

Teacher Collaboration: The Need for Trust in the Classroom Context

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ABSTRACT

Teacher coaching in schools takes various forms, but is commonly conceived as a means of providing personalised professional support to teachers through discussion about their practice (Lofthouse, Leat & Towler, 2010, p. 5). This paper fact resulted into a critical analysis of chapters two, four, and eight of the book "The Coaching Approach for Teaching and Learning" by Newell-McLymont (2015). For this reason, the paper reviewed Collaboration in the Classroom Context. Collaboration in the classroom context is a vital part of meeting the diverse needs of students in building an inclusive education system. Collaboration between teachers, parents, and specialists dealing with students with special needs in a context of school integration. Collaborative problem solving is a skill valued by the professional community, looking for people who can solve complex problems with their colleagues in the era of robotization of jobs. However, Collaboration remains a daunting challenge for students and professionals alike, where fairness, creativity, and people-to-people relationships can quickly become obstacles. Chapter four deals with the tools of cognitive coaching. These tools are the basis for the main ideas in this chapter. Some of these tools are "diagnostic" in nature Newell-McLymont (, 2015, p. 56-63). Finally, chapter eight of Newell-McLymont (2015) explores flexibility and the Nonjudgmental Nature of Cognitive Coaching. It has thus far been realized that the "cognitive coaching approach is a flexible approach for teaching and learning. It is "nonjudgmental" in nature. As a result, "trust can be established, and transformation can be experienced in the teaching and learning context" (p. 135). Where teacher-student relation is concerned, "whatever path a student may use to come up with a solution, the teacher can see it as valid or invalid and will be able to offer the necessary suggestions concerning its correctness" (p. 138). In the wake of the education reform, the school environment's renewal seems to be moving towards greater openness to working team consultation. Seen as a way to break isolation between teachers and other types of staff in complementary services, collaborative work can contribute to the overall development of students by ensuring better consistency in interventions.

Keywords-- Cognitive Coaching, Professional Learning Community, Collaboration, Teacher Collaboration, Collegiality, Verbal Behaviors, Self-Efficacy, Flexible, Craftsmanship, Relationships, Teacher Isolation, Cooperative Learning

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I. INTRODUCTION

Critical analysis or critique is one where a reader "evaluates somebody's work (a book, an essay, a movie, a painting...)" or article "in order to increase the reader's understanding of it". A critical analysis is "subjective writing" as it "expresses the writer's opinion or evaluation of a text" (Southeastern Louisiana University, 2019). For the purpose of this paper an in-depth critical analysis of three (3) chapters of the book – as referenced above – has been carried out, using the guidelines of description or summary of Ideas, making meaning or interpretation, and making Judgements or evaluation. A general description will be given. "special attention" has been given to identifying the "various constructs/concepts that are dealt with" in the chosen chapters (Newell-McLymont, 2019, p. 17). The summary of the constructs or concepts within the select chapters will be presented separately. However, the interpretation, and subsequent evaluation sections will be done comprehensively. Please see below for the respective reflections. All reflections will be done in "paragraph form" (Newell-McLymont, 2019, p. 21 B).

II. DESCRIPTION

This description covers chapters Two (2), Four (4) and Eight (8) of the book "The Coaching Approach for Teaching and Learning" by Dr. Enid F. Newell-McLymont. This book and instinctively the selected chapters for this critical analysis explores "alternative approach" (es) "to the traditional mode of instruction for teaching and learning", which are aimed at teacher development, and "self-directed" "student achievement". This was done through various "cognitive coaching processes or approaches, during the teacher's "Professional

Learning Experiences (PLE)” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p.1). Chapters Two, Four and Eight addresses several “constructs/concepts” (Newell-McLymont, 2019, p. 17) within collaboration, the tools of cognitive coaching, and the nature of the cognitive coaching approach respectively. These will be addressed separately in the section titled Summary of main ideas.

III. SUMMARY OF MAIN IDEAS

This section gives summary of main ideas from various chapters.

Chapter 2 – Collaboration in the Classroom Context

Newell-McLymont (2015) states that collaboration within the classroom context begins with teacher collegiality that fosters change and improves relationships among subject-teacher collaborative “community” (p. 17). “This collaboration” is said to take “place during professional learning experiences which promote freedom of expression and lead to student collaboration” (p. 17).

Chapter Two of Newell-McLymont (2015) explores the theme of collaboration within the classroom context. We have learned a number of things about collaboration, including the fact that it helps to “improve” the “instructional effectiveness” of “teachers” (p. 17). As teachers step away from “teacher isolation” they are led to “collegiality” or “collaboration” during professional learning experiences which “fosters change” and leads to “improved relationships (p. 17). Because some teachers isolate themselves for one reason or another, it “contributes to” the “teachers’ reluctance to explore and embrace pedagogical approach that may challenge their expertise” (p. 17).

Chapter Two gives definitions for both collegiality and collaboration respectively. Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 18) notes that “collegiality is when school personnel connect with each other personally, through sharing and exploring new ideas and innovations in teaching”. Collegiality is said to “reduce classroom isolation, produces satisfaction on a daily basis, brings meaning and rewards to career, lesson teacher burn-out, and stimulates enthusiasm” (p. 18).

“Collaboration” says Wren and Harris-Schmidt (1991), as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 18) is broadly “any number of administrative faculty, or student groups working together, including faculty doing team teaching or cross-disciplinary research, joint faculty-student inquiry both in and out of class, and student studying together or completing group projects”. In essence, we have learned that collaboration involves people “working jointly with others” and pooling “resources to achieve a specific goal in an intellectual endeavour and as together they engage in planning,

reflecting, and problem solving” Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 19).

