

		to mention the purpose of classroom management	
2.	Understanding of how it is to be a good teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The students are able to explain characteristics of a good teacher 	How to be a good teacher
3.	Understanding of the teacher's roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The students are able to identify what teacher's roles are • The students are able to create lessons that encourage teachers to do various roles 	Understanding teacher's role
4.	Understanding of the learner's roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The students are able to identify learner's roles • The students are able to design lesson that will encourage a particular role 	Understanding learner's roles
5.	Understanding of the learner's learning styles and strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students understand different learner's learning styles • Students understand different learner's learning strategies 	Understanding learner's learning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning style • Learning strategies
6.	Understanding and demonstrating how to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students are able to explain reasons why good rapport is 	Building Rapport

Chapter 1

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Introduction

This chapter focuses on basic concept of classroom management. This includes the ideal descriptions of classroom atmospheres and the definition as well as the purposes of classroom management. It is expected that this chapter will help the students to understand how an English language classroom looks and feels like to the students and the reasons behind it.

The students' understanding of the topic will be empowered through a critical discussion and analysis done in groups. The students will be asked to think through the definitions and purposes of classroom management, what classroom management covers, how classroom management can be done in Indonesian classroom settings and also its advantages as well as the challenges that might occur.

As a practice, the students will have critically discuss the possible challenges that might occur in different classroom management's aspects and what are the possible solutions. This process is done with the expectation that the students will get more idea of how real classroom situations are and how to work with it.

Lesson Plan

Basic Competence

Understanding the basic concept of classroom management.

Indicators

At the end of the lecture, the students are expected to be able to:

1. Describe ideal classroom atmospheres
2. Understand the definition of classroom management
3. The students are able to mention the purpose of classroom management

Time Allocation

2x50 minutes

3. Regroup the students so in the new groups consist at least one member from each skill group.
4. Students share the results of their discussion with their new groups
5. Teacher encourage the students to provide solutions to the other members' problems and discuss whether the solutions might work or not.

Table 1.1: Problems and Solutions

Skill	Problems	Possible Solutions
Speaking		
Listening		
Reading		
Writing		
Grammar		
Vocabulary		

Description of the Material

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management is everything that the teacher does and prepare to organize students, space, time and materials so that student learning can take place (Wong and Wong). It is somehow a more specific term for the organizational talent in setting up a good learning /teaching environment. Since teachers most likely teach in a classroom, this skill is called "classroom management"

In classroom management, teachers need to establish good control of the class. This means that teachers should know what they are doing in the class and be consistent with it, they should establish classroom rules and procedures, and they also need to know their professional responsibilities in a language classroom.

This is important because "student perceptions of their learning environment and emotions experienced within the subject" will result in positive achievement. These perceptions includes teacher enthusiasm and elaborative instructions, which will eventually boost students' enjoyment

4. *Isolation*. FL teachers experience more than teachers of other subjects feelings of isolation resulting from the absence of colleagues teaching the same subject.
5. *The need for outside support for learning the subject*. For effective instruction, FL teachers must seek ways of providing extracurricular activities through which naturalistic learning environments can be created. Such activities are less of a necessity in other subjects.

While the work on disciplinary characteristics discussed above provides the main theoretical motivation for this study, research on the good language teacher is also relevant here in highlighting ways in which language teachers' characteristics have been conceptualized. Girard (1977), for example, presented a list based on the views of language learners and which included items such as: makes his course interesting, teaches good pronunciation, explains clearly, speaks good English, shows the same interest in all the pupils, makes the pupils participate and shows great patience. Prodromou (1991) presented a much longer list of characteristics valued by learners; examples cited were friendly, gave good notes, played games, told jokes, did not push weak learners and was more like a comedian. Brosh (1996) identified the desirable characteristics of the effective language teacher as perceived by foreign language teachers and students in Israel. The following five characteristics emerged overall as those felt to be most desirable by the participants in this study:

1. knowledge and command of the target language;
2. ability to organize, explain and clarify, as well as to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students;
3. fairness to students by showing neither favouritism nor prejudice;
4. availability to students.

It should be noted that the majority of items appearing here reflect the results of research into the characteristics of good teachers more generally (see, for example, studies by Hay McBer, 2000; Walls *et al.*, 2002). This is not particularly surprising as language teachers are after all teachers and will therefore embody characteristics of the teaching profession more generally. Also, the purpose of these studies was not so much to define what was *distinctive* about language teachers but to identify what learners and teachers felt were *effective* or *desirable* characteristics. None the less, this research does highlight a range of issues which may be relevant to the study of language teachers' distinctive characteristics. Particularly salient here are references to teachers' personal characteristics; additionally, there are many references to characteristics related to teachers' knowledge, skills and attitudes towards the learners.

Defining the Effective Teacher

(an excerpt from Markley, T. (2004). *Defining the effective teacher: Current arguments in education*. *Essays in Education*, 11(3), p. 1-14)

Research offered a plethora of definitions of an effective teacher. Clark (1993, p. 10) wrote that, “Obviously, the definition involves someone who can increase student knowledge, but it goes beyond this in defining an effective teacher.” Vogt (1984) related effective teaching to the ability to provide instruction to different students of different abilities while incorporating instructional objectives and assessing the effective learning mode of the students. Collins (1990), while working with the Teacher Assessment Project established five criteria for an effective teacher: (a) is committed to students and learning, (b) knows the subject matter, (c) is responsible for managing students, (d) can think systematically about their own practice, and (e) is a member of the learning community (Clark, p. 11).

Swank, Taylor, Brady, and Frieberg (1989) created a model of effectiveness that was based upon teacher actions. For them, *effective* meant increasing academic questions and decreasing lecture and ineffective practices, such as negative feedback and low-level questions. The authors believed that these factors become easily identifiable in the assessment of performance. Million (1987) based effectiveness on the lesson design and method of delivery. If teachers met a preset list of criteria during their evaluation, they were deemed effective. Papanastasiou (1999) stated “that no single teacher attribute or characteristic is adequate to define an effective teacher” (p. 6).

Wenglinsky (2000) believed that the classroom practices are important to learning. In his research, Wenglinsky (2000) found that what happens in the classroom is critical and that how a teacher teaches is important. Practices that promote higher order thinking and active participation are most successful. The problem is to translate this knowledge into an acceptable evaluation procedure. Clark (1993) pointed out that “One area that was avoided by most authors was the idea of using student achievement as a measure of effectiveness” (p. 12).

Researchers appear to have taken student achievement for granted; they have believed that effective teaching techniques would automatically yield positive student achievement. Only recently has research seriously begun to look at achievement data. As Clark (1993) pointed out, the problem is determining how best to measure student achievement. The research of Sanders (Sanders, 1996, 1999; Sanders, Wright, & Horn, 1997) and others at the University of Tennessee and of Wenglinsky (2000) offered a possible solution to this question. Their work demonstrated that teacher effectiveness can be measured and may be critical to student success. Both

Sanders' (1999) and Wenglinsky's (2000) work asserted that teacher effectiveness is the single biggest contributor to student success. Teacher effectiveness outweighs all other factors, such as class size, socioeconomic status, and gender.

