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THIRD EDITION

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DEVELOPING MATERIALS *FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING*

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Third Edition

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Brian Tomlinson has worked as a teacher, teacher trainer, curriculum developer, film extra, football coach and university academic in Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Nigeria, Oman, Singapore, UK, Vanuatu and Zambia, as well as giving invited presentations in over seventy countries. He is Founder and President of MATSDA (the international Materials Development Association), an Honorary Visiting Professor at the University of Liverpool and a TESOL Professor at Anaheim University. He has over one hundred publications on materials development, language awareness, teacher development and second language acquisition, and he has recently co-authored with Hitomi Masuhara *The Complete Guide to the Theory and Practice of Materials Development for Language Learning* (Wiley, 2018) and *SLA Applied: Connecting Theory and Practice* (Cambridge University Press, 2021).

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Preface

The first edition of this book published in 2003 developed from a realization that a recent explosion in interest in materials development for language teaching, both as 'a field of study and as a practical undertaking' (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 66), had not been adequately catered for by the literature on materials development. A number of books had dealt with important aspects of materials development and had raised issues of great significance to the developers and users of language learning materials (e.g. Sheldon, 1987; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Byrd, 1995; Hidalgo et al., 1995; Cunningsworth, 1995; Tomlinson, 1998; Richards, 2001; McGrath, 2002). But no book had provided a comprehensive coverage of the main aspects and issues in materials development for language learning. And no book had attempted to view current practice in materials development through the eyes of research informed and experienced developers and users of materials throughout the world. This is what *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* aimed to do. It was designed and written (by native and non-native speakers of English from eleven different countries) so that it could provide both an overview of what was happening in the world of materials development for language teaching and a stimulus for further development and innovation in the field. It included reference to the teaching of languages other than English (e.g. Italian, Spanish, Japanese) and offered both objective and critical overviews of current issues in the field as well as proposals for principled developments for the future. It was written so that it could be used as a coursebook on teachers' courses and on postgraduate courses in applied linguistics, and also to provide stimulus and refreshment for teachers, publishers and applied linguists in the field. After this book was first published in 2003 a number of books focused on different aspects of materials development. For example:

- Johnson (2003) reported a study of how novice and expert materials developers approached the writing of a task for a unit of materials.
- Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) provided a practical guide for teachers engaging in materials development.
- Tomlinson (2008) provided a critical survey of different types of materials and of materials in different parts of the world.
- Harwood (2010) focused on the principles and procedures of materials development (especially with reference to English for Academic Purposes).
- Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) reported research on materials development from all over the world.
- Gray (2010) wrote about cultural and ideological influences on the development of the global coursebook.

- Tomlinson (2011) published contributions from eminent materials developers who have made presentations at MATSDA Conferences.
- McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) focused on materials adaptation and development for teachers.
- Tomlinson (2013) investigated the match between applied linguistics theory and materials development.

However, by 2013 no publication had appeared which aimed to provide such complete coverage of aspects and issues in materials development as *Developing Materials for Language Teaching.* The updated second edition of the book in 2013 aimed to provide a similar informative coverage for participants of teachers' and postgraduate courses while at the same time providing stimulus and refreshment for teachers, academics and materials developers. Many of the chapters were retained and updated from the 2003 edition and a number of new chapters were added on recent developments in blended learning, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), corpus-informed materials, ESOL materials, materials for young learners and materials for writing.

Ultimately, 'It is the language teacher who must validate or refute specific proposals' for applying linguistic and psycholinguistic theory to language teaching (Chomsky, 1996, p. 46) and it is the language teacher who must validate or refute the materials which are developed for the language classroom. Widdowson (2000, p. 31) offers the 'applied linguist' as a 'mediating agent' who must make 'insights intelligible in ways in which their usefulness can be demonstrated' but Tomlinson (2013b) raised questions about how effective applied linguistics had been in achieving 'intelligibility' and 'usefulness'. In the 2013 edition of this book, instead of the applied linguist, I offered the informed and reflective practitioner as the ideal agent for mediating between theory and practice. Some of the contributors to that book might have been labelled teachers, some materials developers, some applied linguists, some teacher trainers and some publishers. But all of them shared four things in common. They all had experience as teachers of a second or foreign language (L2); they had all contributed to the development of L2 materials; they had all kept in touch with developments in linguistic, sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic and second language acquisition theory; and they all had respect for the teacher and the learner as the people with the power to decide what actually happened in the language classroom.

Since the 2013 edition of this book was published there have been many developments in second language acquisition research and theory, many developments in the affordances offered by technological developments and many changes in how the value of learning and using an L2 is perceived. There have also been many proposals for how these new developments, affordances and perceptions can be applied to the development and use of materials for language learning as opposed to language teaching. These proposals have been made in such publications as:

- McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013), which connects language teaching methodology and the development of materials for language learning;
- McGrath (2013), which introduces a relatively new and now increasingly researched focus on what teachers actually do with their materials in class;

- Tomlinson (2013), which explores the application to materials development of the research findings of various relevant areas of applied linguistics;
- Garton and Graves (2014), which connects theory to practice in materials design and use by reporting research and application in various international settings;
- Harwood (2014), a collection of chapters reporting research studies of applications of theory to practice;
- Mishan and Timmis (2015), a book which provides a practical introduction to the principles of materials development for teachers in training;
- Azarnoosh et al. (2016), a book of chapters commenting on current issues in materials development;
- Masuhara, Tomlinson and Mishan (2016), which focuses on research findings on the effectiveness of materials for their users;
- McGrath (2016), an update of McGrath (2002);
- Tomlinson (2016), which focuses on applications to materials development of research and theories in the field of second language acquisition;
- Maley and Tomlinson (2017), a collection of papers from a MATSDA conference which focused on the use of authentic materials in language learning;
- Bao, D. (2018), proposals for new and more creative directions for materials development;
- Bori (2018), a critique of the way that coursebooks reflect political and social values and in particular the reflection of neoliberalism in a coursebook for teaching Catalan;
- Risager (2018), an analysis of cultural representation in language learning textbooks;
- Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018), a guide to the theory and practice of most aspects of materials development;
- Tomlinson and Masuhara (2021), an exploration of ways of applying second language acquisition research and theory to practice, including many applications to materials development.

