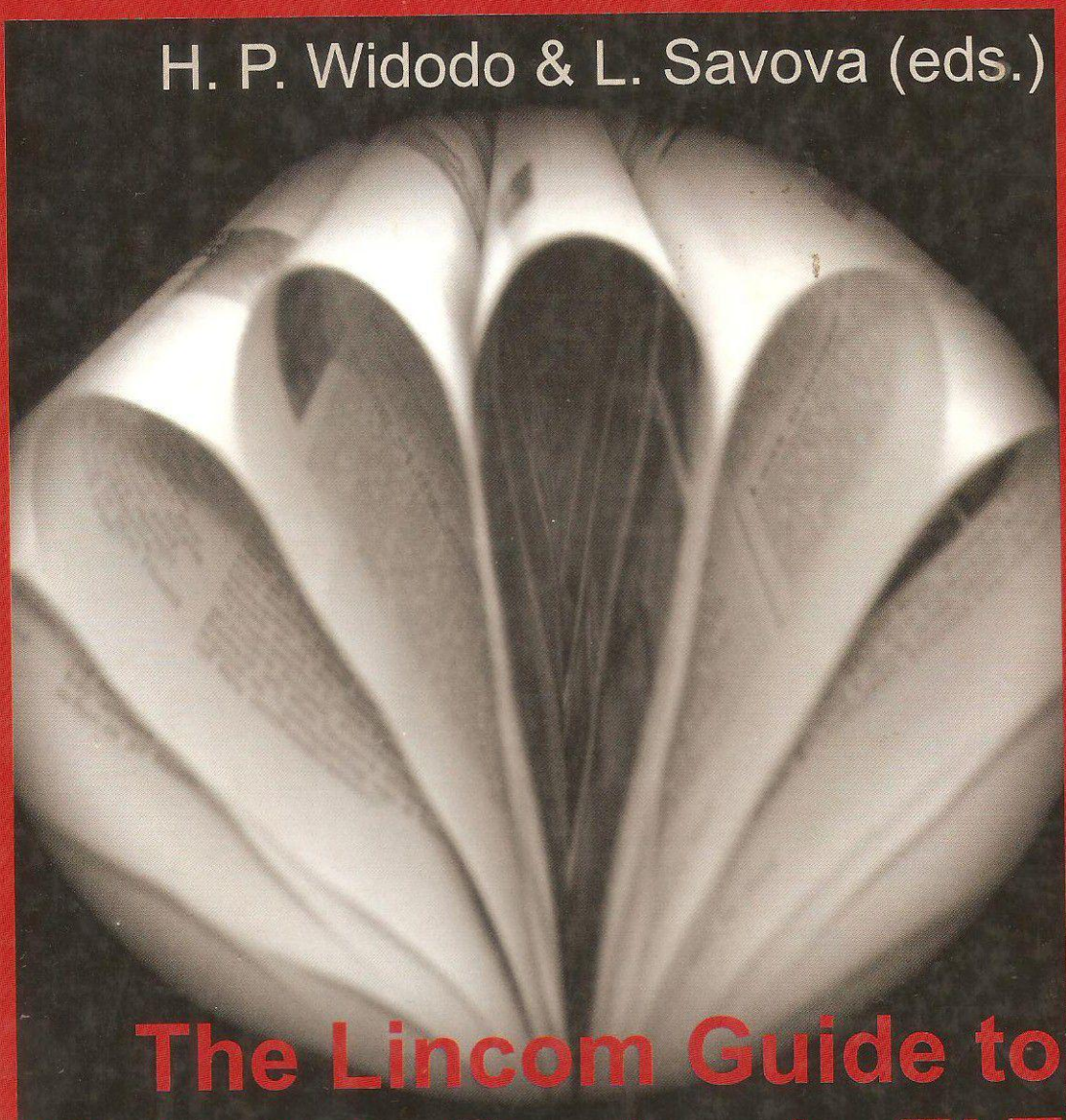
H. P. Widodo & L. Savova (eds.)



The Lincom Guide to Materials Design in ELT

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Contents

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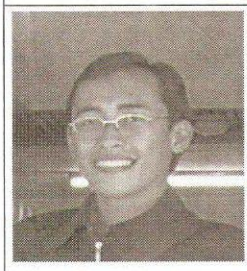

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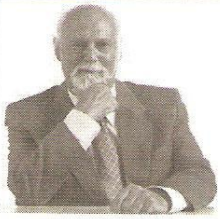

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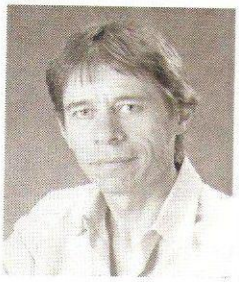

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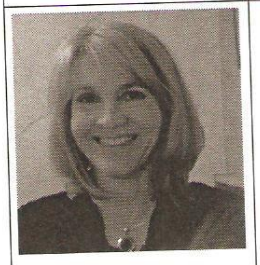

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Introduction

HANDOYO PUJI WIDODO
LILIA SAVOVA
Editors

Like other areas, materials design or development is one of the most crucial features of language curriculum. In this respect, language teachers are challenged to write and develop their own instructional materials, which best cater to their students' needs. This notion suggests how language teachers can situate their teaching materials in a particular institutional context. In language materials development, teachers have to play different roles as materials designers, developers, evaluators, and explorers who are able to exploit their classroom materials so as to meet their students' learning needs. Certainly, such materials should have positive impact on students' language learning development. It is common knowledge that the language materials development depend, to some extent, on these factors: teacher beliefs about language, language learning, and language teaching; teachers' academic and professional backgrounds; sociocultural and institutional needs for language learning and teaching; particular approaches to language learning and teaching; and situational needs for language learning and acquisition.

Language materials design or development is ever growing needs for language teachers who wish to try to make innovations in their own teaching materials in which the ultimate goal is to help learners acquire a target language (e.g., English), thereby becoming competent language learners and users. This idea implies that language teachers should continuously explore and exploit their classroom materials so as to meet changing needs for language learning and teaching. Certainly, the language materials development should be on the basis of sound instructional principles, approaches, and methods. Therefore, this edited volume, comprised of sixteen chapters written by established scholars and emerging scholars from different countries, has documented fascinating insights into language materials design or development.