Sanders and his associates used data from the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) database to run multivariate analyses of students who took the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program test. The results of their longitudinal study showed that teacher effectiveness is both "additive and cumulative with little evidence of compensatory effects" (Sanders & Rivers, 1996, p. 1). Sanders, Wright and Horn (1997), who followed up the original work of Sanders (1978), found that successive years with effective teachers created an "extreme educational advantage" (p. 3). Conversely, successive years of an ineffective teacher placed students at an extreme disadvantage due to the cumulative effects of poor instruction.

Minority students suffered the most. African American students were twice as likely to be assigned to ineffective teachers (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Wenglinsky (2000) built on the work of Sanders and Rivers (1996) and others by trying to identify practices that improve student outcomes. Data from the eighth-grade science report of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) provided the basis for this study.

Wenglinsky (2000) acknowledged that this snapshot limited his study, thus providing avenues for additional research. The research showed that teacher input, professional development, and classroom practices all influence student achievement. The most significant of the three areas was classroom practices, especially those geared toward high-order thinking (Wenglinsky). Darling-Hammond (2000) studied data from the 1993-1994 Schools and Staffing Surveys and the NAEP data to gauge teacher effectiveness. The results indicated that states, such as North Carolina, that invested heavily in improvements to teacher quality and student accountability showed the greatest gains on NAEP assessments. Not all researchers were convinced that teachers provide measurable input into student gains. English researcher Goldstein (2001) asserted, "In secondary schools, it is very difficult to ascribe the progress of any one pupil in a given subject to the teacher of that subject" (p. 4).

Instead, other factors influence the student, such as other teachers, student background, and school setting. Citing Gray (1979) and Saunders (1978) as well as his own work, British researcher Long (2000) concluded that there is no established connection between teaching and learning. Long stated that "Findings from a number of different areas therefore consistently indicate that there is little variation between teachers in terms of their impact on pupil's progress" (p. 7).

learning opportunities. Furthermore, it may prevent us from seeing “the fuller, more complicated realities of these students’ lives” (Gutiérrez & Orellana, 2006, p. 504) in the classroom where ELLs portray and position themselves while interacting with teachers and peers.

The central purpose of this article is to present a study of regular classroom teachers’ views of their roles and their approaches to working with ELLs. The theoretical framework for the study is positioning theory (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999), which is described in more detail below. In this study I focused on the dynamics of classrooms in which the teachers interact with ELLs, with a special focus on how teachers offer or limit opportunities for the students’ participation in classroom activities.

As presented in the model, some roles require more language professional expertise and others more educational expertise. Some roles have more direct face-to-face contact with students and others less. The roles are presented in a ‘competing values’ framework – they may convey conflicting messages, eg providing information or encouraging independent learning, helping the student or examining their competence.

The role model framework is of use in the assessment of the needs for staff to implement a curriculum, in the appointment and promotion of teachers and in the organisation of a staff development programme.

Some teachers will have only one role. Most teachers will have several roles. All roles, however, need to be represented in an institution or teaching organisation. This has implications for the appointment of staff and for staff training. Where there are insufficient numbers of appropriately trained existing staff to meet a role requirement, staff must be reassigned to the role, where this is possible, and the necessary training provided. Alternatively if this is not possible or deemed desirable, additional staff need to be recruited for the specific purpose of fulfilling the role identified. A ‘role profile’ needs to be negotiated and agreed with staff at the time of their appointment and this should be reviewed on a regular basis.

Lesson Plan

Basic Competence

Understanding teacher’s roles especially those working with English language learners.

Learning Activities

Opening Activities (15 minutes)

1. Explaining basic competence
2. Explaining indicators
3. Explaining learning activities of this chapter
4. Brainstorming by asking the students of their opinion on what are the most important roles of a teacher that they know and why.

Main Activities (70 minutes)

1. Students are introduced to the term “teacher role”. Excerpt from Choudhury (2011) can be used to help both the lecturer and the students to figure out what roles are.

ROLES OF THE INSTRUCTOR	
TRADITIONAL	CONSTRUCTIVIST
Sage-on-the-stage	Coach
Chalk-and-talk	Mentor
Banker	Midwife
Dispenser of knowledge	Facilitator
Teacher	Co-learner / Collaborator
Script reader	Curriculum Developer
Soloist	Team member
Isolationist	Community builder

Adapted from "Constructivism and its implications for educators" by A. A. Christie, Ph.D.

2. Students are then divided into some small groups. Each group is given strips containing the roles of teachers now and then. In their groups, the students should re-arrange the roles based on the criteria of “Traditional Teacher Roles” and “Constructivist Teacher Roles”.
3. When the activity is finished, lecturer provides feedback for the students’ answers.
4. Lecturer asks the students to discuss in their groups the meanings and examples of each roles provided in the previous exercise.
5. Discussion and feedback

Table 7.1: scores for roles identification and analysis

Group	Score						
I							
II							
III							
IV							
V							
VI							
VII							
VIII							

Description:

90 = very good 80 = good 70 = enough 60 = minus

Description of the Material**The notion of 'role' and teacher roles in ELT**

(an excerpt from Choudhury, A M. 2011)

The term "role", as Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) point out, is a technical term "which originally comes from sociology and refers to the shared expectation of how an individual should behave. In other words, roles describe what people are supposed to do" (p. 109). In the domain of English Language Teaching (ELT), several methodologists (Littlewood, 1981; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Tudor, 1993; Harmer, 2001) have suggested many potential roles for a language teacher. Richards and Rodgers (1986) consider teacher roles as part of the "design" component of a method, pointing out that these are related to the following issues:

- (a) the types of function teachers are expected to fulfill,
- (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place,
- (c) the degree to which is the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught, and
- (d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners (p. 24).

Littlewood (1981) conceptualizes the role of the language teacher broadly as the "facilitator of learning" (p. 92) in the context of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) instead of the rather narrow concept of the

“teacher as instructor”. According to Littlewood, a teacher’s role as a facilitator entails the sub-roles of an “overseer” of student’s learning, a “classroom manager”, a “consultant” or “adviser”, and sometimes, a “co-communicator” with the learners. Harmer (2001) looks at the term “facilitator” in a much broader way than Littlewood does, and points out that the ultimate aim of all roles is to facilitate the students’ progress in some way or the other. He talks about using certain “precise” terms for the roles that teachers play in the classroom: controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. Tudor (1993) looks at the role of the teacher in the context of the notion of the learner-centred classroom, a kind of classroom in which the focus is on the active involvement of the learners in the learner process. However, before considering what entails the role of the teacher in such a changed view of the classroom, it is worthwhile to have look at the traditional roles that an English language teacher has been performing. This is important for us if we want to understand the factors which have necessitated a change in the perspective, and if we want to consider to the extent to which that change is acceptable in a particular context.

