and difficult questions are raised, the capacity for openness, honesty and exposure are high along with the development of metacognitive abilities (Alt & Raichel, 2020). If, however, an individual wishes to demonstrate their excellence as a teaching practitioner, for example through student test scores (De Courcy, 2015), any section of the window which represents unknown knowledge to either the individual or to others – and which could potentially do reputational damage – might conceivably remain closed. Individuals are required to make choices about the potential payoff in relation to the different scenarios, and these are essentially based on the personal and professional values of the individual educator.

Secondly, an assumption is made here that direction in academic practice relates to the learning journey and which artefacts adequately demonstrate how an individual journeys through their teaching. Therefore, evidence needs to highlight development and perhaps, by definition, this automatically means a slight shift to different parts of the Johari Window. For example, a lesson plan is a useful means to plot out the dynamic components and activities in a classroom (Moore-Cox, 2017). Taken a step further, an annotated lesson plan might reveal how the individual is proceeding through that lesson plan and their personal reflections and feelings associated with what they are doing in the classroom. They may then reveal truths that were previously unknown to themselves. As and when the artefact (as evidence) is shared, the internal thought process of the individual that was previously unknown becomes known to others. This entire journey means that the individual uses and modifies the evidence, so their start point is in one place (known to self/known to others) and they end up elsewhere in terms of the knowledge revelation and reflective development (unknown to self/unknown to others) according to the Johari Window Model. Another example could be taken from PowerPoint presentations which often display information linearly, but which could undergo transformation as the educator progresses and becomes more aware of how information connects and ought to be delivered, according to their personal philosophies. Work has been carried out on de-linearising these resources (Atapattu et al., 2017; Kinchin et al., 2008), and similar to annotated lesson plans, by using updated versions as evidence of a previously unknown value base and more refined teaching philosophy of the individual is revealed to both them and others.

Finally, consideration needs to be given to understanding what is fit for purpose in terms of evidence. This question is usually answered by national Government agencies or institutions themselves in terms of deciding what pieces of evidence are necessary and what they individually and collectively represent. A few international examples encompassing the UK, Sri Lanka and Japan are provided in this paper. In the UK a nationally accredited teaching qualification for teachers in higher education is awarded by Advance HE (formerly the Higher Education Academy). Relatedly, the UK-based professional standards framework (UK PSF) is used as a benchmark by institutions through which different types of evidence are solicited (from letters of support to 7000-word portfolios of evidence) to demonstrate competency and development. Depending upon the institutional culture and its approach to teaching, the evidence can appear fairly light-touch or incredibly robust as long as accreditation requirements are fulfilled. The situation in Sri Lanka as a contrast is similar in that a national policy in the late 1990s required newly qualified university lecturers to complete a teaching qualification which was accredited by the University Grants Commission and built around the model proposed by the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA). The certificate of teaching offered through the University of Colombo, Sri Lanka requires that certificate registrants contribute to a mock conference and submit a portfolio as evidence in lieu of meeting course requirements. Faculty development in Japan also offers up an interesting comparison. Higher education institutions (HEIs) in Japan have been required to conduct organisational training and research aimed at improving the content and teaching methods used by lecturers in the classroom since 2007; this followed a legal revision of a policy put forward by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (Arimoto 2011; Chadha and Sato, 2015). The University of Tokyo, for example, holds a series of informative and reflective workshops for participants with a certificate of completion being issued once participants have been observed teaching, attended a micro-teaching session, and charted their academic development practice for continual professional development. These different examples highlight the fact that notions of what is fit for purpose vary across the world.

All three aspects discussed here point to the idea that evidence is multi-faceted. Additionally, the different types of evidence which are used to highlight accomplishment and demonstrate practice matter; particular consideration needs to be given to the manner in which evidence is employed and the extent of use. Various forms of evidence are presented and discussed in the following section.

Forms of evidence and the Johari Window Model

Major forms of evidence

Evidence in faculty development is increasingly varied and extensive. According to the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), it can be any of the following: teaching and learning programmes (e.g. lesson plans and learning tasks), indicators of learning (e.g. student feedback), classroom observations (e.g. peer observation notes, video clips of practice), reflection and feedback (e.g. professional reading log and reflection), student assessment and learning (e.g. diagnostic assessments), personal learning (e.g. professional learning journal and action research project), and collaboration and communication (e.g. co-constructed resources). Each taken alone provides a partial story of the individual's teaching practice.