To begin with, written by David Hall, **Chapter 1** examines the many variables that come into play in the design of language teaching materials. This chapter also looks particularly at the significance of the diverse views of the different stakeholders in language-learning courses in various contexts. Treating the materials-writing process from a project management point of view, chapter 1 explores the varied considerations to be taken into account at each of the overlapping project stages, including planning, implementation and evaluation, noting that stakeholder views need to be considered at

every stage and that no stage can be undertaken in isolation. Chapter 1 also examines the extreme difficulty of, but necessity for, a well-thought out system of measurement and evaluation offers a suggestion for a framework for evaluation.

In **Chapter 2**, Lilia Savova addresses the application of cross-disciplinary design principles in the selection and organization of ESOL content. More specifically, this chapter discusses two principles of design that define the relationship between a whole and its parts within a system. The first one, the 80/20 rule, draws attention to the relative importance of each part comprising the whole and claims that 20% of a system's components are responsible for 80% of its effects. The second one, the Gestalt principle of similarity, analyzes the relations between all parts comprising a whole and emphasizes the significance of the whole over its parts. It, then, applies these general design principles in ESOL instructional design and shows how they could enhance that process.

Concerned with the increasing use of visual aids in commercial English language teaching (ELT) materials (e.g., books), in **Chapter 3**, Adriadi Novawan, offers fascinating ideas about making use of visual aids in instructional materials in which the goal is to increase learners' understanding of knowledge and skills taught. This chapter basically addresses what constitutes visual aids and the reasons for including such media in ELT materials. Chapter 3 also offers practical suggestions for preparing effective visual aids for ELT materials within the framework of "localization." Localization here means particular visual aids can be effectively used in particular teaching materials (e.g., learning tasks or activities) for particular groups of English learners.

Chapter 4, further, describes an outcome-based approach to materials writing and adaptation for a corpus linguistics subject for undergraduates of an English major program at a university in Hong Kong. Written texts drawn from both published materials and several specialized corpora collected in Hong Kong, including the Hong Kong Corpus of Surveying and Construction Engineering (HKCSCE) and the Hong Kong Financial Services Corpus (HKFSC), were adapted in the writing of task-based materials for students to work on in a computer laboratory. The author, Winnie Cheng, elaborates that such materials, in the form of worksheets, aim to help students to learn how to determine the collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody of a lexical item so that they have the relevant subject knowledge and necessary corpus research skills to complete an individual corpus-driven language study project. As discussed in this chapter, the design and adaptation of the materials are guided by the outcome-based approaches to student learning that the university has been practicing since 2005. The author concludes that the intended learning outcomes of the corpus linguistics subject are classified into subject-specific and generic outcomes.

Chapter 5 written by Ruth Epstein focuses on materials design development for adult learners of English. This chapter discusses accepted principles and practices in teaching

adult learners of English and implications for developing materials for that kind of learners. This chapter also treats the presentation of examples of materials for adult learners and their development including: written text; realia; images and visual aids; audiovisual materials; computers and the Internet; games; music, poetry and chants; and projects and community contact materials.

What follows, Andrzej Cirocki in **Chapter 6** takes the position that literary texts constitute a valuable resource for teaching English, thus giving language instructors an opportunity to open a broad context of language use for students. This chapter puts emphasis on the justifications for using literature in the foreign or second language classroom. Additionally, this chapter presents several examples of practical tasks based on literary texts to inform language teachers of developing a thoughtful approach to implementing literature in their classrooms and of providing the teachers with various tools for designing their own classroom materials.

Written by Helen Emery, **Chapter 7** outlines the key elements to be considered when designing or choosing materials for teaching English to young learners. This chapter treats the different stages of children's cognitive development and their different learning styles. Emery argues that a topic and task-based syllabus is widely considered to be the best method of teaching English to children, and she raises some important issues connected to the choice of topics and the tasks that will accompany them. The chapter also discusses what considers being the language and cognitive aspects of a task, and how these can be represented in materials.

Chapter 8 written by Michelle de Courcy examines features of content-based instruction (CBI), which need to be taken into account when developing new language materials and activities as well as adapting existing materials. In this chapter, she argues that CBI has dual objectives – content and language, and the language curriculum is "content-driven." She also argues that written texts are central to the curriculum; source materials are adapted from first language texts in the disciplines; and academic language use is emphasized. de Courcy, further, pinpoints that the pedagogy and materials include accommodation to the language limitations of the learners, and students are oriented into the new "culture." Thus, chapter 8 is concerned about each of those factors in turn, giving practical suggestions for the development of new materials and activities, and the adaptation of existing materials.

In Chapter 9, Andy Kirkpatrick reviews recent developments in the use of English, especially its use as an international lingua franca. He also outlines the implications of these new developments for the English language curriculum and materials development, and provides some illustrations of the type of materials that may now be more appropriate in this post-Anglophone world. His focus is on East and Southeast Asian contexts, but he believes that many of the arguments presented in this chapter hold for different contexts.

In **Chapter 10** as an attempt to provide learners with sound ESP instruction, Handoyo Puji Widodo and Ririn Pusporini address conceptual and practical frameworks for designing ESP materials. In this chapter, they discuss ESP and needs analysis frameworks and highlight the approaches and principles of ESP materials writing. This chapter, also, provides sample ESP classroom materials designed by the authors in which the justifications of such materials are also discussed. Widodo and Pusporini argue that ESP teachers need to create their own classroom materials so as to meet changing needs for ESP learning and teaching.

What follows, **Chapter 11** written by Sugeng Ariyanto addresses the important role of Self Access Learning (SAL) materials so as to optimize the students' learning autonomy in an EFL classroom. The chapter describes the way and rationale for developing SAL materials in response to the current concepts of school-based curriculum (SBC) implemented in Indonesia. In this chapter, some key factors and procedures of developing SAL materials together with sample SAL materials are also presented.

John Spiri in **Chapter 12** offers a fascinating insight into developing corpus-oriented language materials. This chapter outlines three different approaches to such materials design, including (1) high frequency word course text, (2) word quest blended approach, and (3) self-directed or independent learning approach. This chapter has been written in response to a major challenge that language learners face, that is, deciding which words to learn. Spiri argues that the proliferation of websites dedicated to language learning and vocabulary acquisition, while useful, means that learners have the challenging task of choosing the most appropriate and useful sites.