Whilst these publications and others have been respected and useful for their informed provision of information on applications of theory to practice and their advocacy of innovative approaches, none of them (with the possible exception of Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018)) have provided a detailed and comprehensive coverage of all aspects of materials development and use. This edition aims to provide this coverage in relation to the recent developments in the field referred to above. It retains many of the chapter topics and contributors from the 2013 edition but provides substantial revision of each chapter to reflect the current thinking of the authors and the field. It also provides many new chapters on new directions in materials development and introduces many new contributors with international reputations in the field. The increasing focus on how materials are actually used by teachers and by learners is catered for by Claudia Fernandez in Chapter 3, Irma-Kaarina Ghosn proposes principles and procedures for developing materials for young learners in Chapter 12, Naeema Haan discusses and exemplifies ways of teaching right to left languages such as Urdu and Arabic in Chapter 16, Scott Thornbury critiques the structure-driven norms of the typical coursebook in Chapter 17, Kay O'Halloran

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introduces the newly important area of materials for multi-modal discourses in Chapter 23, Freda Mishan focuses on inter-cultural language education in Chapter 24 and Brian Tomlinson suggests ways of developing materials to promote communicative competence in Chapter 26. The very important area of the development and use of digital materials is catered for not only by an updated version of Thom Kiddle's overview chapter from the 2013 edition (Chapter 9) but also by Duriya Aziz Singapore Wala writing about the application of theory to practice in the development of digital materials for Singapore (Chapter 6), by Peter Sharma focusing on materials for blended learning in Chapter 10 and by Nicky Hockly exploring the ways that the affordances offered by mobile devices can be used to facilitate language acquisition in Chapter 11.

The section in the 2013 edition on Materials Development and Teacher Training has been moved to a web supplement with an additional chapter by Jayakaran Mukundan on trainee creation of video materials and a chapter by Maria Heron on using materials development on training courses. Other new additions to this edition are the setting of two readers' tasks at the end of each chapter to promote reflection and application and the provision of suggestions for further reading. In the web supplement there are also two additional readers' tasks and two additional suggestions for reading for each chapter in the book.

This book (like the 2013 edition) is dedicated to classroom teachers and teachers in training. It aims to help them to make decisions about materials for themselves and to help them and others to contribute to the development and use of materials which can facilitate the acquisition of an L2. It does so by applying insights gained from applied linguistics, from materials development and, especially, from classroom observation and practice. Most importantly it does so by helping materials developers and teachers to put the learners at the centre of their learning and to afford them agency, responsibility and choice.

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Introduction: Are materials developing?

Brian Tomlinson

What is materials development?

Materials development is a term used to refer to two different but related activities. It refers to an academic field which 'studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials' (Tomlinson, 2001, p, 66) and it refers to the actual carrying out of the procedures of designing, developing, monitoring, revising, producing and using language teaching materials. The position taken in this book is that these two aspects of materials development should interact and inform each other and that material production should be informed by research and theory and materials development theory should be informed by the realities of how and why language learning materials are produced and used. For a discussion of materials development as an academic field see Tomlinson (forthcoming a), and for suggestions for ways of connecting practice and theory in coursebook development and use see Tomlinson (forthcoming b).

This book deals with both the aspects of materials development outlined above. For example, Chapter 4 (Tomlinson), Chapter 18 (Nation) and Chapter 26 (Tomlinson) deal with the principles and procedures of aspects of the development of materials, Chapter 1 (Tomlinson) deals with the principles and procedures of the evaluation of materials and Chapter 2 (Saraceni) deals with the principles and procedures of materials adaptation. On the other hand, for example, Chapters 9 (Kiddle and Farrell), 10 (Sharma) and 11 (Hockly) focus on the actual process of the development of paper and/or digital materials.

Today there is an even greater inclusion of materials development on courses for teachers and post-graduate students than I reported in the second edition of this book in 2013: for example the International Graduate School of English (IGSE) in Seoul runs an MA in Materials Development for Language Teaching, I run a doctorate course on materials development at Anaheim University in California and MA TESOL/Applied Linguistics courses throughout the world now include modules on materials development. This is mainly because of the realization that 'Every teacher is a materials developer' (English Language Centre, 1997) who needs to be able to evaluate, adapt, produce and use materials so as to ensure a match between their learners and the materials that are used to help them acquire a language. It is also because of the realization that one of the most effective ways of 'helping teachers to understand and apply theories of language learning – and to achieve personal and professional development – is to provide monitored experience of the process of developing materials' (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67). This

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concrete experience of developing materials as a basis for reflective observation and conceptualization enables teachers to theorize their practice (Schon, 1987; Tomlinson, 2014), to develop and use materials more effectively and to actually become better teachers (see Tomlinson, 2014, for teacher testaments as to how developing materials contributed to their ‘growth’ as teachers).

Other aspects of materials development focused on in this book include the study of how materials are actually used in the classroom (Chapter 2 (Saraceni) and Chapter 3 (Fernandez)) and the development and use of materials to actualize recent pedagogical, content or delivery approaches e.g. Chapter 9 (Kiddle and Farrell) on materials exploiting the affordances of digital delivery, Chapter 15 (Haan) on materials for ESOL, Chapter 23 (O’Halloran) on materials for helping to develop multi-modal competence and Chapter 25 (Timmis) on materials for corpus informed approaches).

Although a number of chapters in this book focus primarily on one of the four aspects of materials development described above, many of them deal with two or even three of these aspects. For example, Chapter 6 (Singapore Wala) reports on the practical realization of theoretical principles in the development of digital materials, Chapter 10 (Sharma) examines both the theories which drive blended learning and their implementation and Chapter 19 (Masuhara) looks at the application of reading research and theory to the development of coursebook materials for teaching reading. In addition, a number of chapters (e.g. Mishan (Chapter 24) on intercultural language education) focus on issues related to the content of materials, as well as concerning themselves with the application of theory to practice.

What are materials?