Understanding Teacher’s Roles

(an excerpt from Harrison and Killion, 2007)

Teacher leaders assume a wide range of roles to support school and student success. Whether these roles are assigned formally or shared informally, they build the entire school's capacity to improve. Because teachers can lead in a variety of ways, many teachers can serve as leaders among their peers. So what are some of the leadership options available to teachers? The following 10 roles are a sampling of the many ways teachers can contribute to their schools' success.

1. Resource Provider

Teachers help their colleagues by sharing instructional resources. These might include Web sites, instructional materials, readings, or other resources to use with students. They might also share such professional resources as articles, books, lesson or unit plans, and assessment tools.

Tinisha becomes a resource provider when she offers to help Carissa, a new staff member in her second career, set up her classroom. Tinisha gives Carissa extra copies of a number line for her students to use, signs to post on the wall that explain to students how to get help when the teacher is busy, and the grade-level language arts pacing guide.

Tracy, the world studies team leader, works with the five language arts and five social studies teachers in her school. Using standards in English and social studies as their guides, the team members agree to increase the consistency in their classroom curriculums and administer common assessments. Tracy suggests that the team develop a common understanding of the standards and agrees to facilitate the development and analysis of common quarterly assessments.

4. Classroom Supporter

Classroom supporters work inside classrooms to help teachers implement new ideas, often by demonstrating a lesson, coteaching, or observing and giving feedback. Blase and Blase (2006) found that consultation with peers enhanced teachers' self-efficacy (teachers' belief in their own abilities and capacity to successfully solve teaching and learning problems) as they reflected on practice and grew together, and it also encouraged a bias for action (improvement through collaboration) on the part of teachers. (p. 22)

Marcia asks Yolanda for classroom support in implementing nonlinguistic representation strategies, such as graphic organizers, manipulatives, and kinesthetic activities (Marzano et al., 2001). Yolanda agrees to plan and teach a lesson with Marcia that integrates several relevant strategies. They ask the principal for two half-days of professional release time, one for learning more about the strategy and planning a lesson together, and the other for coteaching the lesson to Marcia's students and discussing it afterward.

5. Learning Facilitator

Facilitating professional learning opportunities among staff members is another role for teacher leaders. When teachers learn with and from one another, they can focus on what most directly improves student learning. Their professional learning becomes more relevant, focused on teachers' classroom work, and aligned to fill gaps in student learning. Such communities of learning can break the norms of isolation present in many schools.

Frank facilitates the school's professional development committee and serves as the committee's language arts representative. Together, teachers plan the year's professional development program using a backmapping model (Killion, 2001). This model begins with identifying student learning needs, teachers' current level of knowledge and skills in the target areas, and types of learning opportunities that different groups

of teachers need. The committee can then develop and implement a professional development plan on the basis of their findings.

6. Mentor

Serving as a mentor for novice teachers is a common role for teacher leaders. Mentors serve as role models; acclimate new teachers to a new school; and advise new teachers about instruction, curriculum, procedure, practices, and politics. Being a mentor takes a great deal of time and expertise and makes a significant contribution to the development of a new professional.

Ming is a successful teacher in her own 1st grade classroom, but she has not assumed a leadership role in the school. The principal asks her to mentor her new teammate, a brand-new teacher and a recent immigrant from the Philippines. Ming prepares by participating in the district's three-day training on mentoring. Her role as a mentor will not only include helping her teammate negotiate the district, school, and classroom, but will also include acclimating her colleague to the community. Ming feels proud as she watches her teammate develop into an accomplished teacher.

7. School Leader

Being a school leader means serving on a committee, such as a school improvement team; acting as a grade-level or department chair; supporting school initiatives; or representing the school on community or district task forces or committees. A school leader shares the vision of the school, aligns his or her professional goals with those of the school and district, and shares responsibility for the success of the school as a whole.

Joshua, staff sponsor of the student council, offers to help the principal engage students in the school improvement planning process. The school improvement team plans to revise its nearly 10-year-old vision and wants to ensure that students' voices are included in the process. Joshua arranges a daylong meeting for 10 staff members and 10 students who represent various views of the school experience, from nonattenders to grade-level presidents. Joshua works with the school improvement team facilitator to ensure that the activities planned for the meeting are appropriate for students so that students will actively participate.

8. Data Coach

Although teachers have access to a great deal of data, they do not often use that data to drive classroom instruction. Teacher leaders can lead conversations that engage their peers in analyzing and using this information to strengthen instruction.

Carol, the 10th grade language arts team leader, facilitates a team of her colleagues as they look at the results of the most recent writing sample, a teacher-designed assessment given to all incoming 10th grade students. Carol guides teachers as they discuss strengths and weaknesses of students' writing performance as a group, as individuals, by classrooms, and in disaggregated clusters by race, gender, and previous school. They then plan instruction on the basis of this data.

9. Catalyst for Change

Teacher leaders can also be catalysts for change, visionaries who are “never content with the status quo but rather always looking for a better way” (Larner, 2004, p. 32). Teachers who take on the catalyst role feel secure in their own work and have a strong commitment to continual improvement. They pose questions to generate analysis of student learning.

In a faculty meeting, Larry expresses a concern that teachers may be treating some students differently from others. Students who come to him for extra assistance have shared their perspectives, and Larry wants teachers to know what students are saying. As his colleagues discuss reasons for low student achievement, Larry challenges them to explore data about the relationship between race and discipline referrals in the school. When teachers begin to point fingers at students, he encourages them to examine how they can change their instructional practices to improve student engagement and achievement.

10. Learner

Among the most important roles teacher leaders assume is that of learner. Learners model continual improvement, demonstrate lifelong learning, and use what they learn to help all students achieve.

Manuela, the school's new bilingual teacher, is a voracious learner. At every team or faculty meeting, she identifies something new that she is trying in her classroom. Her willingness to explore new strategies is infectious. Other teachers, encouraged by her willingness to discuss what works and what doesn't, begin to talk about their teaching and how it influences student learning. Faculty and team meetings become a forum in which teachers learn from one another. Manuela's commitment to and

Chapter 4

Understanding Active Learner's Roles

Introduction

Teaching and learning are seen as social activities, implying role relationships between teacher and learner, as well as between learner and learner. Individuals, groups and organisations also have roles and responsibilities in the assessment of the lesson and learning process.

As the roles of teacher have been described in the previous chapter, the next big question is: what are the roles of a learner in general, and in language learning environment to be specific. The concept of what teacher and learner roles in a classroom should be has been shaped by many factors. This becomes significant because our general beliefs and attitudes about education and the role of knowledge will influence our choice and design of teaching materials, hence, the lesson and learning process we are going to conduct.



https://alexisjosephsonswoboda.files.wordpress.com/2011/11/larger_cartoon_classroom.jpg?w=640

This chapter discusses the roles of an active language learner and what can be done to boost the students' motivation so that they can become more active language learners.