Informed by a different approach, **Chapter 13** written by Jonathan Newton presents a synthesis of pedagogic principles from the two fields of adult education and task-based language teaching (TBLT) and uses this synthesis to develop a model of task-based adult language learning. This model is then applied to materials design and used to evaluate two sample tasks. Newton maintains that the model itself highlights the way in which adult education foregrounds learners' needs and prior experience while TBLT is primarily concerned with the learning activity taking place in the classroom. The author concludes that putting the two areas together allows both for a more learner-centered approach to task design and a more pedagogically-structured approach to addressing adult learning needs beyond the classroom.

Chapter 14, informed by sociolinguistic issues like the ownership of language and identity construction, highlights how task-based materials designers should not only consider the features of tasks in developing well-designed tasks for language learners, but should also take into account the consequences of how their materials-design choices can impact the identities of emerging multicompetent speakers. As the author, Sharon Deckert,

points out, task-based materials developers need to consider the socialization responsibilities inherent in creating language learning materials.

Chapter 15 written by Jane Orton, discusses how culture has impact on ELT materials. She pinpoints that influenced by the need for languages to be learned for real-life communication and informed by decades of sociolinguistic studies, English teaching materials have gradually shifted from presenting sample texts which illustrate aspects of formal linguistic systems towards presenting increasingly realistic samples of language in contextualised interactions where identities are negotiated, and meaning is jointly constructed. On practical grounds, Orton highlights three types of materials along with sample materials that language teachers need to consider. Such materials include (1) wholly imported material currently used in tertiary classes in the Asian region; (2) adapted text, written in England, revised for Vietnamese high school English classes; and (3) collaboratively written text for use in Chinese high school English classes.

Lastly, in **Chapter 16**, Kamarul Kabilan and Mahbub Ahsan Khan have reported that e-portfolio, which has never been explored in the Malaysian context, allowed 55 pre-service language teachers to engage in developing CALL-based materials. Their findings indicate that such practices generated a student-centered learning community and fostered their competencies, including learning, linguistic ability, ICT skill, motivation and positive attitude. Drawing from those findings, Kabilan and Khan suggest further investigations into the integration of technology into language materials design or development.

Comprised of sixteen chapters in which each contributor voices a different approach to language materials design or development, this edited book can be a useful guide for language teachers and practitioners and ELT materials writers and developers who wish to explore and exploit their own classroom materials. This volume can also be a valuable resource book for TESOL graduate students, pre-service teachers, and teacher educators and trainers who are involved in language materials design or development at secondary school, college, and university levels.

Muenchen, July 2010

Chapter 11

Fostering Learning Autonomy in the EFL Classroom through SAL Materials Development

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1. INTRODUCTION

Since mid 2006s, the emergence of the school-based curriculum (SBC) in Indonesia has brought about many reactions amongst the EFL teachers who wish to have the materials that promote their students' learning autonomy. Some of them tend to think that SBC is so confusing that they become dubious whether they can meet the requirements of SBC. This phenomenon occurs because such a curriculum does not provide any profound models of learning materials that can be directly used. Rather, it provides some categories, such as standards and basic competencies that are subject to misinterpretation. Despite the change of the curriculum itself, teachers do not see any change pertaining to materials development unless they make their own school-based learning materials. Further, SBC implies that teachers have to realize the fact that their schools have their own potentials to meet their students' needs. This can be feasible through the development of SAL materials in the classroom. In this respect, teachers should develop their own materials that can meet their students' learning needs and help students improve their English proficiencies. In doing so, teachers as materials innovators and creators are challenged to develop SBC-based SAL materials to allow for students' learning autonomy in the classroom. In turn, such materials may be doable in EFL contexts where the students are not exposed to English as a means of daily communication outside the classroom.

The idea about promoting learning autonomy in the classroom appears to be theoretically contradictory with the concept of learning autonomy itself that is free from the teacher's help rather than relying on it. However, classroom activities cannot be separated from a teacher's role as a facilitator who is able to help his or her students become autonomous for the following reasons:

- teaching and learning are interrelated classroom phenomena that should be kept at least in balance, or learning should outweigh teaching. In most EFL classes, teaching outweighs learning, so students tend to rely more heavily on their teachers' help, and in turn their learning autonomy is lacking;
- diagnosing students' learning needs and the way how to help students use the target language (TL—English) requires careful interpretation of the fact that what teachers think communicative is not always informative (meaningful) to their students. Although teachers might theoretically prepare syllabus documents and attempt to reflect their lessons on their

students' learning needs, the teaching materials might not promote students' learning autonomy yet.

- the targeted students' standards and basic competencies as stipulated in the teacher's SBC based course syllabus sound extremely hard to achieve properly because of insufficient SAL materials.

As regards the above-mentioned teacher's status in promoting learning autonomy in the classroom, McMurry, Tanner, & Anderson (2009: 2) corroborating Sheerin's idea (cited in Benson & Voller, 1997) support that 'teachers have an important role in helping learners to become more autonomous' (p. 2). Similarly, Lai, Lai-kwan & Liz Hamp-Lyons' (2001: 77) and Benson' (2001: 5) arguments suggest that 'studying independently' (p. 77) or 'self access work' (p. 5) in the classroom might contribute a lot to 'a learner's autonomy' (p. 5). As opposed to (autonomous) learning, teacher's job is interational in the formal rather than informal setting in the sense that it suggests and elicits conscious rather than subconscious (for example see Krashen: 1981: 1-2; 1982: 10; 1985: 1; Krashen & Terrel: 1983: 26) learning development (Stern: 1983: 20) of which the latter is much more personal or individual.

Indeed, it certainly takes a long process of diagnosing the exact learning needs of different students with various types of language weaknesses. They have to select their teaching materials presumed to be appropriate with their students' learning needs. On this point, I note that the early presumption of the appropriate teaching materials might be so highly risky that they appear to be a mere model of how they reflect the targeted standard and basic competence as stipulated in the implemented curriculum—SBC. This is because teaching materials are not the product of the students' learning initiatives but that of the teachers' teaching ones to elicite the students' learning outcome. Meanwhile, SAL materials are supposed to elicite the students' learning autonomy in the classroom. Therefore, the effect of teaching materials on the success of particular standards and basic competencies is significant if the teaching materials include the development of SAL materials that promote students' learning autonomy.

