
Meeting curriculum, learning and settlement needs: Teachers' use of materials in courses for adult migrants

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This article examines how four teachers of ESOL selected and used instructional materials in courses for adult refugees and new migrants. To date, scholarly literature on this topic has largely comprised advice about the principles of teaching and second language learning on which materials should be based, and on-going debate about the merits and shortcomings of commercial texts. Due to the dominance of reconstructionist approaches in adult migrant resettlement TESOL in Australia and New Zealand, recent attention has focused on the development of objectives-based curricula, and as yet relatively little is known about how teachers select and use materials in their classroom practice. Findings of this study highlight teachers' flexible, pragmatic practices, and their primary goal of meeting the learning and settlement needs of students in their classes. The influence of particular principles of practice, performance-based curriculum and assessment goals, and context constraints are explored. The study confirms the importance of ensuring that teachers have sufficient time, resources and independence for them to be able to devise appropriate materials for their classes.

Keywords: *instructional materials; adult learners; commercial texts; curriculum & assessment*

Introduction

Over the past fifty years, research and scholarly literature has conceptualised teachers as technicians, rational decision makers and, more recently, as reflective professionals. Studies in education (for example, Calderhead, 1996; Fenstermacher, 1994) and applied linguistics (for example, Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001; Woods, 1996) have explored the beliefs, principles and knowledge base of experienced teachers. As a result, we now have a much more complete understanding of their pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), which in turn helps us to see

how teachers approach the basic pedagogic task of connecting learners' developing understandings with the instructional curriculum (the one created or transformed by teachers and learners from the written curriculum as the course unfolds). To contribute to the establishment of a research-based literature on the topic, this study explored how four teachers in migrant resettlement ESL courses used materials in their courses, and key influences on their selections and decisions.

Materials used in migrant resettlement courses

Due to the nature of migrant resettlement ESOL, instruction (in contrast to EFL provision) is rarely based on a single course book (Nunan, 1988). One reason is that learners often come from disparate backgrounds and have very different needs (for example, refugees from Africa or South-East Asia with interrupted schooling; well-educated business migrants and their spouses from East Asia). Secondly, principles of adult learning (Knowles, 1998) and adult migrant education (Burns & Roberts, 2010) emphasise that learners need to be consulted about curriculum decisions, informed about why something needs to be learned, encouraged to draw on their prior knowledge and experience, and supported with regard to their confidence and commitment to learning. Teachers are therefore obliged to provide additional learning support and to locate specific resources if requested, and the curriculum for adult migrant groups needs above all to be 'learner-centred' in that the immediate learning and local settlement needs of each learner are taken into account. These characteristics help to explain why adult resettlement courses in English-speaking countries have curriculum frameworks that specify learning outcomes for accountability and assessment purposes, but leave decisions about content, tasks and materials for teachers and learners to negotiate (Murray & Christison, 2011).

Scholarly literature on materials in TESOL

Theory-based literature on the development, selection and evaluation and materials for TESOL has a long history (for example, Allwright, 1981; Breen, Candlin & Waters, 1979; O'Neill, 1982). More recent publications have focussed on two main topics: the relationship of materials to established principles of second language acquisition and language teaching, and the benefits and limitations of teacher-produced and commercial materials. Tomlinson & Masuhara (2010), Waters (2009) and others outline

research-based principles of second language acquisition that need to be reflected in instructional materials: learning experiences that are contextualised, comprehensible and experiential, motivated, relaxed, and engaged learners, tasks that draw learners' attention to salient features of the language, and opportunities for learners to negotiate meaningful communication. Other writers (for example, Tomlinson, 1998) discuss links that should exist with principles of language teaching, namely the provision of opportunities for learners to practise using the target language fluently, appropriately and effectively, and to develop broader educational abilities such as critical thinking and intercultural competence.