We have learned that collaboration is a “strategy for bringing successful reform” (p. 19). Collaboration comes in “varying forms”. Some forms are “collegial consultation, collaborative consultation and coaching” (p. 20). It is also related in chapter two that collaboration is a part of “clinical supervision” as it “offers crucial support for teachers by providing feedback on learning outcomes, guiding them in adapting new practices to meet the needs of students, and helping them analyse the effects on students” (p. 20).

Chapter Two also looked at “subject teacher collaboratives” (p. 21). These are opportunities that have been created for professionals to “engage in their own learning”. Subject-teacher collaboratives helps teachers in “conceptual understanding”, as it “facilitates classroom experiences rather than by just providing content or methods” (p. 20). The aspect of Professional Learning Experiences (PLE) is also mentioned in chapter two. These are design to “help liberate teachers from their isolation by dissolving walls of separation” within the working environment (p. 21).

Professional Learning Experiences tools include “grouping as a mode of collaboration”. It “promotes teamwork” (p. 22). Teachers wind up “feeling more comfortable with teachers in the department” as opposed to previously (Mrs. Jacobson – participant), as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 23). PLE’s leads to “transformation of relationships” (p. 23). “Freedom of self-expression” is promoted with professional learning experiences (p. 24). Teachers “experience professional growth when they begin to examine and question their teaching practices as well as those of others” (p. 24). We have learned that within the PLE “everyone’s ideas were valued and respected” Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 26).

Where student collaboration is concerned, “collaboration allows learners to experience shared responsibility and to share their expertise in the attainment of learning outcomes” (p. 27). The students “social relationships” improve as they “felt that their classmates wanted them to learn” (p. 27). They are encouraged to think critically as they collaborate with others and “assimilate information and “share” “ideas” (p. 27). As students work together in groups it “promotes more positive attitudes towards the subject area being studied as well as towards teachers, greater competency in working with others and continual opportunities for development of leadership skills and group skills” (p. 30). Within student collaboration, we learn that students with “low-ability benefit most when placed in mixed ability groups” (p. 31).

Chapter Four – The Tools of Cognitive Coaching

As previously mentioned, chapter four deals with the tools of cognitive coaching. These tools are the basis

for the main ideas with this chapter. Some of these tools are “diagnostic” in nature Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 56-63).

We have learned that cognitive coaching takes place when there are “interactions between a coach and a coachee through skillful application and use of specific tools and maps, while incorporating the values and beliefs integral to mediation” (Costa and Garmston (2002), as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 42). Cognitive coaching “promotes teacher reflection and the enhancement of teachers’ intellectual growth”. It is a “clinical approach” to “supervision” as it emphasizes collegiality that aids the professional growth of a responsible teacher who is analytical about his or her performance, open to help from others, and self-directive” (p. 42). We have learned that a “cognitive coach does not need to be more of an expert performer than the person being coached” (p. 44).

The first tool for cognitive coaching mentioned in chapter four is the matter of “trust” building. (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 46) continues in noting that “to build trust in any group, openness is needed to develop a supportive climate”. The “essential ingredients for the building of trust” includes “recognizing how one relates to others of a similar or dissimilar cognitive style and knowing how to network, how to draw on the resources of others, and how to value each person’s expertise and appreciate differing views, perceptions, and knowledge bases (p. 47).

It was learned that “coaches help create the climate for teaching experimentation by building trust in four areas: “trust in self, trust between individuals, trust in the coaching process, and trust in the environment” (Costa and Garmston, 1994 p. 36) as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 47). The cognitive coaching tools for building trust that were mentioned in chapter four are “paralanguage”, “response behaviours”, “silence and wait time”, “acknowledging”, “paraphrasing”, “probing”, “exploring” and “clarifying” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 47-51).

Paralanguage is the same as body language. As Newell-McLymont (2015) points out “gestures made by the body, or body parts, voice qualities and other verbal or non-verbal behaviours” are referred to as paralanguage” (p. 47). It is also noted that paralanguage includes “posture, and use of spaces, intonation rhythms, pacing and volume of persons’ voice”. These are some of the ways people relay information “during communication” (p. 48).

Response Behaviours

These includes “verbal responses made during communications with others” (p. 48). There were four types of “verbal behaviours” which “aid mediation of thinking during the cognitive coaching process” that were

mentioned. They are “silence”, “acknowledging”, “paraphrasing”, “clarifying”. “Providing data sources” is a part of the clarification process (p. 48).

Silence and Wait Time

This constitutes behaviour in which time is given “before initiating another question” (p. 48). It is considered a “desirable behaviour that demonstrates thoughtfulness and reflection and serves to restrain impulsive tendencies on the part of the coach” (p. 49).

Acknowledging

This entails “receiving a particular response from a speaker and indicating that the ideas have been heard” (p. 49).

Paraphrasing

This involves “rephrasing, recasting, translating, summarizing or giving an example of what” (Costa and Garmston (1994, p. 49), as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 49) was communicated or relayed during “an interactive discourse” Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 49). We learned that paraphrasing is used to “maintain accuracy of meaning and intent of an idea or set of ideas”. “It reflects the content the speaker wants to convey along with the emotions exhibited by the speaker” (p. 50).

Probing, Exploring and Clarifying

A probe “is a statement made to elaborate a response to a question” (p. 50). It “serves the purpose of eliciting clarification, soliciting new information to extend and build a particular response and redirecting or restructuring the response in a more productive direction” (p. 50). “Clarifying... Contributes to trust building”. It communicates the idea that expressed thoughts are worth consideration and exploration although the full meaning is not yet realized”. Clarifying “helps the listener better understand what is communicated says Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 51). Probing and clarifying helps “the coach understand more clearly the coachee’s ideas, feelings and thought processes”. They serve as tools for “providing data sources” (p. 51). Data and resources “should be requested in “observable terms, and should be interpreted by the coachee and not the coach” (p. 52).