2. KEY FACTORS OF DEVELOPING SAL MATERIALS

Self Access Learning (SAL) is what Gardner and Miller (1999: 8) note as "an approach to learning a language, not an approach to teaching a language". This means that SAL materials are supposed to be learnt rather than taught even though they are used in the classroom. The dichotomy of teaching and learning approaches is supposed not to be so problematic for developing such materials and for teachers to play two different roles (as a teacher and as a tutor) in a single classroom setting. Autonomous learning is somewhat like an independent process of the subconscious change of behavior that can happen naturally through the system that is conducive to learning in the classroom by, for example, providing SAL materials. On this point, McMurry, Tanner, & Anderson (2009: 2)

concede that "teachers can promote autonomy without creating a teacher-dominated learning" that is not conducive to learning in the classroom. This notion suggests conscious learning as the product of teaching can gradually be developed through learning autonomy. In doing so, developing SAL materials could promote learning autonomy and accelerate the process of language learning if teachers consider the factors on which the SAL materials development is based. Key factors of developing SAL materials include (1) resources, (2) familiarity and readibility, (3) the learning environment, (4) teaching and learning purposes, (5) learning tasks.

2.1. Resources

Resources refer to the materials accessibility and availability in Widodo's term (2009: 236) or Gardner and Miller's sense (1999: 98). Adequate resources for developing SBC-based SAL materials determine the extent to which English has to be taught and learnt. If teachers need to promote their students' learning autonomy, SAL materials should enable students to work on their own ways without their teacher's help. In this respect, SAL materials developed in the classroom should be based on the teacher's teaching materials (e.g., short dialogues, reading texts, play scripts, or grammar exercises). As suggested by Susan Sheerin (1989) for a SAC (Self Access Centre), SAL materials in the classroom provide various learning materials at all levels presented in the form of exercises with answer keys attached to the materials in plastic bags on the shelf. Hence, I argue that English learners in the classroom are expected to do the exercises by themselves to meet their own learning needs. They can also practice their speaking skills with their own group members or partners in the classroom with the given topics, or they just raise their own topics as recommended by their teacher. In this way, the students are expected to acquire the TL—English so that they can use the materials for general and specific or academic purposes.

2.2. Familiarity and readibility

Familiarity and readibility concern the language forms that influence the students' meta-cognitive strategies, such as what Oxford (1990: 20) notes as "overviewing and linking with already known material." The students with lower level of meta-cognitive strategies might not be able to familiarise what they have already known with their upcoming task of learning materials, and this suggests that the language forms they have ever learnt before, might not be optimally useful to find the learning materials readable in the sense that they do not understand the materials. It is in this situation the teacher should help students through developing various features of SAL tasks that optimally make use of the language forms they have ever learnt. This is because students tend to experience difficulties in focusing their attention on what to learn and how to improve or what Oxford (1990: 136) note as 'lose their focus which can be regained by the conscious use of metacognitive strategies

such as paying attention and linking with already familiar material' (p. 136). In other words, students' learning focus or concentration can be optimized by developing their conscious use of their metacognitive strategies or what Pulido (2009: 34) notes as 'awareness of conscious mental activities for controlling cognitive strategy processing' (p: 34). Similarly, McMurry, Tanner, & Anderson (2009: 2) explicitly confirm the essential role of metacognitive strategies in language learning. They note that autonomous learning can be achieved when "both cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies become part of the learner's skills" (p 2). Therefore, the system of SAL requires creative teachers to develop interesting materials and to hold fanciful activities that may attract their students to participate in their own groups and work with the facilities on their own ways.

2.3. Learning Environment

Learning environment greatly affects the students' interest and learning autonomy vulnerable to the fact that the students' interest fluctuates, and it may determine their time management, that is whether they provide more time for learning the TL independently. The students with great interest in the classroom situation with fanciful learning facilities may be absorbed of working on their own selections. However, those who are unhappy with the classroom situation might stop working on their selections earlier although they have sufficient time. The classroom should, therefore, be furnished with facilities that are of great use for learning as the main concern of classroom activities. So far as classroom activities are of great concern, SAL materials in the classroom should as well be developed with reference to Dubin and Olshtain's (1986) notes on what the teacher has to consider, especially how to develop SAL materials that meet both teaching and learning purposes.

2.4. Teaching and Learning Purposes

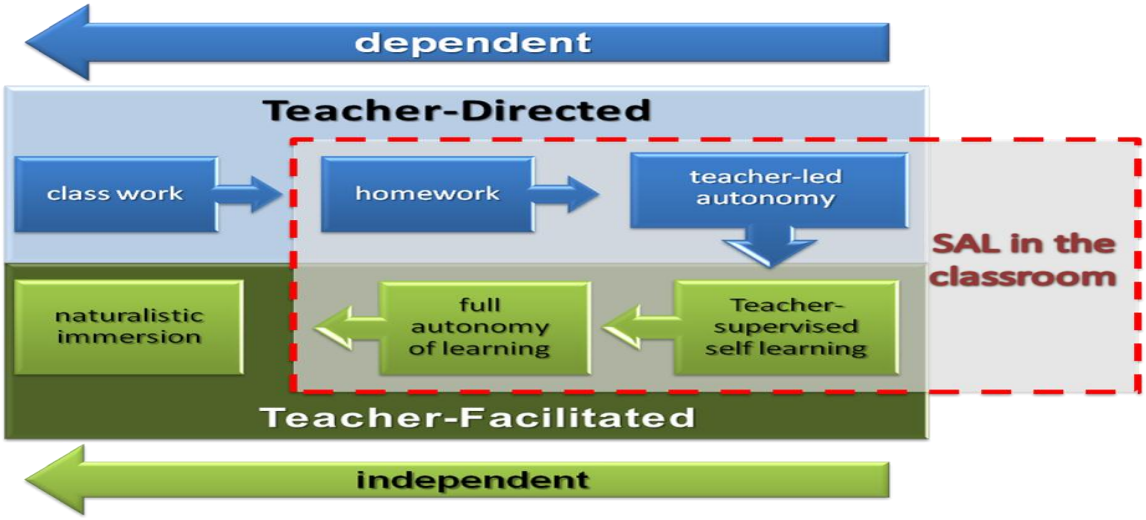
Teaching and learning purposes refer to both teaching objectives or what Dubin and Olshtain's (1986: 28) notes as the course objectives and learning objectives that determine the selected language content. Teaching purposes in the development of SAL materials should conform to learning purposes in the sense that teachers' lessons should facilitate the language focus of SAL materials that are supposed to meet students' learning purposes. In fact, teaching purposes can usually be seen on the teacher's lesson plan, and those purposes are supposed to suggest the target of solving the students' learning problems that might extremely vary and require more elaborate learning purposes of the students as different individuals rather than as the same group. In other words, the objective of SAL materials in this case initiates the language content the students should learn individually, and the objectives of SAL materials vary depending on what level the SAL materials users need to practice. In other words, SAL materials in the classroom are the extended learning lessons with relatively different rather than uniformed learning purposes, and this requires the teachers'