As part of this narrative, it is important to closely explore the different types of evidence that are of potential interest. If we acknowledge that evidence relates to professional accomplishment and pointing out 'success' in terms of student achievement (Buskist & Groccia, 2011; Groccia & Buskist, 2011), then the evidence used to do this needs unpacking. Student evaluation is a pointer of success, although one of the dangers of using it as evidence is that individuals may sift out negative evaluation comments which were previously unknown to them (e.g. aspects of the teaching disliked by students), and instead focus attention on something more palatable which they are more comfortable revealing to others (e.g. aspects of the teaching liked by students). Brutal honesty is required to surface and hence learn from the knowledge that we do not always want others to know. In relation to the Johari Window Model, this form of self-disclosure also allows individuals to build and strengthen relationships by peeling away the hidden layers (Masaviru, 2016). A more useful measure of success might be an indicator of learning, for example formative, informal

class tests with no-stakes assessment, although success is often difficult to validate (Decius et al., 2022). However, results from such tests provide the educator with useful information about their abilities to teach certain concepts effectively as learning gaps are identified. Making use of a method entitled ABC, which anonymously encourages students to write down one thing to abandon, one thing to begin and one thing to continue might serve as a softer way to unpack what is unknown to the educator about their teaching. An interactive app such as Mentimeter can be useful for this exercise.

In the UK, accreditation is usually linked to evidence which includes teaching observation reports and personal narratives (Körkkö et al., 2016), with observation reports in particular serving as knowledge known to others, which is then revealed to the self; personal narratives often work in the opposite way. Focusing on observation reports as evidence firstly, practitioners often develop their taught practice based on the advice they receive from others observing them. Observation is a classic example of a situation where knowledge is often known to the other, but unknown to the self. Certain aspects are noted during the observation session such as attitude, behaviour, style and knowledge of subject matter. At some level, parts of this information is known to the individual but the deeper sense of 'this is who you really are in a classroom' is potentially revealed to them through this process, so long as it is not then used as a competency checker at a superficial level (Fletcher, 2018; Hatzipanagos & Lygo-Baker, 2006). The critical discussion between the observer and the observed is crucial in terms of the extent to which unknowns are revealed; it is usually a conversation that needs to be handled with both sensitivity and sincerity. It is through this aspect of sharing that more unknowns are revealed, and more of the window opens up, as alluded to earlier by Oliver and Duncan (2019). It can be argued that micro-teaching (Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2011), (a form of teaching observation where individuals usually deliver a taught session within 10–20 minutes, observed by a small group of peers) is more contrived, and thus less revealing. The scenario is artificial, and the person being observed faces none of the queries and concerns they normally would in their teaching. Therefore, the section of the window that is unknown might remain so. If this initial work was somehow grounded in a robust mentoring scheme, where novice educators were paired with more senior ones, strengths and weaknesses could be unpacked and discussed in greater depth and detail.

When considering personal narrative, it is important to establish the extent to which these narratives are revealing (these are generally submitted as portfolios) and serve as genuine accounts of practice. Could other forms of evidence serve us better? Portfolios as evidence can be messy as individuals are often unclear about their central messaging when using them in this context. They need to be both able to demonstrate a personal journey, but also professional development, which can be difficult to determine (Lydon & King, 2009). Evidence-based portfolios are used increasingly as a measure of outcomes being achieved in accredited programmes of faculty development (Hamilton, 2020). From their first introduction, it was deemed that these portfolios needed to be self-critical to move closer to revealing truth and for practitioners to work from that truth to enhance their practice (McLean & Bullard, 2000). Depending upon the degree of self-criticality, it is possible to reveal knowledge and hidden truths to oneself and others. Having said as much, it has been suggested that portfolios, used as evidence, may not always be crafted in the most authentic way (Meeus et al., 2009). E-portfolios are increasingly replacing paper-based ones, enabling the practitioner to revisit and re-engage with the process of continual professional development (Winberg & Pallitt, 2016) and to make visible professional identities, by better understanding professional standards (Younghusband, 2021). However, irrespective of more technological and robust approaches to continual professional development, portfolios are often regarded as inauthentic as they can be written with a view to impress the assessor and fulfil assessment criteria. They are not always viewed as a marker of quality in terms of providing an open and honest critique as they are often purpose-driven. The best examples will highlight and honestly narrate challenges, and speak to evidence in terms of how it demonstrates transformational changes.