Structure (Conferencing)

“Conferencing provides structure for planning, observation and reflection and is essential in bringing about the collaborative setting of the cognitive coaching” (p. 53) process. The “first” stage of “conferencing” is the “planning conference” (p. 53). A planning conference is the same as a planning “conversation”. It “occurs prior to an event, a task, or the resolution of a challenge” (p. 54). It “allows coaches to mediate by engaging in deep pre-active mental paraphrasing to illuminate and facilitate the coach’s refinement, and to bring to consciousness the details involved in the particular planning process”. A Planning conference provides an “opportunity for building

trust". The planning conference has "four basic components". They are:

1. "The clarification of goals by anticipating, predicting, and developing precise descriptions of students' learning that is to result from instruction;
2. The specification of how success will be identified and how the evidence of such will be collected.
3. Envisioning precisely the characteristics of an instructional sequences, strategies, and decisions, how to monitor them so that they will most likely move students from their present capabilities toward immediate and long-range instructional outcomes; and
4. Establishing coachee's own learning focus and processes involved in self-assessment.
5. Reflection on the process involved in coaching and the exploration of refinements of the process" (Costa & Garmston, 1994, p. 35) as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 53).

The "planning conference serves to refine lesson strategies, identifying gaps or inconsistencies that might exist in the original thinking, and help the teacher anticipate decisions he or she will have to make on his or her feet" It "provides the coach with the opportunity to learn the coachee's goal and objectives", "provides the opportunity for coaches to elicit from teachers areas of concern that they might be experiencing, and even how the individual lesson fits in the overall plan of the curriculum for the students" The "parameters for data collection" are also set during observation and the reflecting conference" (p. 53).

Lesson Observation

During the lesson observation, "data are gathered upon the request of the coachee, with judgmental comments being withheld because they are counterproductive to any trusting relationship". "Praise" comments as well a "criticism" should be avoided. It is admonished that the lesson observation be recorded and presented in terms free from judgement and inferences, but in a form that encourages thinking and gives people choice" (p. 54). The "coach's role "during the lesson observation is that of a "data collector" as would have been "requested by the coachee" relating "teacher and student behavior" (p. 54).

The Reflecting Conference

This happens after the lesson observation. The "non-judgmental, nonthreatening, nonconfrontational" (p. 55) data from the lesson observation "should be available for the teacher to process" (p. 54). Adequate "wait time" (p. 48) should be given between the "teaching event" and the actual reflection conference in order to facilitate the "teacher's individual reflection" (p. 54). As this wait time

is given, "deeper processing and greater self-analysis might take place" during the "planned reflective conference" (p. 54-55). During the reflecting conference, "teachers" are given "opportunities to summarize and share their impressions of data collected during a lesson and to recall specific events that are very important". "Teachers are the only participants judging performance or effectiveness". Teachers should be invited to "make comparisons between what occurred during the lesson and what was desired from the planning stage" (p. 55).

"Coaches" should "encourage teachers to propose how the discovery made, the learning insights gained might influence the planning for future lessons". Teachers should "also" be "invited to reflect on the coaching experience itself, providing feedback about what has been learned and what suggestions for refinement or changes that might be made to make the relationship more productive". "Trust" needs to be built throughout the entire conferencing experience (p. 55).

Mediative Questioning

This is "designed to transform person's thinking and perspective". The tone of the questioning is "invitational". The "questioner" should not be course. He or she should have an approachable voice". The coach's "words" should be chosen "carefully", using "positive presuppositions" as both coach and coachee endeavors to "communicate ideas and concepts" (p. 56).

The Diagnostic Tools of Cognitive Coaching

These are "constructs a coach can use to assess and plan interventions for cognitive development of individuals and groups". "Human forms of behavior" form a part of the diagnostic tools of cognitive coaching (p. 56). They are "transitory, transforming and transformable" (p. 57). Transitory meaning that "this moment they are", and the other "moment they are not" as they are "influenced by a variety of factors, including experiences, knowledge, fatigue, emotion and familiarity" (p. 57). These diagnostic tools are transforming as the "increase in performance is based on an increase in these energy sources" (emotions, knowledge, experience). These "energy sources, or the five states of mind are the foundation of trust and rapport". These are "efficacy, interdependence, flexibility, consciousness, and craftsmanship". "Self-efficacy" involve "self-inducements", or "self-prescribed" "standards" of "performance", and "behavior" (p. 57).

These "self-efficacy beliefs determine how individuals feel, think, behave, and motivate themselves" (p. 58). Those with a "low sense of efficacy, dwell on personal deficiencies, obstacles they will encounter, and adverse outcome, rather than concentrate on how to perform the task successfully". A "strong sense of efficacy enhances an individual's sense of accomplishments and personal well-being in many ways". Those with a "high assurance of their capabilities

approaches difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided” (p. 58). Such persons with a “high sense of efficacy set challenging goals, maintain strong commitments, persevere longer, and heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure or setback”.

We learned that “beliefs in personal efficacy affect life choices, levels of motivation, the resilience exercised in the face of adversity, quality of functioning and vulnerability to stress and depression” (p. 59).

Flexibility

This is the “ability to step beyond oneself and view a situation from a different or multiple perspective”. Flexible individuals are “cognitively empathic, seek solutions that are novel in nature, meet ambiguity with a level of comfort, and adjust thinking when additional data influence knowledge of concepts”. “Flexible individuals are able to reconceptualize a problem, deal with diversity, view problems as an opportunity for learning and interpret life as a series of problems to be solved and enjoyed. Such persons are “aware of each person uniqueness and constantly seek to expand their repertoire so they can sense, search for and detect cues about another person’s thinking process, beliefs, modality preferences, and style, in order to communicate effectively to develop trust”. They are “open and tolerant”. They “create novel approaches, and work interdependently” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 60).