Thirty years ago, commentaries by Allwright (1981) and O'Neill (1982) on the merits and shortcomings of commercial texts initiated a debate on which strong views are still expressed. Recent arguments in favour of textbooks maintain that practitioners lack the time and expertise to produce quality resources (Crawford, 1995; Ur, 1991), that commercial materials offer superior presentation and supplementary resources (Richards, 2001; Ur, 1991), that textbooks can provide a useful starting point for syllabus negotiations (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994), and that teacher-produced materials are less coherent and less likely to be based on sound teaching principles (Richards, 1993; Ur, 1991). Opposing views claim that textbooks prioritise deductive approaches, emphasise language learning over meaningful language use, exert too much control over learners' outputs, underestimate their capabilities, and provide too few revision opportunities (Clarke, 1989; Tomlinson, 2008). Furthermore, these writers maintain that textbooks are de-skilling, as teachers are inevitably less deeply engaged with teaching-learning processes (Richards, 1993). One-size-fits-all 'global course books' have been described as constructed cultural artefacts that privilege or ignore certain learning purposes, discourses and members of society (Gray, 2010), provide inauthentic, stereotypic views of the target culture (Clarke, 1989; McGrath, 2004) and fail to raise learners' critical awareness of issues in cross-cultural communication (Santoro, 1999). Other writers state more generally that no commercial text can ever be as closely aligned with the needs of a particular class and context as teacher-produced materials (Richards, 1993; Tomlinson, 2008).

To offset shortcomings in commercial texts, materials design specialists (Cunningsworth, 1995; McDonough & Shaw, 2003;

Richards, 2001) and language teacher educators (for example, Harmer; 2007, Richards, 1998; Ur, 1991) have suggested various ways in which teachers can adapt or supplement commercial texts without compromising their overall coherence. Others (for example, Peacock, 1997; Senior, 2006) promote the use of authentic materials or those produced for genuinely communicative purposes, claiming that these provide genuine language and cultural information, are more likely to connect with learners' needs and interests, and support more creative pedagogic approaches. However, opposing views (Waters, 2009; Widdowson, 2003) argue that authentic materials are time-consuming to locate and prepare, inaccessible to all but advanced language learners, and incompatible with a systematic focus on frequently-used structures and vocabulary.

Published literature on instructional materials in TESOL therefore largely comprises scholarly advice and debate on a limited range of topics. While recently published full-length books (for example, McDonough & Shaw, 2003; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 1998) have made a substantial contribution to disciplinary knowledge in this area, their content is generalised, and tends not to distinguish between EFL and ESL contexts, different types of courses, types or ages of learners. Some recent publications (for example, Harwood, 2010; Tomlinson, 2003; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010) include practitioner accounts of classroom practices; however, the dearth of empirical studies in this area is generally acknowledged (for example, Richards, 1998; Waters, 2009; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010), especially in comparison with what exists in general education (for example, Grossman & Thompson, 2008; Shaver, 2010). The intention of the study was therefore to explore how a number of teachers use materials in a specific type of ESOL course. It was guided by two main research questions:

- 1) How do teachers in refugee and migrant resettlement ESL courses select and use materials?
- 2) What influences shape their choices?

The study

This article reports on part of a larger study of the curriculum making practices of ESOL teachers (Wette, 2010; 2011). It focuses on the use of instructional materials by four teachers in that study who taught courses for adult refugees and migrants. Its exploratory

approach was influenced by Freeman's comment (2002, p.11) that "while we might arrive at crudely accurate maps of teaching by studying it from the outside in, we will not grasp what is truly happening until the people who are doing it articulate what they understand about it." It endeavoured to gain a more complete understanding of teachers' actual practices without disturbing their normal way of doing things. Multiple case studies were selected as a research strategy because they are considered appropriate for exploratory "how and why" studies that trace operations over time (Yin, 1994), and because they open up the possibility of extending knowledge gained from case data to other similar courses and contexts as provisional hypotheses (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

Purposive sampling was used to select information-rich cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994) from the bandwidth of well-qualified, experienced and capable teachers who work in adult migrant education in Auckland. Teachers' qualities were verified through student, peer and manager evaluations using established criteria for identifying expertise in teaching (Tsui, 2003). They worked in adult refugee and migrant resettlement courses in two tertiary education institutions. They had postgraduate qualifications in TESOL or applied linguistics and 10-30 years teaching experience. They held senior positions of responsibility in at least two of these areas: language teacher education, curriculum development, and academic leadership. Like many of their ESL colleagues, they were native speakers of English who had been educated in New Zealand, had been teachers for all or most of their professional lives, were proficient in at least one other language, and had spent time living and working in non-English-speaking countries. Two were female and two male. They were all in their late forties or fifties.