In this book ‘materials’ ‘include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic, and they can be presented in print, through live performance or display, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet’ (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 66). They can be instructional, experiential, elicitative or exploratory, in that they can inform learners about the language, they can provide experience of the language in use, they can stimulate language use or they can help learners to make discoveries about the language for themselves. See also Richards (2001, p. 251) for a definition of materials and Graves (2019) for a discussion about what materials are, what they do and what they are used for.

Despite the recent ‘explosion’ of electronic materials and the need to learn at a distance enforced by Covid-19, most language learning materials are still published as books and many of the chapters in this book focus on print materials. However, Chapter 7 (Hurst and Hill), for example, focuses on the roles of visuals in facilitating language acquisition and Chapter 22 (Tomlinson and Hill) focuses on auditory materials. Chapter 9 (Kiddle and Farrell) focuses on the computer and the internet, Chapter 10 (Sharma) focuses on blended learning, Chapter 11 (Hockly) focuses on mobile-assisted language learning (MALL), Chapter 14 (Cives-Enriquez) focuses on live materials, Chapter 19 (Masuhara) focuses on multidimensional activities and Chapter 23 (O’Halloran) focuses on ways of developing competence in multi-modal discourse. Most language learning materials are instructional (‘instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom’ (Richards, 2001, p. 251)) and many of the chapters in this book focus on materials for instruction. However, many other chapters advocate more attention being paid to experiential

materials (e.g. Chapters 2 (Saraceni), 19 (Masuhara), 22 (Tomlinson and Hill), 26 (Tomlinson)) and to elicitative materials (e.g. Chapters 4 (Tomlinson), 15 (Haan) and 25 (Timmis) focus on materials stimulating learner discovery).

What are the issues in materials development?

What should drive materials?

The obvious answer to this question is that the needs and wants of the learners should drive the materials. But teachers have needs and wants to be satisfied too (Masuhara, 2011) and so do administrators, with their concerns for standardization and conformity with, for example, a syllabus, a theory of language learning, the requirements of examinations and the language policies of a government (see Kennedy and Tomlinson, 2013, and Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021, for discussions of the multiple and often conflicting requirements of a national and of institutional textbooks). These needs and wants are not irreconcilable and, in my experience, they can best be satisfied by localized materials development projects in which learners, teachers and administrators are consulted before, during and after the materials writing process. This is what happened in the process of developing the most satisfactory textbook I have ever been involved in, *On Target* (1996), a coursebook for secondary school students in Namibia. Prior to the writing of the book, students and teachers were consulted all over Namibia about what they wanted and needed from the book. During the writing of the book, Ministry of Education officials were present throughout each day in which thirty teachers wrote the materials in ten writing teams. Each team consulted with advisors and with a monitoring team and the advisors consulted with the officials to ensure acceptability in relation to the curriculum and the examinations. After the writing of the book, it was trialled extensively and revised in relation to the feedback which was provided by students, teachers and officials. A similar approach has been followed by Bilkent University in Turkey and by Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat in the production of new textbooks for their English courses. See Tomlinson (1995, 2001, 2012b), Lyons (2003) and Al-Busaidi and Tindle (2010) for descriptions of these projects. Many of the projects referred to above decided to adopt a text-driven approach rather than a syllabus-, grammar-, functions-, skills-, topic- or theme-driven approach. That is, they decided to start by finding written and spoken texts with a potential for affective and cognitive engagement, and then to use a flexible framework to develop activities driven by these texts. Later on they would cross-check with the syllabus and the examination requirements to ensure satisfactory coverage. For a description and justification of such an approach, see Chapter 4 (Tomlinson) in this book, Darici and Tomlinson (2016) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018).

The situation is complicated in the case of materials produced by publishers for commercial distribution. ‘The author is generally concerned to produce a text that teachers will find innovative, creative, relevant to their learners’ needs, and that they will enjoy teaching from. … The publisher is primarily motivated by financial success’ (Richards, 2001, p. 257). Publishers obviously aim to produce excellent books which will satisfy the wants and needs of their users but their need to maximize profits makes them cautious and conservative and any compromise with the authors tends still to be biased towards perceived market needs rather than towards the actual needs and wants of the learners. There is also a marked mismatch between generally agreed theories of second language acquisition and the practice of materials development for

commercial publication, with the most obvious mismatch being the way that the prevalence of such closed exercises as multiple-choice, true/false, filling in the blanks (Freeman, 2014; Tomlinson, 2018a) contradicts the principle of experiential, open-ended creativity advocated by many SLS researchers (see Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2021). For discussions of the compromises typically required by commercial publishers of materials (and especially of global coursebooks), see Ariew (1982), Richards (2001), Gray (2010), Bell and Gower (2011), Zemach (2018) and Jordan and Gray (2019), as well as Chapters 5 (Tomlinson) and 17 (Thornbury) in this volume. For discussion of the reasons and effects of such compromises, see Tomlinson (2018a, 2020, forthcoming a, forthcoming b) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, especially Chapter 6 'The Process of Publishing Coursebooks'). For a defence of global coursebooks and a claim that they are compatible with the principles of second language acquisition see Hughes (2019).

Who should develop the materials?

These days most commercial materials are written by professional materials writers writing to a brief determined by the publishers from an analysis of market needs (see Amrani, 2011; Tomlinson, 2020; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018; Zemach, 2018). These writers are usually experienced and competent, they are familiar with the realities of publishing and the potential of the new technologies and they usually write full-time for a living. The books they write are usually systematic, well-designed, teacher-friendly and thorough. But they often lack energy and imagination (how can the writers be imaginative all day and every day if they are writing to a prescription?) and they are inevitably sometimes insufficiently relevant and appealing to the actual learners who use them (see Tomlinson et al., 2001; Masuhara et al., 2008; Tomlinson, 2010, 2018, 2020, forthcoming a, forthcoming b; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013, 2018). Dudley Evans and St John (1998, p. 173) state that 'only a small proportion of good teachers are also good designers of course materials'. This observation is contrary to my experience, as I have found that teachers throughout the world only need a little training, experience and support to become materials writers who can produce imaginative materials of relevance and appeal to their learners. This has certainly been the case with teachers on materials development courses I have run in Belgium, Brazil, Botswana, Indonesia, Japan, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Mauritius, Oman, the Seychelles, Vanuatu and Vietnam, and on textbook projects I have been a consultant for in Ethiopia, Bulgaria, China, Turkey and Namibia (Tomlinson, 2001). What stands out in my memory is the excellence of teacher-produced materials on the PKG project in Indonesia, when secondary school teachers on in-on-service courses met in each other's houses each week to produce innovative materials for their classes in the following week, in Namibia when thirty teachers came together in Windhoek to write a new national secondary school coursebook in six days and recently in Shanghai when a small group of lecturers at the Shanghai International Studies University revised the Shanghai secondary school coursebooks in ways which humanized and added affective and cognitive engagement to the units.