Interdependence

This is a “two-way relationship”. “One provides help to the other, while the other receives help; one influences others while one is also influenced by others” (p. 61). Interdependence is linked to flexibility, as a “sense of community is created”. Individuals “work collectively to achieve group goals; ideas and resources are pooled as they make contributions to a common good; they seek engagement in groups while making individual contributions”.

Within the educational setting (“learning community”), interdependence or “collegiality between numbers means teachers working diligently together, practicing in exemplary ways, keeping abreast of new ideas, helping other members of the learning community to succeed and working in groups instead of individually to praise their consciousness about the ideas and concepts relevant to their field” (p. 61).

Consciousness

This is the knowledge of what is happening around oneself, the awareness of one’s thoughts, feelings, impressions, and behaviors and the effect of what is happening on oneself and on others. “consciousness” is operational “when deliberate control or intervention is in operation and is strengthened as one observes oneself” (p. 62).

Craftsmanship

In exercising craftsmanship, one “strive (s) for preciseness and excellence” in “performance”. Individuals centered on craftsmanship “constantly” seeks to “refine their work so they can experience improvements and satisfaction”. “Teachers... seek to enhance their craftsmanship in order to effect the highest state of achievement on the part of their students”. This is so as the students will “also seek to improve their craftsmanship – as teachers move from using traditionally modes of teaching to more promising alternative modes and developing the cognitive approach to teaching and learning” (p. 62-63).

Chapter 8 – Flexibility and the Nonjudgmental Nature of the Cognitive Coaching Approach

It has thus far been realized that the “cognitive coaching approach is a flexible approach for teaching and learning. It is “non-judgmental” in nature. As a result, “trust can be established, and transformation can be experienced in the teaching and learning context” (p. 135). Where teacher-student relation is concerned, “whatever path a student may use to come up with a solution, the teacher can see it as valid or invalid and will be able to offer the necessary suggestions concerning its correctness” (p. 138). The “flexibility” nature of the cognitive coaching approach is “pronounced in the way” participants question “each other” and subsequently wind up generating alternative strategies for solutions to... problems” (p. 139) as presented in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 135-140).

The “flexibility of the cognitive coaching approach also enhances a higher level of interdependence and openness as alternatives” are “mediated within learning groups”. Now, concerning the non-judgmental nature of the cognitive coaching approach, Newell-McLymont (2015) reports, through research participants’ responses, that an “environment” is “created for you to feel secure and just be yourself”. A “comfortable atmosphere” is generated during seminars as each participant receives an atmosphere to “voice” their contribution (p. 140-141).

We are told that “before employing the cognitive coaching approach”, the whole matter of creating a comfortable and trusting environment was not a deliberate. After the cognitive coaching approach was applied, Mrs. Scott (participant), as cited in Newel-McLymont (2015, p. 142) related that “creating a trusting atmosphere in her class was making a difference”. One such “way” in which this was done was by Mrs. Scott (participant) having made “deliberate attempts to eliminate judgmental words from her vocabulary” (p. 142). Mrs. Scott built “trust” within her classroom and generated a “comfortable atmosphere by eliminating remarks that would” (p. 143) “convey negative messages” (p. 142). Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 143) infers that Mrs. Scott’s students were made to feel that their opinions were in fact “valued”.

The “nonjudgmental atmosphere” of the cognitive coaching approach “develops” in both teachers and students, “freedom of expression, enhanced communication, critical thinking, the development of the whole person, and student’s willingness to participate in class activities. A “comfortable, trusting atmosphere that leads to improved relationships where individuals feel secure and relaxed and where students feel equal as trust” is “established” is created by the cognitive coaching approach (p. 146).

The Establishing or the erosion of trust in the teaching learning context

Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 146) communicates that the cognitive coaching approach “engendered trust” and that “refraining from the passing of judgements fosters the building of trust”. “Trust exist when a comfortable atmosphere is generated, when positive feelings of openness and willingness to share are encouraged”. However, “trust may be eroded when judgements are made” (p. 147).

Transformation as a result of the Nonjudgmental Context of the Coaching Approach

“Relationships” are “transformed”, says Newell-McLymont (2015), as the “non-judgmental context of the coaching approach” is experienced (p. 149). These relationships may be between “colleagues” as Mrs. Scott (participant), as cited in Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 149) related, or it may be between teacher and students as the “comfortable and trusting” environment is created within the classroom by the elimination of judgmental “remarks” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 143).

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW FROM OTHER AUTHORS

This section reports the literature review that related to the reviewed section of the book.

Chapter 2: Collaboration in the Classroom Context

In Hamilton-Jones & Vail (2014) collaboration is described as “blending differences” or “working together”. It includes “different ideas and opinions”. “Sharing these ideas and coming up with something that works for everyone is a great example of collaboration at work” (Angela – participant, as cited in Hamilton-Jones & Vail, 2014, p. 79). One of the “outcomes of collaboration” is that “When individuals combine their knowledge and expertise, a positive and pleasant learning environment will be created for all to learn and be successful in the school setting” (p. 80). “participants” in the study by Hamilton-Jones & Vail, (2014) believed that “student success was achieved through collaboration” (p. 80).

Within the classroom, Lillian (participant), as cited within Hamilton-Jones & Vail (2014, p. 79) lets us know that “Each teacher who sees a particular student may

see different facets of his/her personality, different strengths and weaknesses and different ways to reach him or her”. Hamilton-Jones & Vail, (2014) reported that teachers who were involved in collaboration did so by “sharing professional responsibility” (p. 80). “power, one teach-one assist, and school-wide recognition of collaboration” were noted as challenges to collaboration”. Teachers who are “not willing to relinquish power and control” are seen “as very difficult to collaborate with” (p. 81).