Learners in the courses studied were all citizens or permanent residents of New Zealand. The majority were from East Asia, while some were refugees from North Africa and the Middle East. Their educational backgrounds were quite diverse. Learners paid government-subsidised course fees. Part-time courses involved ten hours of instruction per week and full-time students attended for twenty hours per week. Bill and Don each taught their classes for ten hours per week; Ana and Chris taught their classes for 14 and nine hours respectively (all names are pseudonyms). Courses were all 16 weeks in duration and led to pre-degree certificates in ESOL at the level of proficiency of the class. The teacher Bill taught at the Upper Intermediate level, Ana and Chris taught Intermediate

courses, and Don's class was Elementary level. Class size was between 15 and 20 students. The basic structure of each course comprised thematic blocks within which threads of macro-skills, grammar, vocabulary and strategy use were developed within curriculum frameworks of performance outcomes, which also formed the basis of course assessment (*see extracts from curriculum frameworks in Appendix 1*). Topics and materials for Bill's course were largely pre-specified. The other three negotiated content themes with learners and sourced materials from their own or departmental item banks of materials.

Data were collected through weekly thirty-minute debriefing-type interviews over the duration of each course, as well as longer pre-course and post-course conversations. In weekly interviews teachers reflected on their curriculum making practices of the previous week and the way they had used various texts and tasks. Lesson plans, worksheet materials and other curriculum documents were tabled for explanation and discussion. These formed a stable, low-inference (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) source of corroboration for interview statements, and provided useful memory prompts. Pre-course interviews explored curriculum frameworks and preparation of materials for the courses. More general questions were not raised until post-course interviews so as not to over-sensitise teachers to the interests of the study. Interviews were transcribed in full. Individual case studies were written up and interview data coded according to themes (for example, learner influences, curriculum considerations and use of materials) identified from the literature and my own experience as an ESOL teacher.

Findings

This section reports on teachers' use of materials and influences that shaped their decisions. Interview quotes and examples are included (within word limit constraints) to support my interpretations of the data.

Materials selection and use

Table 1 presents a summary of the amount and type of materials used by the four teachers in the study. As shown in the table, Ana, Chris and Don extracted materials from commercial materials (more than 30 texts each), and preferred locally developed commercial resources (40-65% across the group). As Ana noted,

“when I use British, American and even sometimes Australian materials I have to adapt them ... I have to point out that we don’t say things quite that way,” Each teacher used a similar number of worksheet sets per lesson (.55 and .61 of a double-sided A4 sheet per hour by Don and Ana to .7 and .68 of a worksheet set by Bill and Chris) throughout their courses. Of course, not all instructional activities required worksheets (for example, revision work and some discussion, roleplay and writing tasks). Don emphasised the importance of materials when he stated that:

The materials you have available determine the kind of focus you have in the topic the class has chosen...I have an idea of where I’m going, and then I either find materials or make materials to address what I want students to learn, and in a way it sort of unfolds ... I tend to plan my lessons around my materials. Until I have the materials, I don’t exactly know what I’m doing.

From this statement we can see how use of materials sits at the interface between professional knowledge and classroom practices. Don describes having a particular curriculum aim, which he then seeks out materials to meet. However, he also reports that materials can shape or focus his curriculum aims, which he is sometimes not able to fully articulate until he sees them realised in his materials.