Steps

1. Ask the students to stay in the groups they were in during the first activity.
2. They will do a small research on
 - a. different kinds of settings where components of the students (errors, mistakes, pronunciation, behavior, etc) can be used to improve both the learners themselves and the language classroom.
 - b. the comparison between the roles of an active language learners in some particular era, with the one in the current era.
3. Have the students create a mini paper along with a PowerPoint presentation about the small research they have done.
4. When possible, ask the students to present the result of the small research to the class and upload the material as well as the PowerPoint slides up online (it can be done on the university e-learning websites or other websites that the lecturer have set up for the students).

Table 4.2. Scoring Rubric for Oral Presentations

Category	Scoring Criteria	Total Points	Score
Organization (15 points)	The type of presentation is appropriate for the topic and audience.	5	
	Information is presented in a logical sequence.	5	
	Presentation appropriately cites requisite number of references.	5	
Content	Introduction is attention-getting, lays out the problem well, and establishes a framework for the rest of the presentation.	5	
	Technical terms are well-defined in	5	

While Lindsay and Knight (2006) made the effort to see active language learners from vocabulary improvement perspective, Chateau and Zumbihl (2001) conducted a study to view the changing roles of language learners as well as their teachers', in the setting of the improvement of the information technology. As revealed by this study, specific items may have an impact on the roles played by tutors and learners in flexible language learning systems, i.e. students' anxiety in relation with their language learning, their adaptability to new roles, collaborative learning and the centrality of the teacher-learner relationship. In this action-research however, the designers of the system also played the role of tutors, which may not be ideal, and may be the reason why some students have difficulties in understanding that the tutors are at their disposal to help them and to give them advice. It is nevertheless often the case in similar systems as indicated by Riley (1986), because of institutional constraints. Even if we could notice a progression in the learners' representations of the actors' roles which could lead to more autonomy for some students, students still have traditional representations especially regarding the tutors' roles and this could be an obstacle towards more autonomy in this specific context. Therefore, students' understanding of the tutors' role of guidance and counselling should be reinforced, through a better explanation of the actors' roles during the introductory practice session, as well as by encouraging them to meet the tutors earlier in the semester so that they understand that the tutors are here to offer support in their language learning process. Generally indeed, meeting the tutor face-to-face induces a change in students' representations. Dialogue between learners and tutors is thus central in order to help learners change the representations that may block their autonomization process.

therefore sometimes called “perceiving.” They take L2 learning less seriously, treating it like a game to be enjoyed rather than a set of tasks to be completed. Open learners dislike deadlines; they want to have a good time and seem to soak up L2 information by osmosis rather than hard effort. Open learners sometimes do better than closure-oriented learners in developing fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989), but they are at a disadvantage in a traditional classroom setting. Closure-oriented and open learners provide a good balance for each other in the L2 classroom. The former are the task-driven learners, and the latter know how to have fun. Skilled L2 teachers sometimes consciously create cooperative groups that include both types of learners, since these learners can benefit from collaboration with each other.

Desired Degree of Generality This strand contrasts the learner who focuses on the main idea or big picture with the learner who concentrates on details. Global or holistic students like socially interactive, communicative events in which they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analysis of grammatical minutiae. They are comfortable even when not having all the information and they feel free to guess from the context. Analytic students tend to concentrate on grammatical details and often avoid more free-flowing communicative activities. Because of their concern for precision, analytic learners typically do not take the risks necessary for guessing from the context unless they are fairly sure of the accuracy of their guesses. The global student and the analytic student have much to learn from each other. A balance between generality and specificity is very useful for L2 learning.

Biological Differences

Differences in L2 learning style can also be related to biological factors, such as biorhythms, sustenance, and location. Biorhythms reveal the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. Some L2 learners are

Chapter 6

BUILDING RAPPORT



Introduction

Building teacher-student rapport is an important aspect of a language classroom because it can help both the teacher to deliver the materials easier and for the students to learn better. It can make the difference when teaching, especially in a second language. Developing rapport- including building trust, using humour and getting to know the students outside of the classroom- can not only help to better understand the background of students but can also help with classroom management and instruction. In the case studies many of our teacher friends mention the fact that getting to know the students is important. At the same time however, some of these teachers also express some challenges in building rapport, especially when using the target language.

This chapter focuses on the the importance of building rapport in a class, why it should be done and how to do it for better result. The discussion and activities are expected to help the students to get better understanding on building teacher-students rapport which is one of the skills that a language teacher needs to master. By knowing and understanding the process of building rapport, the students are expected to be able to analyze the context of an English language classroom in Indonesia and how it is best to build rapport with the Inonesian students.

The activities covered in this chapter will include group works, role play, as well as individual activity in which the students are asked to think individually the best solution of some problems to rapport building. Think-Pair-Share technique will also be applied.

Rapport is the “ability to maintain harmonious relationships based on affinity for others” (Faranda and Clarke, 2004). Affinity or affinity seeking is defined as “the active socialcommunicative process by which individuals attempt to get others to like and to feel positive toward them” (Bell and Daly, 1984). Why is rapport important in the classroom? Rapport is the interpersonal side of teaching. It is what makes the teacher more than just a lecturer. Rapport involves knowing your students and their learning styles and using your relationship with them to teach at a more personal level. Teachers who have good rapport with their students are skilled in “ways that encourage involvement, commitment, and interest” (Ramsden, 2003). Ultimately, like children, students need to think that you care before they care what you think.

Although most teachers’ only interaction with the students is during class time, Swenson stated that “rapport is an interpersonal relationship that can be enhanced both in the classroom and outside” (2010). There is a vast body of research in the literature that discusses student rapport and its effect on students in traditional education environments as well as in distance and blended learning settings. Rapport is generally believed to have a positive effect on learning but it has had mixed reviews in end of course surveys. It can be hard to quantifiable judge how creating rapport will enhance teacher effectiveness or student learning.

According to Hadfield (1992), the concrete characteristics of a healthy group are:

1. A positive, supportive atmosphere: members have a positive self image which is reinforced by the group, so that they feel secure enough to express their individuality.
2. Group members are not cliquy or territorial but interact happily with all members of the group.

Chapter 7

EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM LAYOUTS

Introduction

Every teacher likes to arrange their classroom layout for the largest student benefit. Students need to focus and see what is going on in the classroom at any given time. Their seating arrangement can help or hinder a student's learning. Although no perfect arrangement exists for all situations, a classroom layout may need to change based on what a student needs are and how the class material is being presented. It is important for a teacher to establish a classroom structure from the very first session and adapt accordingly to facilitate lessons, promote discussions, encourage group activities, or solve any behavioral problems. Keeping a classroom motivated and in order is more than trying different teaching styles and methods.