productive skills. Teaching purposes are the uniformed prediction of students' various learning purposes that might be to some extent appropriate but to some other extent inappropriate with students' learning needs. Therefore, learning purposes for SAL materials have to reflect on students' learning problems that might happen during the lesson, and they might vary from lesson-plan based to lesson plan-free based learning purposes (also see Figure 3)

2.5. Learning tasks

Learning tasks deal with how SAL materials are to be learnt in the classroom. They include some information of when they are to be learned and of what language skills and levels are to be focused certainly with reference to students' learning purposes. So far, classroom activities are fully dominated with teaching rather than learning activities, and this means implementing teaching tasks for teachers outweigh the learning ones for their students. In other words, the teaching domination in the classroom aggravates the lack of learning tasks for learning autonomy. Therefore, learning autonomy is best optimized through what McMurry, Tanner and Anderson (2009: 2) note as 'teacher-led autonomy' (see Jones' diagram in figure 1) or the integration of teaching and SAL materials as what Wong (2001: 35) suggests that "independent Learning can be integrated into classroom activities and syllabi so that the SAC is a supplement to classroom learning" (p. 35). In other words, classroom teachers should focus on designing more learning tasks to develop SAL materials of which the learning objective of every designed task or exercise supports the course instructional objectives. In whatever features the SAL materials may come, they inform what particular language learning tasks the students should learn. This is in conformity with what Dubin and Olshtain (1986: 28) note as "When it is to be taught" or similarly I can say when it is supposed to be learned "…and at what rate of progress, relating the inventory of items to the different levels and stages as well as to the time constraints of the course." This indicates that SAL tasks should be level and time frame oriented.

Figure 1. *Diagram representing SAL materials in the classroom (modified from: Jones, 1998, p. 379)*



The above key factors of developing SAL materials potentially promote students' learning autonomy in the sense that they have greater chance to select their learning materials. With refence to the above factors, I propose some procedural emphases that teachers should put into action to start with developing SAL materials, that is to say that teachers should do; 1) focusing the TL and its skill; 2) naming the learning task and its purposes; 3) stating the level and skill; 4) labelling the aim, level and skill; 5) providing task instructions of what and how to work and use with learning tasks; and 6) providing some instruments for assessment and evaluation, such as answer keys. The above procedural emphases potentially help teachers to meet Martyn and Voller's (1993: 108) suggestion to make sense of 'self-access when it is part of a course, and how self-access learning can best be implemented to the satisfaction of both students and teachers. (p. 108). In response to this, the procedures of developing SAL materials will be discussed in detail in this chapter.

3. THE PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING SAL MATERIALS IN THE CLASSROOM

The procedures of developing SAL materials in the classroom are slightly different from those in Self Access Centre (SAC) in the aspect of teacher's control as can be seen in the following table.

SAL in the SAC	SAL in the classroom
1. less direct contact between learners and supervising staff, such as stand by tutors	**1.** more direct contact between the teacher as facilitator and students
2. little control over the learners' autonomy	**2.** much control over the students' autonomy
3. learners' own selection on easy option	**3.** suggest alternative options based on the school syllabus; selected by the students, not the teacher

In the SAC, students' learning autonomy is less controlled so as to make it sound natural, but it is not in the classroom. The teacher's role in the classroom is still great although the students work on SAL materials that are for the students to learn, not for the teacher to teach in the classroom. Hence, SAC does not recognize a teacher teaching in the centre in the sense that the students in the centre have to work on their own ways and preferences when learning the TL. Sometimes, the centre provides tutors ready for help when needed by the SAC users, but this does not mean that they teach them. They only answer whatever questions about SAL materials the SAC users may ask. Self access is not a collection of materials or a system for organizing resources. Rather, it is "an integration of a number of elements which combine to provide a learning environment" (Gardner and Miller: 1999: 8-11).

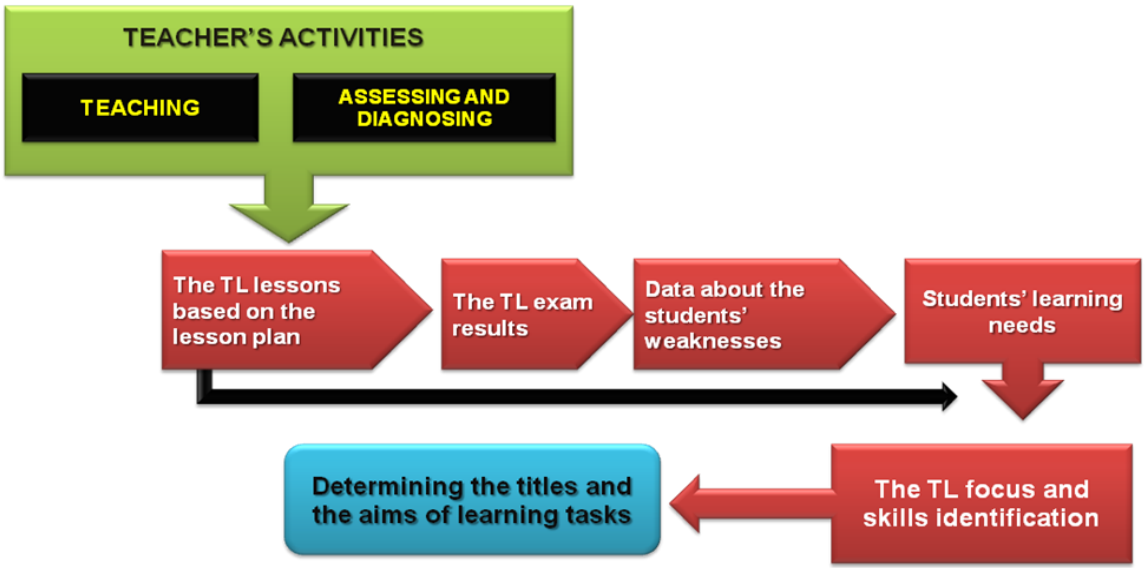
Considering the key factors as previously discussed, the procedures of developing SAL materials in the classroom include:

Step 1. Identify the focus of the TL and its skills that the students should learn in the classroom by referring to the standard and basic competence as stated in the school curriculum. In this

step, teachers should name the TL focus by topics, such as grammar or by reading text titles, such as 'on the Inter-Province Bus' (see the task model on the next page). The TL skills should be stated as a separate skill, such as reading only or the integrated ones, such as reading and speaking. In this way, the identification of the TL focus should be based on the students' learning needs dealing with what focus of the TL they are weak in that can be assessed through tests or interview results.

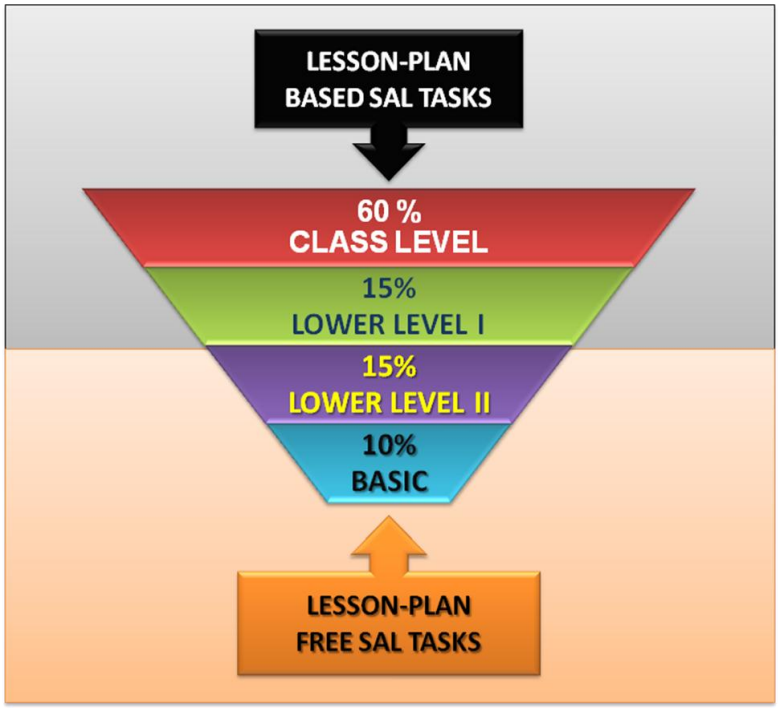
Step 2. Determine the title and the aim of each learning task clearly based on every learning indicator stated in the syllabus or lesson plan. In this case, teachers should be more specific with what particular language focus students should work. For example, if some students feel weak in understanding the content of a play script, the aim of the learning task is then to improve the students' ability to comprehend a play script of, say a simple interpersonal dialogue. In this step, I note that the aim of the learning task is based on not only the learning indicator stated in the lesson plan but also the students' learning needs dealing with the language focus identified from the exam results. This results from the fact that some students might need to learn a particular language focus before they attempt to meet the learning indicator as stated in the teacher's lesson plan. Besides, the aim of the learning task is to improve the students' performance in understanding the TL lessons. In brief, the whole procedure of Step 1 and Step 2 can be seen in figure 2 (see next page). Figure 2 describes teacher's activities: teaching the lessons based on the lesson plan, assessing the students' language ability through exams and diagnosing students' weaknesses obtained through the results of the TL exams. The diagnosis of students' weaknesses suggests their learning needs to improve their language ability identified in language focuses and skills. In this way, the titles and the aims of learning tasks can be determined to start with developing SAL materials.

Figure 2: *Teacher's activities to start with developing SAL materials*



Step 3. Determine the level and skill of the TL that the students should select based on what language focus they are weak in. The determined levels of the TL learning tasks vary from the basic to the current level of the class, and the highest percentage of the number of learning tasks goes to those for the current class level. In this step, teachers should assess their students learning needs, observe and listen to their students' feedback about what level and the TL skill they have to work on by for example interviewing them individually or open group questions eliciting their response. Besides, teachers can make use of their own notes or somewhat like a checklist form for students' response or for some information directly obtained through the students' work in a TL exam. If it is necessary, teachers should make a SAL record containing a checklist form for their students to write on. If the test or exam results show that most students (60 %) fail in understanding reading texts, SAL tasks are then supposed to improve more reading than the other skills, such as listening and speaking. The level of SAL tasks is identified from simple to more complex use of the TL focus, and the number of SAL tasks vary from 10 % to 60 % of the total number of SAL tasks copies as can be seen in Figure 3

Figure 3: *The number of lesson-plan based and lesson-plan free SAL tasks in percentages*



Lesson-plan based SAL tasks deal with SAL materials that share the same language focus, level and learning objectives as stated in the lesson-plan. In this case, the exercises of SAL materials are the supplementary exercises that come in separate files or packages for SAL materials. Whereas lesson-

plan free SAL tasks refer to SAL materials of which the learning aims are not based on the learning objectives as stated in lesson-plans. Rather, they are based on the students' learning needs as the product of reflecting on the exam results given by the teacher in the classroom.

Step 4: Type the above components; the aim, level and skill on every cover page of the SAL materials tasks worksheet packages. In this step, teachers should decide the type and size of the paper that can be used to write the above stated components. The aim of every learning task should contain the key word '(to) improve' because the students in SAL activities in the classroom are supposed to improve their own proficiency in the TL currently taught as a lesson in the classroom.