Table 1. Summary of worksheet materials used by teachers

Use of instructional materials	Ana	Bill	Chris	Don
class contact hours (over 16 weeks)	224	160	144	160
number of commercial texts (% published in Australasia)	35 (40%)	14 (64%)	37 (46%)	31 (65%)
total number of worksheet sets (av.= 1x d/s A4 sheet)	138	112	99	89
unmodified commercial text worksheet sets (% of total)	71 51.5%	81 (72%)	49 (49%)	30 (34%)
adapted commercial text worksheet sets (% of total)	28 (20%)	16 (15%)	13 (13%)	19 (21%)
original, teacher-created worksheet sets (% of total)	39 (28%)	15 (14%)	37 (37%)	40 (45%)

All teachers reported that they did not prepare materials before their courses began or far in advance of teaching in case they proved unusable, and tended to not finalise materials choices until the previous lesson had taken place in case as the learning needs of the class changed. Ana explained that, “more often than not, upgrading of worksheets is done while you’re teaching, because otherwise you can find that when you come to teach that particular worksheet, the class you’re teaching doesn’t need some part of it, or needs a different angle.”

Due to workload constraints, teachers did not adapt or create new materials unless they considered those available to be unsuitable for some reason. Use of unmodified, adapted and original materials is presented in Rows 4-6 of Table 1 (percentages have been rounded off, so total 99-101% for each teacher). Materials used without modification tended to be Australasian resources written specifically for migrant resettlement courses or audio-visual materials that teachers did not have time to create themselves, although they often devised support tasks for these materials. Grammar teaching materials were also often used without alteration; however, teachers reported that they usually supplemented them with direct instruction, board work and concept check questions. Reasons for modification or creation of materials were that those available were too difficult, easy, uninteresting, unclear, inauthentic or culturally inappropriate. Teachers generally used cut and paste techniques to replace all or some of the linear text material, while keeping graphic and visual elements intact. Adaptations of commercial materials involved additions, deletions and modifications (all institutions had agreements with publishers that allowed them photocopy a small percentage of each text for instructional purposes). They added pre-listening or pre-reading vocabulary exercises, visuals to explain the meanings of new vocabulary, or free production tasks to personalise and localise the new language (for example, giving directions to your own house, describing personal items and family members, negotiating a transaction).

Ana, Chris and Don reported simplifying materials by reducing the number of comprehension questions and the range of alternatives for conversational and transactional functions in order to control the amount of new language and ensure that language was appropriate for the local context. Another form of alteration was the creation of information gap tasks to “give students a chance to use the language, instead of the usual more passive responses to Wh~ questions” (Chris), to shift attention

from the language of the text to its main meanings, and to give learners opportunities to choose their own pathways to understanding the text (Don). The two Intermediate level teachers sometimes supplied only the main headings of a text, asking learners to infer content from key words before attempting more detailed comprehension tasks. Teachers also reported making additions, modifications or changes to the pace or sequence of items in materials during lessons in response to learner feedback (Wette, 2010).

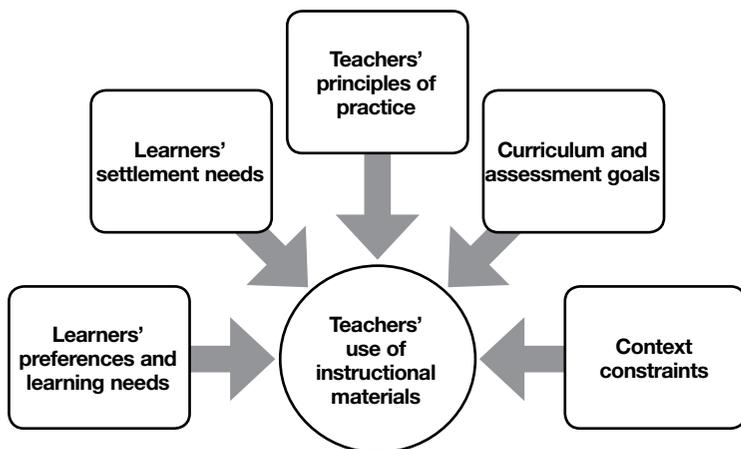
Teachers frequently created original worksheets in order to provide localised and personalised content through examples of retail and classified advertisements, news and current issues, finance-related texts, further study information, and discussion or reflection prompts. They acknowledged that such materials were time-consuming to produce and often not able to be reused in subsequent courses, but believed that they provided invaluable opportunities for informing new migrants about the local community. They also personalised materials by creating a number of icebreaker activities to elicit information about members of the class group as well as roleplays, discussion guides and various types of vocabulary revision exercises. Don reported having to spend a considerable amount of time creating samples of simulated authentic discourse that would be appropriate for learners at Elementary level, as he had not been able to locate any suitable materials. Teachers were also obliged to create worksheets for authentic or simulated authentic spoken texts (sourced from radio news, information conveyed by telephone or dialogues recorded with colleagues) or written texts (sourced from newspapers, persuasive or information texts from the local context) that they had obtained. Recordings were stored on audio-tape and used in the classroom or language laboratory.