This chapter focuses on effective classroom layouts and the different functions of each layout serves. It is expected that this chapter will help the students to have better understanding on how the effectiveness of a class can be supported by different kinds of classroom layouts and how they can provide the language learners with various interaction patterns.

The students understanding on this topic will be empowered by the analysis of the challenges and benefits of each classroom layout serve in the setting of English language classrooms in Indonesia. Group work as well as individual activities will be employed to provide the students with real experiences on how different classroom layouts affect the language teaching and learning process.

Lesson Plan

Basic Competence

Understanding of different classroom layouts and their purposes

Indicators

At the end of the lecture, the students are expected to be able to:

1. mention different classroom layouts and their different purposes

PAIRS



Having the students sit in pairs seating arrangement is when the two student desks are together and spaced away from other pairs. This arrangement allows the teacher to walk around the classroom and monitor all the students. The tables are placed in well-organized rows but in pairs of two. The teacher can see all students clearly and can walk around without any problems. Pairs allow the students to work together and independently. The main advantage of this arrangement is that the students can work together in pairs. They can help each other and motivate each other. Working in pairs can be very beneficial for the students. Besides, this arrangement is beneficial for working in group of four. This method is recommended when teaching young children. Make sure that the teacher keep control of the class. Students have the opportunity to talk to each other so if they get bored it will be noisy.

GROUPS / CLUSTERS



This arrangement consists of a small number of students sitting together in a

Summary

From the material description, it can be summarized by these several following points:

1. It is necessary to change classroom layouts at some point of the semester (or whenever necessary) to cater not only the students need to have different kinds of interaction patter, but also to provide the students with different classroom atmosphere in order to reduce boredom.
2. Teacher needs to consider different classroom layouts based on (a) the size of the class, (b) the kinds of furniture available in the classroom, and (c) the students' activities for the lessons.
3. Different classroom layouts consist of (a) orderly rows, (b) pairs, (c) group/clusters, and (d) horseshoes/semi-circle

Exercises

Answer these following questions.

1. What are the functions of these classroom layouts?
 - a. Rows
 - b. Groups/clusters
 - c. Semi-circle
2. When do you think is the best time to make changes to the classroom layout?

Reference

- McCroskey, J. C., & McVetta, R. W. (1978). Classroom seating arrangements: instructional communication theory versus student preferences. *Communication Education*, 27, 99-111. (ES). Retireved from: <http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/082.pdf>
- Scrivener, J. (2012). *Classroom Management Techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

language, and monitoring of student output. (Price, cited in Rivers, 1987:155) Moreover, Price (cited in Rivers, 1987:155) states that we need the many technologies at our disposal to present language effectively in the context in which it occurs. We can present language and monitor our language in more than one medium. Changing the usual medium of presentation and feedback is an important key to interesting and creatively in teaching.

The instructional devices prepared by the teacher take the centre stage in this teaching methodology. The teaching aids are used to provide a concrete experience about the lesson for the children since they are seen or hear or both. Modern classroom which are equipped with audio – visual equipment and a rich collection of audio-visual materials for learning enable the teacher to plan ideal teaching-learning scenarios. Today the teaching of some special topics in language education is facilitated through tape recordings, radio programs and television lessons. The internet also has played a very important role in changing the ways teachers view teaching and learning process.

Kinds of Media

Media is divided into four groups, they are:

1. Visual

Visual aids are primarily those selected, controlled visual experience, which are presented to the learner for the purpose of providing him with a true and accurate visual picture such as a picture story book, a letter or a printed form as well as impression which in turn will be recalled at appropriate later times by the learner.

2. Audio

Audio aids are devices that procedure sounds. The sounds contain of educational message. Audio education experience may be spoken words or they may be simply the characteristics of sounds or call, or noise, associated with a recallable previous experience, for example: radio, record, and cassettes. Sadiman (2005, p. 49) put forward that audio media is a tool to convey messages to be delivered in the form of auditory symbols, verbal and non verbal; while Sudjana and Rivai (2003, p. 129) stated that this kind of media stimulated students' thoughts, feelings, concerns, and willingness to that teaching and learning process can be more engaging.

The main function of audio media is to provide students with more authentic samples of how English language is used in spoken contexts. It trains students listening skills as well as their ability to think of the meaning of spoken sentences.

The diversity of activity that takes advantage of audio hasn't changed much in many years. However in recent years there has been new exploration into 'digital' uses for audio, which were anticipating taking advantage of the potential that is unique to digital audio.

The majority of uses for digital audio, to date, have been replicating traditional activities (e.g. recordings of lectures), yet this digital medium has the potential to offer much more. As use of digital learning technologies continues to grow around infrastructure (e.g. the virtual learning environment) and as teaching and learning pedagogy evolves within 'uniquely' digital contexts, we have begun to see new methods for using digital audio recordings within teaching and learning.

The widespread popularity of audio is due, in the main, to its ubiquity in our culture and ease of use both from a listener's perspective and more

- i. To make recordings of naturally occurring events, e.g. political speeches To represent concepts and ideas
 - j. To update the course when the knowledge base changes
 - k. To facilitate discussion for distance learners, collaborative learning
 - l. For language teaching helping to develop listening and speaking skills
3. Audio-visual

It is a well-known fact that audio-visual materials are a great help in stimulating and facilitating the learning of a foreign language. According to Wright (1976:1) many media and many styles of visual presentation are useful to the language learner. That is to say, all audio-visual materials have positive contributions to language learning as long as they are used at the right time, in the right place. In language learning and teaching process, learner use his eyes as well as his ears; but his eyes are basic in learning. River (1981:399) claims that it clearly contributes to the understanding of another culture by providing vicarious contact with speakers of the language, through both audio and visual means.

A great advantage of video is that it provides authentic language input. Movies and TV programmes are made for native speakers, so in that sense video provides authentic language input (Katchen,2002). That is to say, it is obvious that the practical implications of video in the classroom in any classroom environment it can easily be used; teacher can step in the process whenever he wishes; he can stop, start and rewind to repeat it for several times where necessary. Any selected short sequence from the programme can be utilized for intensive study. To pay special attention to a particular point in the programme it is possible to run in slow motion or at half speed or without sound. Besides, the

learner can concentrate on the language in detail and interpret what has been said, repeat it, predict the reply and so on. The learner can also concentrate in detail on visual clues to meaning such as facial expression, dress, gesture, posture and on details of the environment. Even without hearing the language spoken clues to meaning can be picked up from the vision alone. Using visual clues to meaning in order to enhance learning is an important part of video methodology. The other point that should be focused is that in foreign language to interpret attitude is very difficult owing to the fact that the listener concentrates himself on the verbal message, not the visual clues to meaning. Video gives the students practice in concluding attitudes. The rhythmic hand and arm movements, head nods, head gestures are related to the structure of the message. Moreover, the students have a general idea of the culture of the target language. It may be enjoyable for the learners to have something different for language learning apart from the course books and cassettes for listening. On the other hand, besides advantages, the disadvantages of video should also be taken into account. The main disadvantages are cost, inconvenience, maintenance and some cases, fear of technology. Additionally, the sound and vision, quality of the copies or home-produced materials may not be ideal. Another important issue in this case is that the teacher should be well-trained on using and exploiting the video. Otherwise, it becomes boring and purposeless for students.