Alongside understanding the nature of evidence in this way, the challenge is ultimately to develop a clearer focus of its application, and its strengths and limitations for use in academic practice. For example, evidence-based teaching is a term used regularly when considering how teaching practice develops, having stemmed from evidence-based medicine, nursing and psychology (Kazdin, 2008; Sackett et al., 1996). In the context in which it is defined, evidence-based teaching relates to the process through which teaching is enhanced and informed by classroom-based (or action) research. As an example, co-operative learning methods were trialled in Poland with

evidence of success forming arguments for co-operative learning to be adopted more widely in the classroom (Abramczyk & Jurkowski, 2020). Similarly, action research informed the changing roles of teachers in a study conducted in the Caribbean (Herbert & Rainford, 2014). Action research of this kind may inform part of the overall picture in terms of the evidence sought and leads to significant classroom-based changes. Procedurally, educators ought to have honest conversations with their students about the need to determine what modifications might need to be made, and what possible solutions were being considered. This constructive dialogue might naturally open up unknown sections of the window.

Other types of evidence

Evidence is also available to us in other forms and needs to be discussed. For example, increasing use is made of accompanying supporting statements, and the documentation of critical incidents can also be valuable evidence. How do these artefacts work as evidence, especially in relation to the Johari Window Model? The supporting statements provide some form of proof through peer feedback and confirm the success and development of the individual. They surface what is unknown to the self and known to others, although bearing in mind that confirmation of contribution is required, these statements (or letters of recommendation) are often provided by certain individuals to strengthen applications and highlight positive attributes (Agarwal et al., 2022). Thus, the information contained in the documents could already be known to the individual, although they may prove more useful if some hidden truths are revealed. As a suggestion, these could be related to how others perceive the individuals' involvement with collaborative efforts in conducting educational research, additional commentary on how much they contributed to institutional networks, how they designed and delivered teaching differently (e.g. employing AI or flipped classrooms) or the impact of any resources they helped create to enhance teaching and learning etc. In such a scenario, evidence is an important outcome of collaborative efforts which are representative of aspects of professional capital (namely social capital), e.g. networks and research-practice collaborations for educators (Czerniawski et al., 2018).

Documenting critical incidents is a powerful mechanism that can be used to surface aspects of taught practice that are unknown to oneself and others. Critical incidents in teaching are often spaces of dilemma, with actions, reactions and behaviours being unknown until they happen (Williams & Grierson, 2016), for example an accident or unprecedented bad behaviour. The point of learning can be incredibly powerful, even though the incident itself might be a place of tension and emotional difficulty at the time. The associated reflection needs to be deep and impactful, with Bruster and Peterson (2013) suggesting that there are usually five phases of reflection: descriptive, inquisitive, investigative, interdependent and global. A descriptive phase might reveal what happened in the incident, but not necessarily true emotions attached to it, meaning that the quadrants of thoughts, feelings and behaviours unknown to others remain concealed. The investigative phase requires the individual to be more openly expressive about their feelings and thoughts related to a particular critical incident so blind spots can be surfaced alongside aspects of an individual's character that is both unknown to them and the other.