The study also explored key influences on teachers' selection and use materials. These are shown in Figure 1 and discussed in the following sub-sections.

The influence of learners' preferences and learning needs

Principles of second language teaching, adult learning and an awareness of the needs of refugees and new migrants are all evident in the practices of teachers in the study, which prioritised the curriculum aim of bringing learners into contact with instructional materials customized as closely as possible to their current competence, learning expectations, needs and interests. Of particular importance to teachers were the considerations of

Figure 1. Influences on teachers' use of instructional materials



learners' level of confidence and lack of experience of Anglo-Western classrooms. On-going needs assessment surveys and negotiations about thematic content of instructional units took place in courses taught by Ana, Chris and Don, who conscientiously complied with learners' requests and preferences, even when this obliged them to prepare new materials at short notice. Throughout their courses, materials were created, altered and discarded to meet the learning needs of the class, which were considered as important as syllabus or assessment goals. In Don's words, "the course unfolds as I teach it; it's not as if I have a blueprint that I follow. The blueprint in a way is my understanding of their [learners'] needs and my understanding of the curriculum."

Teachers frequently reported creating or adapting commercial grammar resources to include functional and formulaic language that would be immediately useful in learners' lives. Don created dialogues "to show them aspects of language that go beyond the grammatical system", and all courses included instruction in common prefabricated patterns for functions such as starting, maintaining and closing a conversation, making an inquiry or a request, complaining, or apologising. As Don explained, the aim was "to show them that in some cases they don't need to remember the grammar, that they can put a whole chunk into their memory." The class taught by Ana was found to be significantly less proficient and confident as a group than she had expected, and she was obliged to modify and replace many worksheets she had planned to use. She reported omitting materials, adopting a slower pace, providing more direct instruction and guided practice, and

recycling tasks (with slight modifications) in successive lessons. From time to time, Chris reported that the range of proficiency levels and language learning experience in her class had required her to create flexible, multi-level materials. Don had had to add to materials presenting only an informal register with more suitable standard register options for older class members (for example, *Do you want...?* rather than *Would you like...?* for offers and invitations).

The influence of learners' settlement needs

In contrast to the internationalised content of global course books, teachers showed a clear preference for localised, topical, and (simulated) authentic materials. Bill stated that “what I’m more interested in is how any of our materials can be a doorway to the world, where students need to be able to use the language for important processes” since, in his opinion, many “aren’t terribly interested in language per se or language learning...their main concern is the rest of their life and their own interests.” Ana expressed a similar view in a comment about the success of a lesson in which the materials had produced “that spark when it touches their lives, and content becomes more important than language.” Bill, in particular, was keen to foster critical evaluation abilities in his Upper Intermediate level class by encouraging them to get beyond comprehension of the surface meaning of texts in order to uncover implicit bias and persuasive messages. Course materials often included opportunities for cross-cultural discussions about such topics as changes in family life, housing, health matters, education, instances of cross-cultural miscommunication and the challenges of migrant resettlement. Occasionally teachers reported rejecting as unsuitable materials written for young adult learners or migrants in the United States or Britain, or about topics which they believed would be inappropriate or of little relevance to the class.

In post-course interviews, teachers conceded that, like most commercial texts, their own materials had presented only a sample of the range of varieties of English, lifestyles and norms of behaviour found in New Zealand, and that a somewhat bland and uncomplicated view of culture and communication had been presented. They justified this by stating that learning considerations were paramount, and that learners’ current level of proficiency in English and settlement priorities as well as time constraints imposed restrictions on the range of content able to be included.