This issue of who make the best writers of language learning materials is addressed in a number of chapters in this book, for example Chapters 2 (Saraceni), 4 (Tomlinson), 5 (Tomlinson) and 26 (Tomlinson). Saraceni suggests ways in which learners can play an important role in adapting materials (see also Jolly and Bolitho, 2011) and I have sometimes got learners to write materials for their class-mates, for themselves and for learners at lower language levels.

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How should materials be developed?

Typically, commercial materials have been written over a long period of time by a pair or very small team of writers (e.g. in the year 2010 *Speakout Intermediate* by Antonia Clare and J. J. Wilson, the *Big Picture Pre-Intermediate* by Beth Bradfield and Carol Lethaby and *global* by Lindsay Clanfield and Rebecca Robb-Benne with Amanda Jeffries were published and *Cambridge Global English Coursebook 7* by Chris Barker and Libby Mitchell was published in 2014). Recently some courses have had different writers for each level, as with the *Navigate* series published by Oxford University Press, and many courses are written to publisher prescriptions by large teams of writers with commissioned lead authors being responsible for the coursebooks and other writers being responsible for the multiple course components which seem to be required these days (e.g. Bradfield and Lethaby (2010) has seven components per level and *New Headway Pre-Intermediate* (Soars and Soars, 2012) offers a student's coursebook, workbook with iChecker, CD-Rom and website as well as a teacher's book, class audio DCs, itools for the digital classroom and teacher's website.). An example of a recently published coursebook would be *Own It. It's Your World* (2019), a false beginner to intermediate level course for teenagers which is written by Claire Thacker, Samantha Lewis, Daniel Vincent and Stuart Cochrane with Andrew Reid and Melissa Wilson and which includes multiple paper, video, audio and digital components. Published materials usually take a long time to produce because of the multiple components and because the important review process takes time (though many publishers now save time by not trialling their materials (Amrani, 2011; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018)). In my experience the result very often is a drop in creative energy as the process drags on and the eventual publication of competent but rather uninspiring materials driven not by writer principles and enthusiasm but by market requirements. For descriptions and critiques of how commercial courses are typically developed see Aitchinson (2013), McGrath (2013), Zemach (2018) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, Chapter 6 – The Process of Publishing Coursebooks).

My own preference is for a large team approach to writing materials, which aims at fast first draft production by many people working together followed by refinement by a smaller group of experts. This is the procedure that the Namibian and Bilkent projects referred to above decided to follow. In the writing of the Namibian coursebook, *On Target* (1996), thirty teachers were selected to provide a team of varying ages, experience and expertise and were then brought from all over the country to Windhoek (see Tomlinson, 1995). On the first day, I demonstrated some innovative approaches to extend the teachers' repertoires of activity types and to stimulate thought and discussion about the principles of language learning. On the second day, we worked out a flexible framework to use in producing the materials and made some decisions together about the use of illustrations, music, cassettes, etc. Then, for four days the teachers wrote and monitored materials in small teams while a small group of facilitators supported them and cross-checked with the syllabus. That way we managed to complete the first draft of the whole book in one week, and then this was trialled, revised, edited and published within the year. In Bilkent University we followed a similar procedure and twenty teachers in small teams produced and monitored sixty units within a week for a group of four 'writers' to select from, revise and trial. A similar approach was taken with the development of an in-house writing course for Sultan Qaboos University in Muscat but with a smaller team of teachers (see Al-Busaidi and Tindle (2010)).

In the cases described above, the teachers managed to inspire each other with ideas, to maintain creative energy, to relate their materials to the actual learners who were going to use them and to

suggest useful improvements to each other's materials. All this was achieved to a far greater degree than I have ever managed when writing a coursebook by myself, with a partner or in a small team working at a distance from each other. And all this was achieved because a group of enthusiastic teachers were working together for a short time.

How should materials be evaluated?

Materials are often evaluated in an ad hoc, impressionistic way, which tends to favour materials which have face validity (i.e. which conform to people's expectations of what materials should look like) and which are visually appealing. In order to ensure that materials are devised, revised, selected, adapted and used in reliable and valid ways, we need to ensure that materials evaluation establishes procedures which are thorough, rigorous, systematic and principled. This often takes time and effort but it could prevent many of the mistakes which are made by writers, publishers, teachers, institutions and ministries and which can have negative effects on learners' potential to benefit from their courses. For ways of achieving this, see Chapters 1 (Tomlinson) and 2 (Saraceni) in this volume, as well as Mukundan and Ahour (2010), Tomlinson (2012b), McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013), McGrath (2016) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018).

Should texts be authentic?

Materials aiming at explicit learning usually contrive examples of the language which focus on the feature being taught. Usually these examples are presented in short, easy, specially written or simplified texts or dialogues, and it is argued that they help the learners by focusing their attention on the target feature. The counterargument is that such texts overprotect learners, deprive them of the opportunities for acquisition provided by rich texts and do not prepare them for the reality of language use, whereas authentic texts (i.e. texts not written especially for language teaching) can provide exposure to language as it is typically used. A similar debate continues in relation to materials for the teaching of reading and listening skills and materials for extensive reading and listening. One side argues that simplification and contrivance can facilitate learning; the other side argues that they can lead to faulty learning and that they deny the learners opportunities for informal, implicit learning and for the development of self-esteem.