In a vastly growing technological age, Gan, Menkhoff & Smith (2015) notes the role that “mastering interactive digital media” plays in “effective structured collaboration so that students in groups work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning” (p. 1). It is further noted that “Online brainstorming along with team shared documents facilitated new ways of collaboration” (p.3)

Studying in groups form a part of collaboration. Lazar (2019) notes that studying in groups involves “face-to-face transactions” which “offer a way for students to try out the social languages of academic discourse and, in turn, to receive critical and instantaneous feedback from others” (p. 1). Those who participate in study groups “get to develop and support assertions, negotiate meanings, and adjust their ways of thinking” (p. 1).

According to Tierney (2006) “Collaboration” brings “significant changes in” the “professional beliefs” of teachers and influences their “assessment practices” (p. 253). Viggiani & Bailey (2002) points out that collaboration is a concept that is practiced interdisciplinarily or inter-disciplinarily, as in “Social Worker-Teacher Collaboration in the Classroom: Help for Elementary Students at Risk of Failure”, by Viggiani & Bailey (2002). Viggiani & Bailey (2002) reports that collaboration is a concept that is of “value”.

Chapter 4 - The Tools of Cognitive Coaching

Cognitive coaching is noted as a concept that aims to “stimulate and develop a person’s thoughts, emotions, and behaviours and offer methods and strategies that the person can use when the coach is no longer around”. In having researched the experiences of participants with cognitive coaching, Gyllensten, Palmer, Nilsson, Regner & Frodi (2010) “found that cognitive coaching helped participants to change unhelpful thinking and regulate difficult emotions” (p. 98). Participants experienced “increased awareness” of themselves and others. They also discovered “doing things in a new way”, while at the same time gain “new cognitive and emotional knowledge” in “working with their thoughts” and being able to “regulate emotions” (p. 103).

According to Archon (2008), cognitive coaching is an “effective communications tool...”. It “is a communication skill set that enables participants to

transform their abilities to work effectively with others". It is a "set of strategies, a way of thinking, and a way of working that invites partners to shape and reshape their thinking and problem-solving capacities". Cognitive coaching involves "engaging with another person's thinking to enable that person to experience enhanced learning and high performance" (p.11). Overall, within cognitive coaching, individuals are taught to "become a more valuable resource to others" (p. 12). "Cognitive coaching reveals the following benefits: (1) Cognitive Coaching is linked with increased student test scores and other benefits for students, (2) teachers grow in teaching efficacy, (3) cognitive coaching impacts teacher thinking, causing teachers to be more reflective and to think in more complex ways, (4) teachers are more satisfied with their positions and with their choice of teaching as a career, (5) school cultures become more professional, (6) teachers collaborate more often, (7) cognitive coaching assists teachers professionally and (8) cognitive coaching benefits teachers personally (Archon, 2008).

Blair (2017) communicates that the Cognitive Coaching model is to "engage" teachers "in critical reflections about their teaching". Within cognitive coaching the "promise and challenges of nurturing faculty development" are "uncovered". Cognitive Coaching has been proven to be an "effective approach to faculty development" as "participation" facilitates "professional collegiality, personal self-renewal, and pedagogical improvement" *(Blair, 2017).

According to Garmston, Linder & Whittaker (1993, p. 1) cognitive coaching helps "teachers expand their repertoire of teaching styles, exploring untapped resources within themselves". Cognitive coaching "supports" a "teachers' existing strengths while expanding previously unexplored capacities". The "thinking behind" a teacher's "practices" are explored during cognitive coaching (p. 1).

Chapter 8: Flexibility and the Nonjudgmental nature of cognitive coaching approach

Flexibility

Harvey & Kenyon (2013) discusses flexibility within the classroom setting. Usually when we think about flexibility within the classroom, we think about the need for a variety of teaching methods to cater to increased student achievement. Rarely do we deliberately think about flexibility within the context of classroom seating. Flexibility is also needed in classroom seating, as having a variety of seating arrangements will help to encourage student interest and facilitates cooperative learning.

Having a "crowded area hinders movability" and may very well enhance student frustration and discomfort in the learning experience (p. 10). "Flexible, easily configurable seating arrangements within classrooms and the ability to shift from lecture mode to group mode during

a session are attributes desirable in modern classroom design" (p. 3). I do agree with Harvey & Kenyon (2013) in stating that "flexible, comfortable learning spaces that encourage interactive, collaborative work" needs to be "provided" (p. 11).

Rytivaara, (2011) discusses "classroom management in heterogeneous classrooms", through "flexible grouping" (p. 1). "Flexible grouping" says Rytivaara, (2011, p. 1), "can diminish problematic situations traditionally related to heterogeneous classrooms" (p. 1). "flexible grouping" is noted as being "a classroom management strategy" (p. 8).

Interdependence

Interdependence is necessary for the success of the cognitive coaching approach. Laal (2012) discusses "positive interdependence in collaborative learning". Positive interdependence is stated as being when "the success of one person is dependent on the success of the group" or when "the belief of anyone in the group that there is value in working together and that the results of both individual learning and working products would be better when they are done in collaboration" (p. 1433). "Interdependence" reported Laal (2012) "may be positive (cooperation), negative (competition), or none (individualistic efforts)".

Newell-McLymont (2015) stresses the importance of positive interdependence in the "learning community" (p. 61), as opposed to the "negative interdependence" and "none interdependence" that was mentioned in Laal's (2012, p. 1434). Positive interdependence "in a collaboration setting lead individuals to realize that their performances depend on the whole group, not on individuals" reports (Laal, 2012, p. 1435). (Laal, 2012, p. 1434-1435) mentions various types of positive interdependence "in a collaborative situation". Namely: "positive goal interdependence, positive reward interdependence, positive resource interdependence, positive role interdependence, positive identity interdependence, environmental interdependence, positive fantasy interdependence, positive task interdependence, and positive outside enemy interdependence".

Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 61) only describes what is stated in Laal (2012, p. 1434) as 'positive goal interdependence' which "makes the group united around a common goal" (Laal, 2012, p. 1435). Positive reward independence, on the other hand, takes place when "A mutual reward is given for successful group work and members' efforts to achieve it". When group "resources" are "combined in order to accomplish the shared goal. This is positive resource interdependence". "Positive identity interdependence makes unity and cohesion, increasing friendship and affinity through a shared identity expressed upon a common logo, motto, name, flag or song".

“Environmental interdependence means a physical environment that unifies the members of a group in which they work”. “Positive fantasy interdependence takes place by giving an imaginary task to the students that requires members to assume they are in a life-threatening situation and their collaboration is needed to survive”. “Positive task interdependence is the organizing of the group works in a sequential pattern. When the actions of one group member must be accomplished, the next team member can proceed with his/her responsibilities”. “Positive outside enemy interdependence is by putting groups in competition with each other. Group members feel interdependent as they do their best to win the competition” (p. 1435).

Johnson & Johnson (2017) mentions the “social interdependence theory” which they report as an “important theory related to the processes of learning”. The social interdependence theory “posits that there are three ways to structure the learning processes in educational situations: cooperatively, competitively and individualistically” (See also Laal, 2012, p. 1434-1435). At the heart of social interdependence is the concept that “cooperative, compared to competitive and individualistic learning, tends to promote (a) higher levels of achievement, retention and transfer of what is taught; (b) long-term implementation; (c) the internalisation of the required attitudes values and behaviour patterns; (d) the integration of the new procedures into teachers’ professional identity; and (e) membership in the community of practice” (Johnson & Johnson, 2017).

In Kojima’s (2012) discourse on “positive Interdependence for Teacher and Learner Autonomy: The Case of the CARTA Program, emphasis” is placed on preserving EFL (English as a Foreign Language) within the Japanese learning context. In the review on interdependence, it is stated that “the development of learner autonomy is promoted by learner interdependence” (Little, 2000) as cited in Kojima (2012). “Kojima (2012) infers that “group work” and “mutual support might provide an ideal interpersonal environment for the development of autonomy”. Kojima (2012) emphasizes “the development of teacher and learner autonomy through positive interdependence” as exercised in the “collaborative, autonomous, and reflective teaching approach” discussed in the study that was undertaken in the case of the CARTA program.

Consciousness

“Consciousness” as mentioned in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 62), is stated in Henry & Henry (2012, p. 16,33) as one of the five (5) states of mind. Henry & Henry (2012, p. 34) notes “consciousness” as “being aware and having the ability to respond to a variety of cues while keeping yourself and students on task”. Costa, Garmston, Saban, Battaglia, and Brubaker (2003) as

cited in Henry & Henry (2012, p. 34) defines consciousness as “the capacity to monitor and reflect on ourselves. It is the source of self-improvement and distinguishes us from all the other forms of life” (p. 128).

“Conscious people recognize the development of new strategies for thinking (Duell, 1986) as cited in Henry & Henry (2012, p. 35) and make progress towards their goals by monitoring their own thoughts and behaviors” (Costa & Garmston, 1994) as cited in Henry & Henry (2012, p. 35).

V. ESTABLISHING OR EROSION OF TRUST

There are various things that can contribute to an erosion of trust among professionals, or in the teaching profession. Viewing teachers as “managed professionals in the global education industry” as mentioned by Codd (2005) is one of them. Codd (2005, p. 193) relates that “economic rationalism and managerialism, combined with commercialization and globalization, have produced an erosion of trust and a degradation of teaching as a profession”.

According to Jesson (2000, p. 66) as cited in Codd (2005, p. 202) “The state has been responsible for the formation of this teacher, through being able to impose various structures for regulating teachers, such as the performance standards imposed on teachers during an employment contract round”. Codd (2005) notes that “this culture of management produces” a “culture of distrust” within “the school”. Codd (2005) reports that the “contemporary (neo-liberal) culture of accountability distorts the proper aims of professional practice and fosters less, rather than more, trust between professionals and the public”. “The new modes of public accountability”, as mentioned in Codd (2005) “are primarily about control rather than professional integrity” (p. 202). In order to restore the “culture of trust in education”, it “requires”, says Codd (2005, p. 203), “a form of accountability which enhances rather than diminishes the professionalism of teachers”. “Professional accountability” where “the moral agency of the professional is fully acknowledged” (p. 203).

Brien (1998: 396) as cited in Codd (2005, p. 204) “argues that ‘trust is the essential and central element in the development of a professional culture and trustworthiness is the first virtue of professional life’. This is interpreted to mean that “trust breeds more trust and conversely distrust breeds more distrust, producing virtuous or vicious circles”. “The trustworthiness of an individual not only benefits the person, but every other person with whom he or she interacts” (p. 204). This of course would include the teacher-student learning experience.

Trust is noted as a factor in testing “student anxiety” according to Hutchinson & Goodlin (2012). This was based on “student perceptions of teaching behaviors” (p. 1). Researcher Cook (2005), as cited in Hutchinson & Goodlin (2012, p. 1), discovered that “students had lower anxiety levels when they perceived nursing faculty as having inviting teaching behaviors”. “Higher anxiety levels” surfaced when the opposite was the case. “Inviting teaching behaviors included faculty having respect for the students, having friendly and trusting attitudes, and verbalizing enjoyment with students” (p. 1). “When students sense meaningful presence by faculty, a bond of trust can form” (p. 2). This bears positive implication for improved student performance.