4. Three dimensional

They are real things or limitation of the real things, for example: display, objects, and museums. Three dimensional things are the things which have already had a complex shape or structure representing or describing things like as it is real.

Creating Media

Media is an ideal way of getting a message across. Videos, photos, maps, diagrams and graphs can convey complex ideas at a glance and can give a written message more impact. Media also encompasses audio and animations. When using any type of media, it is good practice to be mindful of its purpose in relation to your learning and teaching aims. This info sheet outlines a range of media formats and some guidelines for optimising these for your iLearn unit. These guidelines are summarised first and explained in more detail below (Macquarie, 2015).

1. When it comes to images, the smaller the size, the better. Scale images and save them in the correct file formats.
2. Always provide equivalent alternatives to the visual content, for example a text description of an image (as this can be read by screen reader software).
3. Check the copyright of your image and attribute accordingly.
4. Make sure that transcripts of the video are available.
5. If creating your own videos, it is beneficial to have them formatted in the following way: size of 640x480, MP4 H.264, AAC audio and Bit rates around 500kbps.
6. It is highly recommended that you transcribe audio files and have them available at the same time the audio files are posted on your iLearn unit.
7. If you are recording voice for spoken content, there is no need for stereo. Saving a recording in mono results in a file size half that of the stereo equivalent.

When to introduce media?

1. Before learning the concept. Showing media before the discussion gives students an image to which they can compare the topics under discussion. This approach allows quick reference to easily recalled

Media	Technologies	Educational application
Face-to- face	Classrooms, labs	Lectures, seminar, experiments
Text	Print	Course units, supplementary (including: materials, correspondence tutoring graphics)
Audio	Cassettes, radio, telephone broadcasting,	Radio programs, telephone tutoring, audio-conferences
Video	Videocassettes, video-discs; cable, satellite, fibre optics, microwave, video conferencing	Television programmes, video conference
Digital multi-media	Computer, World Wide-Web, telephone, cable, satellite, fibre-optics, CD-ROM, DVD, wireless, Web conferencing	Power point, computer-aided learning (CAI, CBT), e-mail, discussion forums, learning objects/database, Web casts, Web Quests, online courses

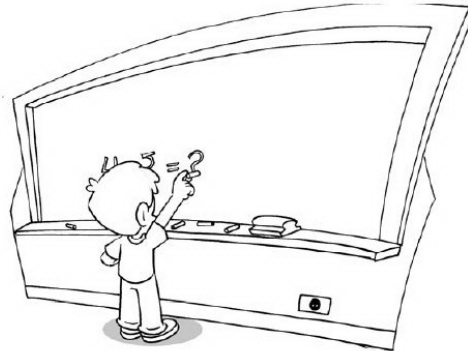
3. Involving students in creating media encourages **collaboration, accountability, creativity, and mastery of ideas and concepts.** Importantly, one does not need a large budget, fancy studio, or advanced degree to create original media that is informative, entertaining and educational. An article by Joshua Kim notes that video projects are inexpensive to create and that this approach also encourages non-linear learning. Instructors do not need to be media savvy. Our students have grown up in the digital age and they are comfortable with technology. Instructors should help students focus on creating content that is meaningful for the intended audience. Here is a college financial aid contest and a NAFSA video contest featuring college student entries describing their experiences studying abroad. Each of these contests

Chapter 9

BOARDWORKING

Introduction

When it comes to active engagement, nothing beats a classroom whiteboard. Not the expensive, high-tech kind – the low-tech white boards that students write on with dry erase markers.



http://www.englishexercises.org/makeagame/my_documents/my_pictures/2009/may/A5B_02.jpg

This chapter discusses the techniques that can be used to help teachers provide the students with good boardwork – because a good board work helps the students understand and remember the lesson better. The topic will include the reasons to use a whiteboard in class – a language class in particular, some tips on how to write materials on the board so the students will get better understanding, and some activities that can be done using a whiteboard.

The students' understanding of the topic they present will be empowered by the analysis of the different function of boardworking and different activities using whiteboard. Through this activity, it is expected that the students would be able to understand the rationale behind the reason why we need to do a good board work. Also, by showing to the students some examples of board work, it is expected that the students would able to practice using a particular techniques using whiteboard with their future students.

Learning Activities***Opening Activities (15 minutes)***

1. Explaining basic competence
2. Explaining indicators
3. Explaining learning activities of this chapter
4. Brainstorming: ask the students to reflect back when they were in junior or senior high school. Ask them if they remember how their teachers used the blackboard or whiteboard. Elicit.

Main Activities (70 minutes)

1. Mention to the students the term “boardwork”. Ask the students if they know the meaning of the term (everything that we do and write on the white/black board)
2. Ask the students whether they think how we write on the white/black board will affect the students in any ways. Discuss. Ask them do they think it is necessary to have a particular skill in boardworking. Why.
3. Using a PowerPoint presentation, show the students different examples on how we can use white/blackboard for different purposes.
4. Discussion, feedback
5. Preparation for the students to do the next activity (groupwork about activities that can be done with white/black board)

Closing Activities (10 minutes)

1. Summarizing today’s material
2. Giving support and suggestion
3. Reflecting today’s material by the students

Follow-up Activities (5 minutes)

1. Giving the assignment
2. Preparing the next lecture

When you're preparing your class, mentally go through your lesson and put all the things on the board that you plan to put on the board. In a perfect world, all of the information you put up will fit without having to erase anything. Furthermore, the board should look neat and tidy and, most importantly, easy to understand. Go to the back of the room and see it from the desks or chairs at the back. All of your students should be able to read it easily.

During this dry run, make sure you've got all of the important stuff on the board—target language, grammar structure and vocabulary. New words may look best off to one side.

While you're doing this, you'll likely find that you have to change a few things in your original plan. This is a great exercise to do, not only to help your boardwork, but also to meter the lesson's flow.

It's also important to consider each classroom if you teach the same lesson plan in different places. In many rooms, the bottom third of the board may be obstructed by student heads and not easily seen from the back of the class. Also, sometimes the angle of the board relative to the students makes the extreme left or right of the board hard to see from some seats.

Another problem factor might be too much light—glare from windows and overhead lighting can render some of the board unreadable from some angles. It's a good idea to pull down curtains or blinds to save your students' eyes. If you take all these things into account, it means you're safest using the top two-thirds of the board and the middle sixty percent.