Most researchers argue for authenticity and stress its motivating effect on learners (e.g. Bacon and Finneman, 1990; Kuo, 1993; Little et al., 1994; Mishan, 2005; Gilmore, 2007; Rilling and Dantas-Whitney, 2009; Maley and Tomlinson, 2017). Some researchers also argue that exposure to authentic materials can 'provide the rich and meaningful exposure to language in use which is a pre-requisite for language acquisition … that it can help learners to develop a range of communicative competencies and that it can enhance positive attitudes towards the learning of a language' (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, p. 31). However, Widdowson (1984, p. 218) says that 'pedagogic presentation of language … necessarily involves methodological contrivance which isolates features from their natural surroundings'; Day and Bamford (1998, pp. 54–62) attack the 'cult of authenticity' and advocate simplified reading texts which have the 'natural properties of authenticity'; Ellis (1999, p. 68) argues for 'enriched input' which provides learners with input which has been flooded with exemplars of the target structure in

the context of meaning-focused activities; and Day (2003) claims there is no evidence that authenticity facilitates acquisition but that there is evidence that learners find authentic texts more difficult. Moore (2014) believes in the need to expose EAP learners to authentic EAP texts but argues for helping learners by introducing the content of a long authentic text through short key sentences. I have helped learners prepare to read a difficult authentic text by, for example, getting the teacher to impersonate the writer and summarize it orally with a focus on the more affectively engaging parts of it and by getting learners to act out the most dramatic scene in a book in response to my narrative, prior to reading the book. I have also given learners a choice of three versions of a reading text before getting learners who have read different versions to work together in a group on tasks responding to the content of the texts. When I did this on a project in Senegal many learners chose the authentic version and most of those who chose one of the simplified versions read the authentic text after the class.

Some researchers have challenged the conventional view of authenticity and redefined it, for example, in relation to the learners' culture (Prodromou, 1992; Trabelsi, 2010), to the learners' interaction with a text or task (Widdowson, 1978), to the 'authenticity of the learner's own interpretation' (Breen, 1985, p. 61) and to the personal engagement of the learner (Van Lier, 1996). For discussion of the issues raised above, see Widdowson (2000), Mishan (2005), Trabelsi (2010), Tomlinson (2012b, 2013b, 2016) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018), as well as Chapters 2 (Saraceni), 17 (Thornbury) and 19 (Masuhara) in this volume.

For me the most useful definition of an authentic text is 'one which is produced in order to communicate rather than to teach' (Tomlinson, 2012b, p. 162) and the most useful definition of an authentic task is 'one which involves the learners in communicating to achieve an outcome, rather than to practise the language' (ibid.). I believe that all texts and tasks should be authentic in these ways, otherwise the learners are not being prepared for the realities of language use. I also believe that meaningful engagement with authentic texts is a prerequisite for the development of communicative and strategic competence but that authentic texts can be created by interactive negotiation between learners as well as presented to them (see Breen and Littlejohn, 2000, as well as Chapters 2 (Saraceni), 5 (Tomlinson) and 14 (Cives-Enriquez) in this volume). I also believe, though, that it is useful for learners to sometimes pay discrete attention to linguistic, pragmatic or discoursal features of authentic texts which they have previously been engaged by, and especially to features which are significant, problematic or frequent but do not stand out (Tomlinson, 1994, 2007, 2018b; Bolitho et al., 2003; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021; and Chapter 4 (Tomlinson) and Chapter 5 (Tomlinson) in this volume).

Other issues

Other issues which have received attention in the literature and which feature in this book include:

Do learners need a coursebook? In the eighties Allwright (1981) put forward arguments against ways in which textbooks deliver materials and O'Neil responded with a defence of the coursebook. Since then there has been continual debate about whether learners benefit from coursebooks or not. Opponents have argued that the coursebook often benefits administrators and teachers without catering for the needs and wants of learners (Tomlinson, 2010), that it

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is used mainly to impose control and order (Mukundan, 2009) and that it is 'superficial and reductionist in its coverage of points and in its provision of language experience … it imposes uniformity of syllabus and approach, and it removes initiative and power from teachers' (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 67). Proponents (e.g. Torres and Hutchinson, 1994; Hadley, 2014) have countered that the coursebook is a cost-effective way of providing security, system, progress and revision for the learner, that it saves teachers time and provides them with a secure base and that it helps administrators achieve credibility and standardization. My position is that coursebooks are necessary because most teachers are obliged to use a coursebook by their institution and they actually need to use a coursebook anyway because they do not have the time and resources to always develop their own materials. Many of them use their coursebook reluctantly though and complain about the obligation to cover so much so quickly (see Tomlinson, 2015, for reference to studies which report teachers' regular but reluctant use of the coursebook). What teachers need are coursebooks which provide them with texts and tasks which have the potential to engage their students affectively and cognitively and which encourage and help the teachers to adapt and supplement the texts and tasks in ways which connect with their learners. For discussion of this issue, see Mishan (2005), Tomlinson (2013), Mishan and Timmis (2015), Tomlinson (2014), Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) and Jordan and Gray (2019) as well as Chapters 2 (Saraceni) and 14 (Cives-Enriquez) in this volume. For a defence of the coursebook, see Hughes (2019).

Do learners need published materials at all? In recent years there have been some attempts to move away from using published materials with institutions throughout the world developing their own locally relevant materials (e.g. Al Busaidi and Tindle, 2010; Mason, 2010; Park, 2010) and with Meddings and Thornbury (2009) proposing the Dogme ELT movement which advocates learner-centred, materials-light approaches. And yet surveys by the British Council (2008) and Tomlinson (2010) show that most teachers continue to use commercially published materials (even though many do so with compulsion or reluctance). For discussion of this issue, see Tomlinson (2012b, 2014) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018).

Should materials be learning or acquisition focused? Most published materials focus on conscious learning of explicitly taught language points but many researchers argue that the learners should be provided with many more opportunities to acquire language incidentally and informally from exposure to language in use, as well as explicitly from focusing on salient or problematic language whilst engaged in meaning-focused activities (see Ellis, 2015; Long, 2015; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021). For discussion of this issue in relation to materials for language learning, see Tomlinson (2008, 2010, 2011, 2012a, 2013, 2016), and especially Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, 2021) in which suggestions are made for making use of such experiential approaches as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), Text-Driven Approaches (TDA), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Project-Based Approaches. See also Chapters 4 (Tomlinson), 14 (Cives-Enriquez), 18 (Nation), 19 (Masuhara), 21 (Dat) and 26 (Tomlinson) in this volume.