They noted that the settlement and learning needs, interests, attitudes towards and degree of involvement with the local community of students were often quite diverse and that this made it difficult to suit all class members: Don commented that “designing a student-centred programme for this class [is] a lot more complicated than just getting existing materials from the files.”

The influence of teachers’ principles of practice

A number of specific instructional principles underpinned teachers’ use of materials. Although Ana, Chris and Don were aware of research findings on the merits of inductive, task-based teaching, their instructional approach tended to be deductive. They used presentation-practice-production (P-P-P) instructional sequences which began with explicit instruction before proceeding to guided practice through guided activities, with independent production and strategy training as the final phase. When working with new texts, they provided thorough contextualisation to activate interest and prior knowledge and pre-teach new vocabulary, followed by activities to ensure learners’ understanding of text content, guided and independent text production. Their approach was synthetic in that knowledge and skill was supported through practice in gradual increments before communicative tasks were attempted.

With regard to grammar, teachers reported three main strategies. P-P-P instruction was used to introduce or revise and practise particular structures, although inductive approaches were used if learners were already somewhat familiar with the grammatical structure. The second approach comprised instruction using materials on grammar errors that teachers had identified from learners’ written or spoken outputs. The third strategy was identification and group discussion of errors using samples identified by the teacher. The use of multiple strategies showed the importance teachers attached to grammar instruction, but perhaps also that they believed that skill advancement was a somewhat uncertain process. Although with little enthusiasm, they complied with learners’ wishes for out-of-class work from a commercial grammar text to be set and marked. They noted that this at least provided a systematic grammar thread and opportunities for revision; however, in Bill’s view it “required a leap of faith to believe that this will advance their learning.”

Teachers' practices drew on principles of adult learning rather more than those of second language acquisition research. They believed that inductive methods could be anxiety-producing for adult learners at less advanced levels of proficiency. Chris commented that "less able students sometimes just feel lost, and then when you backtrack, they still feel lost because they didn't quite get it in the first place." However, they acknowledged the advantages of inductive approaches for recycling, and Chris stated that "for more confident students it works well, because they are able to see what they need, and they can focus quite clearly on what they have to learn." Materials for all four courses included a substantial component of meaning-focused instruction through roleplays, information gap, information transfer and problem-solving tasks.

Influence of curriculum and assessment goals

The four teachers worked within prescribed curriculum frameworks of approximately ten functional performance outcomes together with information about assessment criteria (*see Appendix 1*). They were obliged to teach and assess specific competencies; however, (except in Bill's course) the topic contexts in which skill in each outcome was constructed could be negotiated with learners. Ana pointed out that some flexibility in the assessment schedule was essential, as particular competencies were more appropriately developed in particular topic contexts. Materials selections were therefore closely tied to the learning outcomes of courses, and at times teachers reported being under pressure to find appropriate materials on topics learners had selected, or to locate revision materials for assessment preparation.

In Bill's institution, materials and curriculum goals were largely pre-specified, and he chafed under the restrictions that this presented. He expressed dissatisfaction with the focus on "covering material on topics that learners do not always find intellectually stimulating and that do not mobilise independence and inquiry." In his opinion this represented "a dumbing down of language learning to fixed and formulaic components such as topic sentences and rules about paragraph construction." He would have preferred a course in which broader educational goals of encouraging critical, independent thinking was emphasised, as he believed that "pre-prepared materials save time but can anchor learning in particular texts and activities, rather than seeing the overall impact of the text, and perhaps how it is used for or against certain

interests.” His comments highlight the importance of curriculum frameworks that are sufficiently loosely structured to allow not only for learners’ preferences and needs to be considered, but also for teachers to operationalize their personal principles of best practice.

The influence of context constraints

Every course of instruction takes place within a specific institutional and socio-cultural context. With regard to immigration and education policies as well as institutional factors such as fees, class size and teaching workloads, teachers occasionally expressed opinions but tended to not dwell on factors that they considered beyond their power to influence. They were, however, mindful of the backgrounds, current living and employment situation or further study prospects of learners in their classes, and the cultural and linguistic challenges faced by new migrants and refugees in the initial stages of resettlement. Learners were encouraged to bring communication difficulties (for example, with reading forms, letters and notices, or communicating with neighbours or officialdom) to class for class discussion and advice.