Other examples of evidence include the use of video narratives that are drawn on to capture competency which encompasses a self-report of the taught session (Admiraal & Berry, 2016), and scholarship – action research as mentioned, and critical engagement with pedagogical literature (Phillips et al., 2017). As part of their findings, Admiraal and Berry reported that reflection did not always occur in a personally meaningful way when video narratives are utilised. The utilisation of video narratives themselves would expose unknown knowledge to both the self and others, so the interest then lies in understanding how the process of reflection is treated. Reflexive discussion – that occurs in the moment – might prove more beneficial than personal, reflective written analysis to help ensure more hidden truths are revealed through sharing and peer-to-peer critique. Previous research suggests that reflexivity is often regarded as the more powerful tool for bringing about sustainable and further meaningful changes in the classroom (Feucht et al., 2017). In terms of the Johari Window Model, reflexivity potentially opens the section of the window perceived as 'unknown', whilst reflection can be comparatively constrained and might not. In relation to taking a pedagogical approach, this is often perceived as synthesising the relationship between teaching and learning, and how these practices are understood and developed in relation to one another. Therefore,

evidence of pedagogy can be construed as an individual's appreciation of that relationship (usually through reference to scholarship) (Loughran, 2013). A full grasp of pedagogy may not seem an obvious choice in terms of evidence, but it provides educators with a critical appreciation of the research that underpins and informs their choices as teachers. Individuals can display more of their inner thoughts to others when they use pedagogy as a tool to question those choices in a mature way. Essentially, all forms of evidence discussed in this paper can potentially result in greater or lesser exposure.

Considerations and implications of using the Johari Window Model

With respect to utilising the Johari Window Model in this way as a tool for faculty development, certain factors need to be taken into consideration. For example, knowledgeable and sensitive facilitators are needed to support the opening of various sections of the window. These facilitators ought to be skilled enough so they can guide educators in interpreting evidence, ensuring the outcomes are constructive and developmental rather than judgemental. Self-awareness is also a key factor in unearthing areas for growth, and this varies among individuals. The choice of evidence itself can help to reveal blind spots, but it goes hand-in-hand with some degree of openness and self-awareness. Coupled to that is an ability to acknowledge feedback and use it to instigate meaningful and transformative change. Robust support structures need to be in place to help facilitate such change in the form of expert mentoring and coaching, and effective peer dialogue. These ought to help educators process evidence, build resilience and translate insights into improved teaching practice.

A possible concern with using this model, is around how reflection is channelled. For example, reflection could superficially be focused on content delivery rather than how it is experienced by students, there could be a misplaced over-reliance on module evaluation as a tool for reflection, or failure to take account of the wider context of teaching that ought to inform reflective commentary. Other implications can be viewed as more positive. Firstly, use of the window enables greater transparency related to the teaching methods educators use, the challenges they face and the innovative approaches employed. The deeper dive required by some of the unknown sections of the window means that struggles and successes are unearthed more readily. Secondly, longer term implications relate to educators being more self-aware with respect to their teaching, which would hopefully improve student learning outcomes. Additionally, this work speaks to evaluation models used to assess the quality of taught practice, which could be better directed towards growth and development rather than as something more punitive.

Conclusion

In this paper, the nature of evidence, what it means in academic practice and its relationship with the Johari Window Model have been discussed and critiqued. Different types of evidence and their utility have been explored. The central premise of this paper being that more hidden truths are revealed when different types of evidence are considered and when they are handled in diverse ways. Ultimately, as education practitioners, we are being asked to contest our interpretation of meaningful evidence – what goal do we set with regards to the evidence available to us? For example, if the goal is to dig deeper into one's practice and use it as a trigger for profound change and betterment as a teacher, then the evidence – and more importantly what is done with it – ought to reflect this. The Johari Window Model is a useful tool that can be applied to evidence in this way to establish whether more would need to be done to uncover an educators' thoughts, behaviours and actions that ultimately inform their taught practice.

Notes

1. Faculty development is the process of supporting higher education and healthcare educators in their continuous professional growth, focusing on improving skills in teaching, leadership, research and technology to meet their career goals and institutional objectives.
2. For the purpose of this paper, reflection is considered in its broadest term as the process of using experiences and knowledge (about thoughts, feelings, behaviours, attitudes, intentions and patterns) to gain insight and

awareness for professional development. It plays an important role in enabling individuals to move between different sections of the window.

3. In this context, blind spots refer to aspects of an individual's taught practice that they are unaware of or oblivious about.
4. Self-disclosure is being referred to as the process of personally revealing intimate perspectives (e.g. their thoughts, feelings and vulnerabilities).

Disclosure statement

The author declares that they have no relevant or material financial interests that relate to the research described in this paper.

Notes on contributor

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