Should published materials be censored? It is common practice for publishers to censor materials to make sure that they do not give offence or cause embarrassment. Many authors

have complained about the unengaging blandness of the materials which result from what they see as excessive caution (e.g. Wajnryb, 1996; Tomlinson, 2001) and Chapter 2 (Saraceni) in this book, and many have complained about the 'safe, clean, harmonious, benevolent, undisturbed' (Wajnryb, 1996), successful, materialistic and aspirational EFL world (Gray, 2010). Tomlinson (2001, 2012b, 2016) understands the publishers' caution but stresses the importance of affective engagement in language acquisition and therefore of controversial topics and provocative texts. Such engagement can be achieved without giving offence, as I have found whilst working with teachers on developing materials for Indonesia, Iran and Oman.

Should materials be driven by theory or practice? Reviews of ELT coursebooks (Tomlinson et al., 2001; Masuhara et al., 2008; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013) reveal that coursebook writers are much more influenced by what is conventional practice than by theories of language acquisition or even by classroom research. In some ways this is a vicious circle as publishers continue to produce courses with face validity which they know will sell. Tomlinson (2010, 2011, 2012a, 2013, 2016, 2020, forthcoming b) understands the publishers' reluctance to change but argues that learners are being disadvantaged by the failure of coursebook writers to apply even such basic theories of second language acquisition (SLA) as the necessity for exposure to language in use and for opportunities to use language for communication. For discussion of this issue, see Bell and Harwood (2010), Gower (2011), Prowse (2011), Tomlinson (2020, forthcoming b) and Chapters 4 (Tomlinson) and 8 (Maley) in this volume.

Should materials be driven by syllabus needs, learner needs or market needs? Most published materials are inevitably driven by perceived market needs but many large institutions are beginning to publish their own materials because of the mismatch between the courses available and their local institutional needs (Tomlinson, 2012b, 2020, forthcoming b). And many researchers are arguing that learners are suffering because courses are designed primarily to appeal to the administrators and teachers who are responsible for buying them. For discussion of this issue, see, for example, Amrani (2011), Masuhara (2011), Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) and Chapter 4 (Tomlinson) in this book.

Should materials cater for learner expectations or try to change them? Traditionally it has been argued that it is important to provide learners with what they expect or else you risk rejection of the materials. Recently though researchers (e.g. Tomlinson, 2005) have pointed out that it is usually teachers rather than learners who are resistant to change and that learners often welcome innovative approaches which have the potential to engage them. See Chapters 5 (Tomlinson), 14 (Cives-Enriquez) and 26 (Tomlinson) in this book for discussion of this issue.

Should materials aim for language development only or should they also aim for personal and educational development? Many language teachers argue that it is their job to help the learners to acquire language and that they are not responsible for their educational development. Others argue that if language learners are situated in an educational establishment then their teacher's main responsibility is to help them to mature and develop. And others argue that not only are personal and educational development main objectives of any language course but that the achievement of these objectives actually facilitates the acquisition of language too. For discussion of this issue, see Banegas (2011) and Chapters 2 (Saraceni) and 5 (Tomlinson) in this volume.

Should materials aim to contribute to teacher development as well as language learning? All teachers need frequent stimulus and refreshment if they are not to 'fossilize'. Most teachers have very few opportunities for personal and professional development though and many researchers are now arguing that published materials should aim to help teachers to develop by involving them in, for example, making principled decisions about which texts and tasks to use and how to use them to the best advantage of their learners. See Tomlinson (1995) and Chapters 1 (Tomlinson), and 2 (Saraceni) in this book for discussion of this issue.

What are the current trends in materials development?

In the first edition of this book (Tomlinson, 2003) I claimed that it is arguable that there is nothing much new going on in materials development and that in the area of commercially produced materials there is even a sort of principled going back. This was justified by publishers by reference to their confidential research into what learners and teachers want (e.g. the return to the centrality of grammar highlighted in Tomlinson et al., 2001, p. 84). In the 2013 edition I reported very little change in what publishers offer to teachers and learners in their coursebooks. And now in 2021 I am saying the same thing again. Most coursebooks are still divided into units with each unit focusing on the explicit teaching, practising and production of a selected structure (i.e. PPP) and with separate reading, writing, listening and speaking sections also highlighting that structure. Very few researchers would support this approach other than the advocates of skill acquisition theory (e.g. De Keyser, 2007; Craido, 2016) who claim that explicit learning of declarative knowledge (i.e. knowledge about language) can lead through practice to communicative competence. What most researchers would advocate would be materials which provide learners with rich and engaging exposure to language in use plus opportunities to use the language for purposeful communication and opportunities to make discoveries for themselves about how the language is typically used (Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021; Jordan and Gray, 2019). But publishers continue to ignore this advice not because they do not understand or believe it but because following it could lose their coursebooks face validity and risk financial disaster. In my view and that of many other researchers (e.g. Aitchison, 2013; Zemach, 2018) publishers are driven by economic imperatives and constraints and by the ever-increasing cost of producing the sort of multicoloured, multicomponent coursebook which seems to attract the biggest sales these days. As a result, publishers dare not risk losing vast sums of money on a radically different type of coursebook, they opt for safe, middle-of-the-road, global coursebooks which clone the features of such best-selling coursebooks as *Headway,* and they cut down on non-profit-making supplementary materials. Unfortunately this then has a washback effect on non-commercial materials, as teachers and curriculum developers tend to imitate the approaches of best-selling coursebooks on the assumption that this must be what learners and teachers want (though the reality is more likely that their models are the books which have been promoted most expensively and successfully by their publishers). Hughes (2019), however, paints a completely different picture as an insider in the publishing world (she works in sales for Oxford University Press). She claims that publishers are very interested in applying research findings and that current coursebooks do reflect many of the principles of second language acquisition. Unfortunately she seems to consider what coursebooks claim to do as evidence of what they actually do.