Step 5: Type general instructions concerning what the students should do with the task worksheets and answer keys. General instructions are intended to guide the students how to make their autonomous learning effective for improving their own proficiency in the TL. Such instructions do not deal with what the students do with the task exercises. Rather, they encourage the students to challenge themselves with doing the exercises of SAL tasks and suggest them to work on the exercises several times before they go up to their teacher to get the answer key. Besides, the instructions suggest the students to reflect on their own work results by for example counting the mistakes they have made in the first, the second and the third effort of doing the same exercises. In this way, the instructions enable the students to look at their own progress while working on own selections of SAL materials.

Step 6: Type the task instructions clearly to avoid the students' misunderstanding with how to work on the task exercises. Unlike the general instructions, task instructions are concerned with how the students should work with the task exercises. Task instructions should be readable in the sense that they are not blurred or poorly printed, and the language used in the instructions is not ambiguous or confusing in the sense that it is in the students' language competence. For communition purposes, task instructions can be written in the students' first or second language, such as in Bahasa Indonesia instead of in the TL (English). This is because task exercises are not supposed to test the students' ability to understand the task instruction. Rather, the task exercises are to test the students' ability to do the exercises. Poorly expressed task instructions might reduce the students' interest in doing the exercises.

Step 7: Type the task questions and the options if applicable in order with reference to the instrument format for language assessment, such as the TL test format as usually stated in the lesson plan. On this point, teachers should be consistent in designing their instrument format for assessing their students' TL ability stated in both their lesson plans and SAL task exercises. For example, if teachers provide multiple choice tests for assessing their students'

language ability as stated in their lesson plans, they have to provide the same test type for SAL task exercises.

Step 8: Type the answer key or model answer in such a way that the students cannot directly read it before they work on the exercises, or prepared answer keys and model answers can be kept separate from the SAL task exercises. To get the answer keys or model answers, students should go up to their teacher alone or in group of not more than two students, show their individual work and get the answer keys or model answers. The answer keys and model answers are silent teachers' assistants that can help students assess their own performance in doing their exercises.

4. SAMPLE SAL MATERIALS IN THE CLASSROOM

SAL materials in the classroom as discussed before are specially developed according to the existing grade or level of the class working in the classroom. In this case, I propose that every classroom of the school is facilitated with the same format and level (about 60 % of the provided SAL materials), but different classes have different levels. Each package of SAL materials consists of some learning stages; reflecting on the teacher's input stage, topic backgrounding stage, working on the task stage, self assessment stage. The following are the model of SAL materials in the classroom. The language focus in this model is much concerned with understanding a play script in the TL before doing speaking exercises based on the same play script. Therefore, the title of the learning task takes the topic of the play script itself.

Page 1

Pre-learning activity
Stage 1 and 2

Stage 1: Reflecting on the teacher's input

1. What is the topic of the English lesson you have recently learnt?
2. What language skills have you learnt from the lesson?
3. Do you experience any difficulties in understanding the lesson?
4. If yes, what particular English skill in the lesson do you think the most difficult?
5. If you think reading or speaking is the most difficult, what do you expect to learn to solve your own language skill problems?

Stage 2: Topic backgrounding

1. Do you ever travel by bus or tram in your life?
2. If yes, did you get a bus or tram ticket?
3. Where did you buy the ticket, on the bus or at the bus station?

4. Can you buy a ticket on the bus in your country?
5. If you get a bus ticket, do you always get a seat to sit down?
6. If you say 'no' in 5, what will you do to get a seat to sit down?
7. If you find yourself travelling by bus without a ticket, what will you do?
8. If someone asks for your ticket on the bus, what will you do?

Page 2

SAL Activity

Stage 3

Stage 3: Working on the task

SALM CODE: Read./Speak-Sec 1-.

TITLE : ON THE INTER-PROVINCE BUS

SKILL : READING AND SPEAKING

LEVEL : INTERMEDIATE

AIM : to improve the students' ability to comprehend a play script of a simple interpersonal dialogue

GENERAL INSTRUCTION

Read through all the information about the title up to the task questions on the material package. Don't ask the teacher for the answer key before you finish doing the exercises on your worksheet.

Page 3

TASK WORKSHEET I

READ THE FOLLOWING PLAY SCRIPT. THEN ANSWER THE QUESTIONS ON THE NEXT PAGE

The passenger is standing on a crowded inter-province bus . He is observing a seat to sit down. The tofu seller shouting 'tofu! tofu! comes up to him and says;

TOFU SELLER : Tofu!

PASSENGER : No, thanks

The passenger keeps holding the hanging straps, and he continues to think of getting a seat to sit down. Soon the bus conductor comes up to him and says;

CONDUCTOR : Ticket!

PASSENGER : No, thanks. I don't want a ticket. I just want a seat to sit down. Have you got one for me?

CONDUCTOR : I'm not selling tickets or seats, sir. I'm a bus conductor. I just want to see your bus-fare ticket.

PASSENGER : Oh, I see. Here it is.

CONDUCTOR : (checking the ticket) says: I'm sorry sir, but it is not the ticket I want. It is merely a ticket for entering the bus station area. Can I see your bus-fare ticket, sir?

PASSENGER : Surely you can. It's in your hand sir. That's the only ticket I have got. I paid it at the bus station before I got on this bus.
CONDUCTOR : No, sir. That's not the one for the bus fare. I am sorry but you haven't paid the bus fare ticket, I am afraid.
PASSENGER : You mean I haven't paid it here? on the bus?
CONDUCTOR : Yes, you haven't paid it yet sir
PASSENGER : Of course not. I never pay for a ticket on a bus. I usually buy it at the bus station. So far as I know, people buy tickets at a ticket counter, don't they?
CONDUCTOR : Absolutely yes they do sir, but that's on the train. You are on the bus, not on the train sir. I mean you must pay the bus-fare ticket now.
PASSENGER : No, I will not.
INSPECTOR : Sorry?.
PASSENGER : No, I will not buy the ticket because I have got it.
INSPECTOR : Alright, can you show me the bus-fare ticket right now or you leave the bus.
PASSENGER : OK, here it is..(giving the same ticket to the conductor, he gets off the bus and says:) good bye
CONDUCTOR : ???