We see from the above that trust is a serious issue in both the professional and student learning environment. The “establishment” of “trust” (Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 146) is needed for “professional learning and transformative teacher professionalism” (Mockler, 2005, p. 1). (Mockler (2005) supports Codd (2005) in noting the contribution of “managerialism” (p. 6) to the erosion of trust for teaching professionals. Mockler (2005) also mentions the “appropriation of commercial language” (p. 6) as a contributing factor as well.

“The development of a transformative teaching profession requires a reinstatement of trust, at both a local and a global level, allowing teachers to act with autonomy, to openly acknowledge their learning needs and to work collaboratively with other teachers to constantly develop their understanding and expertise” says Mockler (2005, p. 7). A “transformative teaching profession” says Mockler (2005) is dependent upon the “emergence of leaders who are willing to be transformative themselves” in building “trust”, taking “risks”, and thinking “critically” and “act with integrity” (p. 7).

Fisler & Firestone (2006) explores the “Role of Social Trust and Teaching Efficacy Beliefs”, with respect to “teachers’ levels of learning” (p. 1155). Concluded “that variation in levels of social trust and efficacy among teachers may contribute to differences in teacher learning”. Fisler & Firestone (2006) found that “social trust and teacher efficacy as personal characteristics related to teacher learning outcomes from professional development efforts” (p. 1157).

Coleman (1990, p. 304), as cited in Fisler & Firestone (2006, p. 1158) noted that a “group whose members manifest trustworthiness and place extensive trust in one another will be able to accomplish much more than a comparable group lacking trustworthiness and trust”. When a teacher has “positive efficacy beliefs, coupled with high social trust”, he or she “will” be “lead to support the idea of collective responsibility for student success—the belief that teachers are working toward a common goal for which they are all responsible” (p. 1159).

Like the “school-university partnership” in Coleman (1990) look on social trust, it can be understood as well that “an effective” teacher-teacher-teacher and teacher-student partnership is also “requires extensive teacher learning, with teachers changing their pedagogy and the way that they view their roles in the school”. These partnerships will be affected by the teacher’s “openness to new instructional and school structuring ideas, and willingness to work collaboratively with colleagues....to develop new approaches to teaching”. “Such collaboration”, reports Fisler & Firestone (2006) “requires social trust and positive efficacy beliefs about the value of teaching innovations” (p. 1182).

Transformation as a Result of the Cognitive Coaching Approach

We have discovered so far that collaboration is an integral part of the cognitive coaching approach, as presented in Newell-McLymont 2015, et. al). Lieberman (1990) fittingly explores the theme of “transformation as a result of the cognitive coaching approach in her study on “schools as Collaborative Cultures: Creating the Future Now”. Lieberman (1990) states that there is “power in collaboration”, as it leads to “teacher empowerment, an enhanced sense of professionalism and, indeed, the restructuring of schooling” (p. ix).

“The collaborative school”, notes Lieberman (1990, p. ix), provides a climate and a structure that encourage teachers to work together and with the principal and other administrators toward school improvement and professional growth”. There is transformation were “improved teaching and learning in every classroom” is concerned. Lieberman (1990) reports that “classroom observation has developed as a professional development resource for teachers at work with teachers;” (p. 179). This is at the heart of cognitive coaching. The cognitive approach facilitates transformation in “professional relations”, “when teachers invite observation, seek opportunities to watch others at work or coach one another to master specific new classroom approaches” (p. 188).

We, therefore, see the importance and tremendous benefits that can be had in implementing cognitive coaching within the professional school environment. This in turn, bears resounding positive implications for the student learning environment, as teachers engage in these and other collaborative ventures.

The cognitive coaching approach involves peer coaching. Showers & Joyce (1996, p. 1) states that “peer coaching study teams enhance staff development efforts and offer support for teachers implementing new strategies” (p. 1). “Cognitive coaching” “aims more at “improving existing practices” (Garmston et al. 1993) as cited in Showers & Joyce (1996, p. 3). Cognitive coaching improves or change “classroom instruction” (Showers & Joyce (1996, p. 3).

VI. MAKING MEANING/INTERPRETATION

Collaboration within the classroom, collegiality among teachers during professional learning experiences (PLE) has been identified as the meaningful concepts in chapter two. These are vital ingredients which are needed to foster better working conditions and enhanced professional relationships. These are identified as being needed to improve teaching, practice, and to acquire better results in student achievement.

Coaching has been used in multiple contexts. In coaching, teachers work together in teams to study instruction. (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 20). Also, professional learning experiences are significant as because she promotes freedom of self-expression.

It must be noted that the book is excellently structured. Each chapter of the book presents an introduction. However, it is believed that the table of contents needs some slight editing.

We value the professional learning experiences in chapter two. According to Mrs. Scott, as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 22). Professional learning experiences “impels us to work together in all contexts. It endeavours to build communication and foster greater teamwork among us as colleagues”. Professional Learning Experiences are also important because if everyone is moving forward together, then success takes care of itself.

We value the collaborative nature of the professional learning experiences during the seminars. It helped create an ambiance that empowered participants to express their thoughts freely. Everyone had a voice and was heard. Everyone's ideas were valued and respected. We see educational experiences impacting teachers because it has the potential to lead to personal and professional growth. Teachers experience professional growth when they begin to examine and question their teaching practices as well as those of others. Teachers become interested when someone has an exciting new idea for exploration.

We have identified the meaningful concepts in chapter four as: the tools of cognitive coaching, the diagnostic tools of cognitive coaching, self-efficacy, and consciousness. “The goals of cognitive coaching are to help individuals to become self-directed and autonomous, and effective mediators who will help others to become self-directed” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p.43). Coaching has become increasingly necessary in today's time. It is being used for both personal and professional development. Coaching helps to build a positive and concrete change in individuals and to boost the transfer of knowledge from the coach to the individual.