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In the 2013 edition I mentioned that there had been a few peripheral developments such as materials for Content and Integrated Language Learning (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010), materials for task-based approaches (e.g. Van den Branden, 2006) and materials which are corpus informed (e.g. McCarthy et al., 2006) but nothing much else had changed. Unfortunately this is still true today. There have been some innovations on materials development projects. For example, see Lambert and Oliver (2020) for a survey of how TBLT is used around the world, and for an application of interactionist theory to TBLT materials development see Mackey, Ziegler and Bryfonski (2016); see Ansarian and Teoh (2018) for a survey of the literature on problem-based approaches and for suggestions for classroom implementation; see Sylven (2019) for a study of the effects of CLIL as used in secondary schools in Sweden; and see Piccardo and North (2019) and Lowie et al. (2020) for examples of materials driven by usage-based approaches in which the emphasis is on extracting language from usage events in which language is used to achieve purposeful communication. I am struggling though to provide references for any recent innovative coursebook, though there are some coursebooks which, whilst retaining all the usual components of the stereotypical coursebook, do make some use of recent methodological developments. For example, *Own It. It's Your World* (2019) does include CLIL activities in a component providing project tasks.

There is still some hope of progress, though, and in my list of current trends below I have listed a number of positive ones:

Positive trends

- In the 2013 edition I reported that there were some materials requiring investment by the learners in order for them to make discoveries for themselves from analysis of samples of language in use (e.g. McCarthy et al., 2006; Bradfield and Letharby, 2010; Clare and Wilson, 2010). I also reported that unfortunately most of the current coursebooks inviting discovery just asked the learners to find predetermined answers rather than to make unexpected discoveries of their own. This is still true today with an example being a coursebook revision project I worked on recently which had a section called Discovery in each unit but did not involve the learners in any open-ended exploration of language at all.
- In 2013 I said, 'There are more materials making use of corpus data reflecting actual language use (e.g. McCarthy et al., 2006). However, as Timmis (2013) points out, there are still many coursebooks which deliberately do not make any use of corpora at all (e.g. Dellar and Walkley, 2005).' Amazingly this situation does not seem to have changed very much with many publishers actually building their own corpora for research and academic publishing but not making use of it in developing their coursebooks (though a number of recent Cambridge University Press coursebooks are 'supported' by or 'informed' by Cambridge University Press corpora). For a discussion of the potential role of corpora in materials development see Chapter 25 (Timmis).
- There are more extensive reader series being produced with fewer linguistic constraints and more provocative content (e.g. Maley, 2008; Maley and Prowse, 2013) but, as Maley and Prowse (2013) point out, there has also been a disturbing trend for publishers to add comprehension questions to their extensive readers, thus ironically promoting intensive reading. Recently I acted as a judge for the Extensive

Reading Foundation competition for published extensive readers and was disturbed to find that the majority of books sent to me had comprehension questions and language practice activities for every chapter. For a discussion of the difference between extensive reading (reading at length for enjoyment or information without worrying about not understanding every word) and intensive reading (reading with careful attention in order to understand everything in the text), and for exemplified claims for the value of extensive reading in language acquisition see Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) and Tomlinson (2021).

- There has been a very noticeable and welcome increase in attempts to personalize the learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts to their own lives, views and feelings (e.g. Clanfield and Benn, 2010; Bradfield and Letharby, 2011; Clare and Wilson, 2011; Howarth and Reilly, 2013; and Clandfield, Goldstein, Jones and Kerr 2019, prior to the writing of which 2,000 students were asked what topics they would like to see featured.
- There is an increase in attempts to stimulate affective engagement (Tomlinson, 2010, 2011, 2016; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021) by involving learners in tasks which encourage the expression of feelings but there has also been a decline in the number of texts likely to stimulate affective engagement (see Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013). In particular there has been a continuing decrease in the number of narrative texts provided by coursebooks and yet narrative texts are the most likely to stimulate affective engagement, and narrative is the genre most requested by both teachers and learners in a research project I did for a major publisher to discover what teachers and learners wanted from coursebooks.
- There is an increasing use of the internet as a source of current, relevant and appealing texts. For information about and examples of this trend see Kervin and Derewianka (2011); Motteram (2011); McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013); Tomlinson and Whittaker (2013); Hockly (2017) and Chapters 9 (Kiddle and Farrel), 10 (Sharma) and 11 (Hockly) in this book.
- There is evidence of a movement away from spoken practice of written grammar and towards experience of spoken grammar in use (e.g. Dellar and Walkley, 2005; McCarthy et al., 2006).
- There is a considerable increase in the number of ministries (e.g. in Belarus, Bulgaria, China, Columbia, Ethiopia, India, Iran, Morocco, Namibia, Romania, Russia and Uzbekistan) and institutions (e.g. Bilkent University in Ankara; the University of Hue in Vietnam; Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat) which have decided to produce their own locally relevant materials (see, for example, Busaidi and Tindle, 2010; Tomlinson, 2012b). This could be an even more widespread trend than we are aware of as many such materials are not reviewed or reported on in the literature.
- There is greater diversity and inclusion, with most coursebooks nowadays including people from many different cultures and ethnic groups. However, most of these people, regardless of their culture or ethnicity, are young, aspirational, affluent and middle-class and seem to be used to sell an image of English speakers as successful, healthy and happy. For discussion of the commodification of coursebooks and the neoliberal values they typically represent, see Holborrow (2015), Bori (2018) and Risager (2018).

You might have noticed that many of the coursebooks referred to above were published between 2010 and 2013. Such books might be thought to be outdated but they still feature on the bookshelves of language school staff rooms I have visited recently and in the catalogues of publishers. This is inevitable

as coursebooks take so long to develop and publish, they need to be sold for at least ten years to give publishers the returns they need to justify publishing ELT materials and most schools cannot afford to frequently replace the coursebooks they use. This means that many coursebooks in use in classrooms are inevitably behind current thinking in SLA research and ELT methodology, none more so than the coursebook I co-authored with Rod Ellis for secondary schools in Zambia which was still being used forty years later.