None of the four teachers in the study was required to use a single prescribed text or to prepare students for an external examination. They were all able to source and create or adapt their own materials, although Bill had significantly less freedom in this regard than the others. One frequently mentioned constraint was the availability or otherwise of suitable materials that could be shaped according to teachers’ principles of best practice. They reported being constantly on the look-out for quality up-to-date materials with appropriate local content. However, the constraint that irked them the most was the fact that teaching workloads of 22 hours class contact per week often did not give them sufficient time to create the kinds of materials they would have liked to use with their classes.

Conclusion

The selection of four teachers for this study was made to increase the likelihood that its findings do not describe merely idiosyncratic practices, and that they might be broadly transferrable to other ESL migrant resettlement teachers and courses, although possibly less so to colleagues in EFL, EAP or ESP contexts where different needs and constraints are in operation. The way these teachers selected and used materials can be generally described as pragmatic, flexible and closely connected to their relationship with the class

group. Their loose worksheets were from multiple sources: commercial or item-bank materials, as well as teacher-created or -adapted materials. They did not prepare materials far in advance of teaching, and when necessary shaped them before or during lessons through additions, deletions and alterations of various kinds. Their use of materials aimed to meet the needs of the class as learners and users of English as well as their own curriculum aims and principles, and these courses were therefore probably more genuinely learner- and learning-centred than those in contexts with less flexible constraints.

The study has clarified the benefits of assigning responsibility for materials use to classroom teachers. This allows the taught curriculum to take into account learners' cognitive and affective needs and wants as well as pre-specified curriculum outcomes, and is essential to a view of the curriculum as process as well as product (Wette, 2011). Any loss of curriculum coherence in such an approach is compensated for by a more dynamic, engaging and responsive style of teaching (Senior, 2006). While requirements for teachers to adhere to prescribed materials without deviation appear de-skilling and anti-educational, autonomy in this area relies on the skills of very capable, conscientious teachers. They need to be sensitive to the needs of learners as individuals as well as those of the class group, have a good understanding of how to use materials, know what is feasible in terms of the constraints of the written curriculum and the context, and have adequate time, resources and independence. In this regard, access to a more extensive range of locally produced resource books would be of real assistance to New Zealand teachers, since it would provide materials to support their teaching without requiring heroic efforts on their part as materials designers. An alternative might be for a team of experienced teachers within a department to be given time and resources to create appropriate materials.

Analysis of these teachers' use of materials has identified principles and procedures shared by skilled practitioners, and strengthens their claim for flexibility and autonomy in this component of their work. Its content might also be of interest to pre-service and novice teachers as an indication of how and why experienced, responsive teachers source and customise materials as they do. It provides clear evidence of how practitioners plan and teach in specific contexts and for specific classes of learners, which is also a reminder to institutions of the need for flexibility, and to scholars that studies into actual practices need to be taken into account in theory-based texts on materials' development and use.

Appendix 1

A. Core competencies for the Upper Intermediate course (Bill)

Learners will be able to:

- identify the main points from recorded materials and study-related talks
- present information to a group of people
- use appropriate strategies to identify general gist, main and specific points in study-related texts
- plan and write a paragraph, a report and an essay
- show awareness and knowledge of aspects of Maori culture and customs
- access information from a library and other sources
- take appropriate notes from a variety of spoken and written texts

B. Outcomes and assessment for one competency in the Intermediate course (Ana and Chris)

Competency 2: Learners will be able to talk about self.

Performance outcomes: The learner will be able:

- present information to a group of people
- describe self: appearance, personality, character
- give a brief personal medical history, including allergies, describe present symptoms
- express feelings eg. happiness, sadness, anger, annoyance, fear, worry
- state opinions for example, agreement, disagreement, make suggestions, give advice
- state preferences, likes and dislikes
- describe abilities, qualifications
- talk about past experiences, present situation, future plans

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