When you're doing your pre-class boardwork practice, don't forget to check if you're writing your words large enough and clearly enough to read easily. You might be surprised!

During classtime, don't forget to ask the students before you erase anything on the board. You'll see that the high-achievers in the class will want to write down your boardwork for their notes. It's polite to ask them first, and if someone is taking notes you want to make sure they don't rush and make a mistake! These are likely your best students. Don't frustrate them.

The very best lesson plans will include examples of your planned boardwork, typically on the last page. It's a big help if you plan your boardwork ahead of time.

Reasons of Using a Whiteboard

1. You can use them to engage every child in every single lesson. Minute by minute, you'll know exactly who's grasping the concepts and who's not.
2. Students love them because they're fun. Mistakes made during guided practice can be easily brushed away.
3. Using dry erase boards will save paper and significantly reduce the stack of work you take home to grade.
4. Dry erase boards can be used in whole group instruction, small guided groups, and learning centers.
5. No need to worry about technology failing when you need it most.
6. No learning curve or advanced preparation. Just pass out the dry erase boards and let the learning begin.

How to do a good boardwork

Many teachers keep an **incidental vocabulary column** at the side of the board and this can have many advantages. Compartmentalising the board space allows the teacher to leave the vocabulary there for the remainder of

Steps

1. Ask the students to work in pairs.
2. Give the students the worksheet to work on
3. Ask the students to come up with possible solution on how teachers can correct students' errors and provide feedback for them.

Worksheet (adopted from Spratt, Pulverness and Williams, 2005)

1. Look at the following pairs of sentences. Learners often make mistakes and confuse the meaning of A and B in each pair. Draw two timelines for each pair which clearly show the differences in meaning.
 - a. A Cinderella danced with the prince when the clock struck midnight.
B Cinderella was dancing with the prince when the clock struck midnight.
 - b. A I play tennis on Fridays.
B I played tennis on Fridays.

2. Here are some examples of feedback. For each one identify its focus and purpose.

<i>Feedback</i>	<i>Focus</i>	<i>Purpose</i>
1. You have sat nicely for the whole lesson. Well done!		
2. I'm not sure that's right. Can anyone help?		
3. That was very thoughtful of you to help the other group.		
4. This is great, but not all your work has been so good this month. Some of it was rather careless		

3. Think about these comments from teachers. Which one do you agree and why?
 - a. When learners make mistakes it means that they are not learning.
 - b. It is better to correct all the mistakes learners make.

(conscious or unconscious) to accuracy and errors or the restricted nature of the activities proposed by the teacher.

When giving feedback to learners on their performance in speaking English, the emphasis for the teacher should be to discover what learners didn't say and help them say that, rather than pick the bones out of what they did say. This requires the use of activities which stretch learners appropriately and the teacher listening to what learners aren't saying. This is quite challenging.

Oral Correction

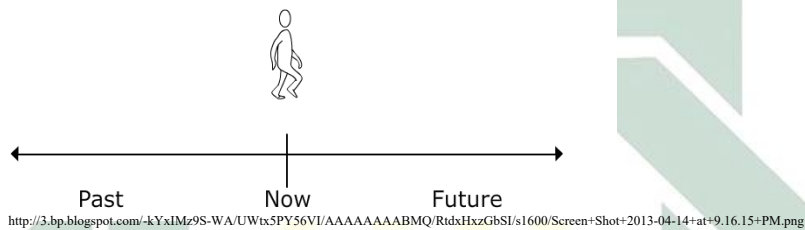
Here are some ways that we can use to correct oral mistakes (*taken from Spratt, Pulverness and Williams, 2005, p. 152*)

1. Drawing a time line on the board. Time lines show learners the relationship between the use of a verb and time.

For example...

"He is walking."

... means right now, he is walking, as we speak.



2. Finger correction. This shows learners where they have made a mistake. We show one hand to the class and point to each finger in turn as we say each word in the sentence. One finger is usually used for each word. This technique is particularly useful when learners have left out a word or when we want them to use a contraction.
3. Gestures and/or facial expressions are useful when we do not want to interrupt learners too much, but still want to show them that they have made a slip. A worried look from the teacher can indicate to learners that there is a problem. It is possible to use many different gestures or facial expressions. The ones you use will depend on what is appropriate for your culture and your teaching situation.

Written Correction

1. Teacher correction. The teacher corrects the learners' mistakes by writing the correct word(s) instead of symbols from a correction code.
2. Peer correction. The learners look at each other's work and correct it or discuss possible corrections.
3. Self correction. The learners usually with the help of a guidance sheet, look for and correct mistakes in their own work.

Providing Feedback

According to Spratt, Pulverness and Williams, giving feedback is "giving information to learners about their learning" (2005, p. 156). It can be given with the focus on the learners' language or skills, the ideas in their work, their behavior, their attitude to learning or their progress. Feedback is not only given to a particular student for her achievement, but also to the whole class or some groups of learners. Feedback is given not in the focus of learners' error or mistakes, but with the purpose to motivate learners and to help them understand what their problems are and how they can improve. It provides knowledge about the students' themselves and not necessarily have to relate to the lesson and the target language (the English language).

1. Feedback should be educative in nature.

Providing feedback means giving students an explanation of what they are doing correctly AND incorrectly. However, the focus of the feedback should be based essentially on what the students is doing right. It is most productive to a student's learning when they are provided with an explanation and example as to what is accurate and inaccurate about their work. Use the concept of a "feedback sandwich" to guide your feedback: Compliment, Correct, Compliment.

2. Feedback should be given in a timely manner.

When feedback is given immediately after showing proof of learning, the student responds positively and remembers the experience about what is being learned in a confident manner. If we wait too long to give feedback, the moment is lost and the student might not connect the feedback with the action.

3. Be sensitive to the individual needs of the student.

It is vital that we take into consideration each student individually when giving feedback. Our classrooms are full of diverse learners. Some students need to be nudged to achieve at a higher level and other needs

Chapter 11

CLASSROOM CONTRACT

Introduction

Students can and do regularly disrupt the classroom. Sometimes they are openly hostile, challenging the teacher's authority and objecting to course requirements and classroom policies. More often, the conflict grows out of their inattentiveness and passivity. They arrive late, leave early, talk during class, and don't even bother to hide their boredom.

This chapter attempts to provide future EFL teachers with knowledge and sample of practices of how teachers treat behavior problems in the classroom. An important method for overcoming a hostile learning environment is to engage students in making their own pact or rules to overcome the disruptive and potentially degrading or inflammatory conduct. Students who own the



[https://readthetweb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Class%20Contract%20%20\(3\).jpg/381299220/Class%20Contract%20%20\(3\).jpg](https://readthetweb.wikispaces.com/file/view/Class%20Contract%20%20(3).jpg/381299220/Class%20Contract%20%20(3).jpg)

solution are far more likely to follow through on it and to actively strive for good results. This chapter will also provide the students with some suggestions for creating a class contract or rules.