Negative trends

- There is an even more pronounced return to the 'central place of grammar in the language curriculum' and in the coursebook (Soars and Soars, 1996), which contradicts what my own confidential research for a British publisher revealed about the needs and wants of learners and teachers and which goes against many of the findings of second language acquisition research (Ellis, 2010, 2015; Tomlinson, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2016; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021) which report the value of meaning-focused experiential approaches with some attention to problematic or salient grammatical forms during and after the experience of language being used.
- There is still a far greater prominence given in coursebooks to listening and speaking than to reading and writing (Tomlinson et al., 2001; Masuhara et al., 2008; Tomlinson, 2021; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2021).
- There is a rather insulting assumption that most L2 learners have short attention spans, can only cope with very short reading and writing texts and will only engage in activities for a short time.
- There seems to be an assumption that learners do not want and would not gain from intellectually demanding activities while engaged in language learning. This is especially true in low language level coursebooks which often treat learners as being of low-level intelligence too and only provide them with simplistic texts and trivial activities.
- There is a neglect (or sometimes an abuse) of literature in coursebooks, despite its potential as a source of stimulating and engaging texts and despite the many claims of methodologists for the potential value and appeal of literature (e.g. Jones, 2019, and Chapters 2 (Saraceni), 5 (Tomlinson) and 8 (Maley) in this volume). When extracts from literature are used they are often very simplified versions used to illustrate a particular structure and learners are typically asked to answer comprehension questions on the texts rather than respond holistically to their content.
- There is a continuing predominance of analytical activities and a neglect of multi-dimensional activities and of activities which could cater for learners with other preferred learning styles (Masuhara et al., 2008; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013, 2018).
- There is still an 'absence of controversial issues to stimulate thought, to provide opportunities for exchanges of views, and to make topic content meaningful' (Tomlinson et al., 2001), and there is a resultant trivialization of content (see, for example, Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013; Chapters 2 (Saraceni) and 19 (Masuhara) in this volume).
- There is a tendency to underestimate learners linguistically, intellectually and emotionally a tendency which I have found to be perceived as insulting and demotivating by many learners.

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- Despite the increase in publications reflecting the predominant use of International English as a lingua franca, most coursebooks still focus on English as used by native speakers and prepare the learners for interaction with them despite the majority of interactions in the world being between L2 users of English as a convenient language for communication (see Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2013, 2018, 2021; Houghton, Rivers and Hashimoto, 2018, Saraceni, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2021).
- There is an apparent disregard for recent findings in second language acquisition research and especially for findings in neurolinguistics. For example, coursebooks still persist in their apparent insistence that explicit instruction and then practice in prescribed structures can lead to automatic and effective use of those structures in communication when most researchers are now convinced that explicit declarative knowledge and implicit procedural knowledge are processed and stored separately in the brain. Also coursebooks continue to imply that a language feature can be acquired quickly and effectively through intensive focus by allocating a unit to it when we know from experience and research that language features are not acquired separately and require prolonged, recycled, contextualized and meaningful exposure before acquisition is achieved (see Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2021).

Obviously my evaluation of the trends above is subjective and is related to my knowledge, experience, principles, hopes and beliefs. Another materials developer might come to very different conclusions as a result of holding different principles, hopes and beliefs.

What is the future of materials development?

The authors of the chapters in this book each give their version of what they would like to see as the future of materials development. The reality is that publishers will probably still play safe and stick to what they know they can sell; but the hope is that a decrease in customer satisfaction and an increase in local materials development projects will help some of the following to develop:

- even greater personalization and localization of materials to achieve the connection between learners and materials essential for language acquisition;
- greater flexibility of materials and the encouragement of creativity in their use;
- greater humanization of language learning materials with the emphasis on treating the learner as an individual human being with interests, attributes, experience and intelligence rather than as just a homogenized language learner (Luan, 2021; Maley, 2019; and Chapter 5 (Tomlinson) in this volume);
- more respect for the learners' intelligence, experience and communicative competence;
- more affectively engaging content;
- a greater emphasis on multicultural perspectives and awareness;
- more opportunities for learners with experiential (and especially kinaesthetic) learning style preferences;
- more attempts made to engage the learner in the language learning process as an experienced, intelligent and interesting individual;

- more attempts made to use multidimensional approaches to language learning (Masuhara, 2005, 2016; Tomlinson, 2010, 2016; Tomlinson and Masuhara, 2018, 2021);
- more materials designed specifically for blended learning courses which take advantage of both the benefits of face-to-face interaction and the affordances of digital learning (Tomlinson and Whitaker, 2013; Chapter 10 (Sharma) in this volume);
- more materials making use of multimodal approaches to language learning (see Chapter 23 (O'Halloran) in this volume);
- more materials catering for multilingual approaches in which both or all of the learners' languages are used in language learning classes (May, 2014);
- more attention paid to how materials are actually used rather than just to how they are developed and published (see Chapters 1 (Tomlinson), and 3 (Fernandez) in this volume).
- For suggestions for creativity and innovation in ELT materials development, see Bao (2018) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018).

MATSDA

MATSDA (the Materials Development Association) is an international association founded in 1993 by Brian Tomlinson, which is dedicated to bringing together teachers, learners, materials developers, publishers and researchers in order to stimulate the development of materials which facilitate language acquisition and the development of communicative competence. It runs conferences and workshops on materials development and twice a year produces a journal, *Folio*, which provides a forum for the discussion of materials development issues and a channel for the dissemination of new ideas, research and materials. MATSDA has held Conferences, for example, at Queen's College, Belfast, Trinity College, Dublin, the University of Essex, the University of Limerick, the University of Liverpool, the Shanghai International Studies University, the National University of Singapore, Fonteys University of Applied Sciences, Tilburg and the University of York, and in August 2021 we held a joint online Conference with Universiti Sains Malaysia on Developing L2 Materials to Promote Creativity and Criticality.

Anybody who is interested in joining MATSDA should contact the Membership Secretary, Siv Sears (siv.sears@gmail.com) and anybody who would like more information about MATSDA activities should access the MATSDA website (www.matsda.org) or contact the President, Brian Tomlinson (brianjohntomlinson@gmail.com).

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