Page 4

TASK WORKSHEET II

I. SPEAKING TASK

USE YOUR FORE FINGERS TO REPRESENT THE PASSENGER ON THE LEFT SIDE AND A BUS CONDUCTOR.ON THE RIGHT SIDE. YOU MAY CHANGE YOUR VOICE AS YOU CHANGE THE ROLE AS THE PASSENGER OR THE BUS CONDUCTOR.

II. READING TASK

THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES ARE FALSE. PLEASE REVISE THEM TO MAKE THEM ALL TRUE ACCORDING TO THE PLAY SCRIPT

1. The passenger was sitting at the bus window when the tofu seller came.
2. The passenger had some tofu, but he did not want to sit down.
3. There were few passengers on the bus, and the passenger did not have a bus-fare ticket.
4. The bus conductor was buying the passenger's tickets
5.. The bus conductor actually got the cushion for a seat.
6. The passenger said that buying bus tickets on the bus was expensive
7 The bus conductor was suggested to buy a ticket at the station when he was on duty
8. The passenger got off the bus and said 'good bye' to the conductor.
9. The bus conductor asked the passenger to buy him a ticket at the station.
10. The passenger enjoyed travelling by bus because he got no seats to sit down.

Page 5.

Post Learning Activity
Stage 4

Stage 4: Self assessment

1. Have you done the exercises and written down your answers on the given answer sheet?
2. If yes, have you gone up to the teacher to get the answer key?
3. If yes, have you matched the answer key with your own answer?
4. If yes, have you got any different answers?
5. How many items with different answers are there? Say it in percentages.

The above proposed model of SAL materials is supposed to be based on the classroom teacher's findings that his students' learning needs to improve their performance in the TL lesson are much concerned with reading and speaking skills. In other words, the students have to improve how to understand reading text ideas and how to express ideas rather than to improve a particular language focus, such as vocabulary. Therefore the title of the SAL task is based on the topic of the reading text; a play script, and this refers to the above procedure of Step 1 and 2. Dealing with Step 3, the SAL task level is an intermediate level in the sense that the students who work on this SAL task have sufficient knowledge of the TL in the elementary level. The level of SAL task model is identified as intermediate because the exercises using a play script require the students' ability to know not only the meanings of individual words or phrases but also the ideas organised in the play script. Then, Step 4 refers to the aim of SAL task model that is to improve the students' ability to comprehend a play script of a simple interpersonal dialogue. Further, Step 5 and 6 respectively deal with general instruction and task instruction. The former is supposed to develop students' meta-cognitive strategy of how to make SAL effective, for example '*Read through all the information about the title up to the task questions on the material package. Don't ask the teacher for the answer key before you finish doing the exercises on your worksheet*'. The latter deals with students' cognitive strategies of how to answer SAL task questions. Finally, Step 7 and 8 deal with SAL task questions and the answer key or model answer.

As mentioned earlier, the above SAL task structure is divided in different stages; reflecting on the teacher's input stage, topic backgrounding stage, working on the task stage, self assessment stage. The first stage; reflecting on the teacher's input is the stage for confirmation or negotiation that promotes the students' background knowledge about the lesson they have got from their teacher. Their responses to the questions in this stage is supposed to reflect to what extent the students know the topic presented in the lesson. However, the succesful effect of the above SAL task model on promoting learning autonomy is still vulnerable to classroom teachers' awareness as SAL facilitators as also remarked by Reinders and Lewis (2006: 274) that 'facilitators may also be more aware than

classroom teachers of the requirements of students studying independently' (p: 274). Similarly, Martyn and Voller (1993: 108) describe teachers' positive attitudes toward learning autonomy, but they are not quite confident with the effectiveness of SAL activities in the classroom. They note that 'the survey results suggest that teachers do see self-access as a useful way to individualize learning and lead into independent learning, but are uncertain how to make self-access effective' (p. 108).

Therefore, I propose some ways that the classroom teacher should consider when updating SAL materials as described below.

- As a learning autonomy facilitator, a teacher may directly or indirectly ask his/her students about what SAL materials they have worked on. In this way, the teacher might get some information about the students' learning problems on which the materials revision is based.
- The teacher keeps checking the selected SAL materials that have been used by the students. This way, certainly, enables the teacher to identify the language focus in which most students are weak. After that, the materials revision can periodically be done on a weekly basis, for example.
- The teacher gives the students SAL learning record forms and asks them to fill in so that the information about what language focus the students are weak in can be obtained and used as the reason why it is necessary to revise SAL materials.

In short, revising is the action that the teacher may take to update and duplicate SAL materials, and this is to alleviate the fact that in many situations as McMurry, Tanner, & Anderson (2009: 3) note, "a center exists but nothing is done to promote learner autonomy". In other words, optimizing learning autonomy remains a big job for EFL teachers to be put into serious action.

5. CONCLUSION

Developing SAL materials is indeed time and energy consuming in the sense that EFL teachers should be able to manage their time as efficiently and effectively as possible, but its role in ELT is so demanding that such an activity may provide a way of promoting students' learning autonomy. In this way, weak or less proficient students who fail to understand their teacher's lesson in the classroom might be encouraged to meet their own learning needs, and this can be facilitated inside the classroom. In other words, to improve what they are weak in, the students do not need to step out of the classroom and go to an SAC. Rather, they stay inside the classroom and work on their own selected SAL materials under their teacher's supervision. This is an attempt to promote students' learning autonomy in which this notions calls for future empirical research on how SAL materials could promote students' learning autonomy.

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This much-needed volume offers focused approaches and frameworks of designing or developing English materials in both EFL and ESL contexts. Informed by current empirical, theoretical, and practical grounds, the text treats key issues in English language teaching (ELT) materials design or development and sample ELT materials in which the justifications for such materials design or development are also discussed. Through the sample teaching materials included in the text, the readers can see underlying principles or frameworks of how those materials are designed or developed. In other words, this volume is a user-friendly guide to materials design or development for language teachers/practitioners in that theoretical or empirical considerations are balanced with practical materials.

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