Lesson Plan

Basic Competence

Understanding of the importance of classroom contract

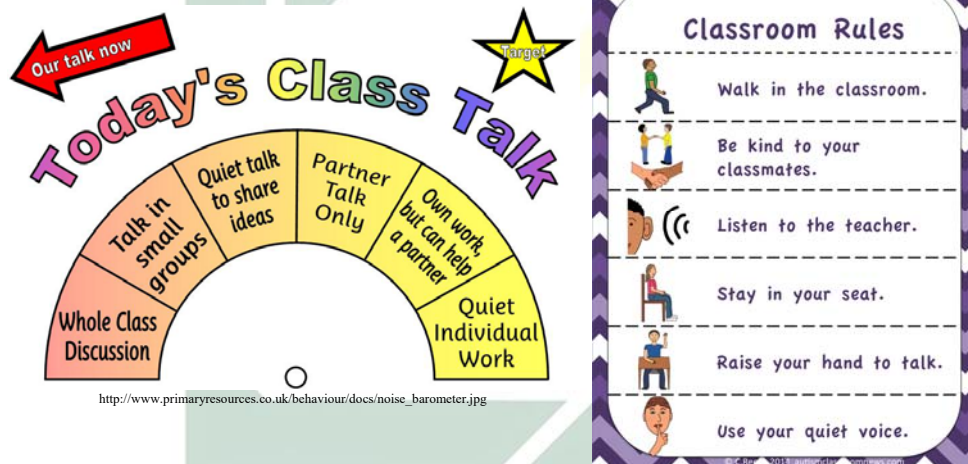
Indicators

At the end of the lecture, the students are expected to be able to:

1. Students are able to explain the importance of classroom contract

establishing these benchmarks is similar to creating a contract between students and teacher. Every classroom has an implicit classroom contract when you think about it, whether it is acknowledged or not. It is built out of the routines, behaviors and norms that operate every day in each classroom.

The classroom contract does not simply refer to classroom rules or agreed-upon behaviors that are often drawn up and posted in a classroom to keep order. Rather, the classroom contract can be the intellectual environment of a classroom, which comes about largely as a result of established expectations, beliefs and practices that teachers make explicit in their classrooms. It is shaped by classroom routines, the many ways in which teachers and students jointly own the classroom, expectations for teaching and learning and more. It is about building a culture of learning – a classroom culture (or contract) – based on the self-sufficiency that we think comes through the use of formative assessment.



Some of the elements that contribute to such a classroom culture should including four essential expectations:

1. All students will achieve and improve their learning.
2. Students will function as active learners who take responsibility for their own and one other's learning.
3. All students will think deeply and make that thinking public.
4. Students will develop metacognitive skills and engage in metacognitive thinking that help move their learning forward.

Together, these elements have the potential to inspire a climate that values and promotes shared responsibility for—and deep engagement in—teaching and learning, as stressed throughout formative assessment. The picture here is one taken from a class that shows what kids thought the differences were between students and learners and how the classroom culture was changing to support that evolution.

At the heart of a classroom contract that promotes thinking and learning is the understanding that ultimately, in any classroom, students are the ones who have to do the learning. No one can hand it to them or force it on them. However, their teacher's informed use of formative assessment strategies and techniques, as well as core beliefs and practices he or she makes apparent in the classroom, can precipitate this shift in the classroom contract.

In other words, teachers set the stage for students' independent learning by creating a climate that empowers them to become active learners and to take responsibility for their learning. By making the classroom environment more responsive to students' learning needs and providing tangible support for student thinking minute-to-minute and day-by-day, students can become more willing and able to participate in the intellectual challenges presented by their teacher.

both teacher and students hold about what should happen in the classroom. Because these norms can have a powerful effect on learning, the more you can think about how you would like your classroom to operate, and the more consciously you can set these norms, the more likely you can create opportunities for learning to happen. Below are a series of questions that are designed to help you make key decisions about how you want your classroom to be organized.

Questions to Help Establish Norms

1. Who talks in the classroom, when, for how long, and how do they get the floor?
2. Who sets the agenda: teacher, students, or both?
3. Are answers considered definitely right or definitely wrong? If so, how are answers evaluated?
4. How do students succeed in the course? How is success measured?
5. What is the nature of the relationship between student and teacher (e.g., collaborative, hierarchical)?
6. What is the nature of the relationship between students (e.g., competitive, collaborative)?
7. What sources of knowledge are emphasized? Previous research? Authorities in the field? Concrete experiences? Observation and reflection? Abstractions? Experimentation?
8. What will be learned? Are students to learn facts? To think through problems? To show their ability to apply abstract concepts? To create new things?
9. What is the big agenda or story line of the course? What are the underlying questions that need to be answered?

How to Use Classroom Contract**1. Ask students' opinions**

Allow students time to brainstorm problems that they face in class and at school. This can be done individually, with small groups, or through a classroom survey. For example, students may state that they suffer from bullying, classroom disruptions, or disrespectful behavior.

2. Ask for students' ideas

Once the problems have been outlined, the students and teacher collaborate to create solutions. As groups bring up solutions, ask a student to write them on the board or a poster. Use positive language when possible. This gives students a clearer idea of how they should react to problems they encounter, which is more effective than only telling them how they should not behave.

3. Summarize students' ideas

Facilitate a class discussion to gather feedback from the students before moving on to the next step. Emphasize that it is important for the Classroom Contract to include rules that students believe in and that they will adhere to as individuals and as a group. Ensure that the list contains all behavioral objectives you deem necessary. If not, guide the students to add any behavior goals that they originally missed while brainstorming. Additionally, have students think about what could be removed from the list.

4. Turn ideas into rules

Create a poster or anchor chart to display the finalized rules. The rules will likely include guidelines such as: hands and feet to yourself, actively listen to the speaker, be kind, be respectful, etc.

Variations of Classroom Contract

1. *Team Social Contracts*

Small groups of students can use the same process as noted above to create a Team Social Contract. This would work well during group activities or when assigning new table groups.

2. *Individual Social Contracts*

If the Classroom Contract is working for most students but not for specific individuals, create an individual contract for students who need one. This contract will not be shared with the entire class. It will allow the individual student to be held directly accountable for their actions and behavioral decisions.

Summary

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that:

1. Rules should be framed positively and should guide students to desired behaviors. For example “be kind to friends” rather than “don’t be mean.”
2. Your whole class should be involved in the creation of the rules and all members of the class should sign your formal contract. Student consent will help to build investment and respect for the rules your class has created.
3. Your Classroom Contract should be posted on the wall of your classroom and referred to and reinforced often throughout your day.
4. The procedure of creating classroom contract:
 - a. Share Your Vision for your classroom (e.g. “Our classroom will be a peaceful community where...”) and have your students brainstorm and share their vision for the ideal classroom community.