“Cognitive coaching can be a useful tool for meeting the needs of the organization, for managing change and for achieving positive outcomes on employee performance” Barner & Higgins (2007). They can be seen as meeting the needs of an organization by helping members of the organization align themselves with the core values of the organization.

We value the effects of coaching on self-efficacy and self-esteem. We also value the use of the tools of cognitive coaching. These tools of cognitive coaching serve as a vehicle for addressing the need for an alternate approach for teaching and learning. That is, these tools serve as an approach and not just a method of teaching.

In this chapter we see educational experiences of cognitive coaching impacting the outcomes of the employees. Also, according to Cameron (2007), mentoring can be defined as the ability to help the individuals acquire the skills necessary to do their job and possibly further their career through induction, personal development and personal change.”

According to Newell - McLymont (2015), cognitive coaching enhances the teacher's intellectual capacities; as a result, the intellectual achievements of their students are also enhanced. In this regard, mentoring is used most often to help people transition between career stages. It is invaluable as a tool to support individuals who are being fast tracked or accelerated into more senior leadership roles, particularly as it can focus on developing the whole person and has a wider-angled lens than mentoring. Mentoring can promote mutual learning to challenge and stimulate employees at all levels within the organization (Cameron, 2007).

We have identified the meaningful concepts in chapter eight as the non-judgmental atmosphere of the coaching approach, the establishment or the erosion of trust in the teaching learning context and also transformation as a result of the non-judgmental context of the coaching approach. “The cognitive coaching approach is a flexible approach for teaching and learning” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 135). We think it is important because coaching allows for flexibility, and non-judgmentalism. Coaching exercises are meaningful because they make us relax.

The coaching approach allows new practitioners to set and achieve goals for their job. We also value the exercise of Mr Lenox and Mrs. Scott (participants). They help us to understand more about transformation as a result of the non-judgmental context of the coaching approach.

We value that the coaching approach engendered trust. Also, the coaching approach brought about a transformation from a formal, individualized, and isolated world to one that manifested itself in professional understanding and caring, in the building of trust, and in

empowering teachers to be in command of the teaching and learning context.

In the chapter Eight we see the educational experiences of the coaching approach impacting “the mechanism for new practitioners to transfer the knowledge and skills learned in the classroom to real-world practice under the guidance of an experienced professionals” (Napolitano & Henderson (2011, p. 10). Mr. Lenox (participant) as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015), explains that “the positive judgmental words might be motivating and encouraging to the students”.

VII. CONCLUSION

Making Judgments/ Evaluation

Chapter Two of Newell-McLymont (2015) explores the theme of collaboration within the classroom context as a means of addressing the educational experience of teachers. This is done to enhance growth and development. Collaboration helps to “improve” the “instructional effectiveness” of “teachers” (p. 17). As teachers step away from “teacher isolation” they are led to “collegiality” or “collaboration” during professional learning experiences which “fosters change” and leads to “improved relationships (p. 17). The professional learning experiences are significant to us because it promotes freedom of self-expression.

Chapter Four deals with the tools of cognitive coaching. We have learned that cognitive coaching takes place when there are “interactions between a coach and a coachee through skillful application and use of specific tools and maps, while incorporating the values and beliefs integral to mediation” (Costa and Garmston (2002), as cited in Newell-McLymont (2015, p. 42). Cognitive coaching “promotes teacher reflection and the enhancement of teachers’ intellectual growth.” It is a “clinical approach” to “supervision” as it emphasizes collegiality that aids the professional growth of a responsible teacher who is analytical about his or her performance, open to help from others, and self-directive” (p. 42). This cognitive approach is the richness that is needed in the educational experience for growth and development for teacher to bond with each other in a real and professional way due to it collegiality and the trust that it gives to coach and coachee.

Chapter eight talks about the fact that the cognitive coaching approach is both flexible and non-judgmental. The “cognitive coaching approach is a flexible approach for teaching and learning. It is “non-judgmental” in nature. As a result, “trust can be established, and transformation can be experienced in the teaching and learning context” (Newell-McLymont, 2015, p. 135). Where teacher-student relation is concerned, “whatever path a student may use to come up with a

solution, the teacher can see it as valid or invalid and will be able to offer the necessary suggestions concerning its correctness” when he or she is non-judgmental (p. 138). We believe that the educational experience of the learner is appropriately addressed in this critical analysis for the growth and development for the reader to be encouraged, the flexibility and non-judgemental nature is established by the amount of trust that is experience by both the teacher and the learner.

We agreed with the way in which each concept was individually addressed for understanding and clarity in our research and study. It is tough to disagree with facts that were so plain and simple to explore. In our opinion, these three chapters were indeed scholastic and allowed us the opportunity to engage in deep thoughts as we interacted with new and different material for the growth and development of self and others. This assignment made us more open to the broad field of research that is out there for us to engage in as educators. In order to enrich our students and colleagues we must interact with them in a meaningful, and collaborative way. While isolation allows for contemplation, it does not promote, or truly enhance personal and cooperative growth and development. We must confess that most of the concepts and content were thoroughly researched by researchers. They aided in our understanding and learning. Moreover, this educational experience has started to benefit us in our different areas as educators and we have seen growth in the way collaboration is now done. This is uniquely facilitated with the use of the tools of cognitive coaching. We recognize that being flexible and non-judgmental are paramount concepts to explore and practice on a regular basis. Finally, we can make meaningful interpretations., which will bear fruitage as we continue in our respective areas, and there is cooperation in the professional teaching, but student learning environment as well.

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