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TEACHER TO TEACHER

Support for Narrow Listening Libraries

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Abstract

As listening continues to gain prominence in language learning, learners should be directed toward resources which focus on the goal of listening to native colloquial speech (Brown, 1990). One such resource is Narrow Listening (Krashen, 1996), the repeated listening of recordings of proficient speakers answering questions interesting to the learner and speaker. Over one semester, 38 Japanese university students of EFL volunteered to use Narrow Listening materials, recorded their progress with its use and evaluated it as a learner resource. Surveys indicated marked improvement in listening comprehension. In addition, students found Narrow Listening to be very helpful for improving listening and pronunciation. Results support the use of Narrow Listening Libraries as a resource for improving listening to casual, uncontrolled, native conversation.

Introduction

In order to prepare students for communication as it exists in the real world, it is necessary for teachers to expose students to natural native speech (Schmidt-Rinehart, B., 1994). However, naturally spoken, casual conversations can often times lack the level of control and shared background knowledge which are necessary for comprehension (Brown, 1990; Mendelsohn, 1995). In addition, the difficulty in dealing with this type of speech outside the classroom can increase anxiety, decrease confidence and motivation and consequently produce a less productive learning environment. It is, thus, necessary that students are presented with listening experiences that help lessen their anxiety about listening to this type of speech (Dulay, J., Burt, M. & Krashen, S., 1982).

Narrow Listening is an alternative resource for coping with chatty, uncontrolled speech. Using Narrow Listening, the learner records five to six native speakers of the target language answering a question that is familiar and interesting to both the learner and the speaker. The learner is then provided with a listening sample, which is more controlled and rich in shared background knowledge. Later, the learner can listen as many times as she likes at her leisure in a low-stress environment.

In a recent study on Narrow Listening (Rodrigo and Krashen, 1996), students of Spanish as a second language reported that Narrow Listening was helpful for improving syntax, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency and reducing stress associated with listening.

In a similar study, Dupuy (1999) reported that 92% of subjects surveyed found Narrow Listening to be a valuable resource and that it was most helpful for improving listening comprehension, vocabulary, increasing confidence and developing fluency. Learners demonstrated dramatic gains between their first and last listening to individual speakers. In addition, the majority of students rated Narrow Listening as better than the companion tape to their textbook.

This study is closely related to Dupuy's (1999) study on student reaction to Narrow Listening. The aim of this study is to report student reaction to Narrow Listening and the assessment of it as a learner resource.

Subjects

The 38 participants of this study were enrolled in English as a foreign language classes at a small private university in Western Japan. The students varied in level of language acquisition with TOEIC scores ranging from 195 to 495. Subjects volunteered to take part in the study and were given no extra credit for participation.

Topic Prompts

To obtain topics of interest and familiarity to Japanese university students, it was felt that questions should be student-generated. As Stephenson and Kohyama

(2003, p. 102) aptly phrased it, "(students) have great ideas that are probably of more interest to their age group than teachers' ideas." Nine students in an intermediate English conversation course were given the task of creating interesting questions they wanted to ask native English speakers. Students came up with roughly 200 questions. Students then voted on the best questions and narrowed down the list of topics to ten. Corrections were made to questions and three topics were added to give students more variety (Appendix A).

Interviews

One native and one non-native English speaker conducted interviews. Native English speakers from three countries were interviewed. Six to eight native speakers, both male and female spoke on each topic. To gain more enthusiastic responses, speakers were free to speak on a topic of their choice. Krashen (1996) suggests using enthusiastic speakers contributes to student interest in Narrow Listening materials. Participants were asked to speak on one topic for two to three minutes in a natural manner as if they were speaking to a friend. Two tapes/MDs were produced from the interview sessions.

First Questionnaire

Subjects were given a short survey (Appendix B) to fill in while listening. Question one asked students to write down the topic they chose. Students were free to choose any topics in any order. According to Rost (2002), materials become relevant when they are related to student interest and self-selection. Questions two through seven asked students to write down the percentage they understood after listening to all of the speakers' responses on one topic. Question eight asked students to write down the percentage they understood the seventh or last time they listened.

Procedures

At the beginning of the semester, handouts were distributed to students, informing them of the study. Materials were made available during office hours. Subjects were given a choice between MD/tape #1 and MD/tape #2 and were able to check out materials for two-week periods. Along with listening materials, students received a handout printed in Japanese on the rationale behind Narrow Listening, some information about the listening materials and directions for filling in the surveys (See Appendix A for an English translation). Students were given the opportunity to ask any questions about Narrow Listening in Japanese or English.

Table 1: Helpfulness and Narrow Listening versus other listening resources

TOEIC	% of students who found NL Helpful	Better% (No. of students)	About the same % (No. of students)
195-299	100% (13)	100% (13)	0.0% (0)
300-399	100% (12)	100% (12)	0.0% (0)
400-495	100% (13)	92.3% (12)	7.7% (1)

Second Questionnaire

Upon returning the listening materials, students were asked to fill in a second short survey (Appendix C). Question one asked for the student's most recent TOEIC score. The second question asked students to rate Narrow Listening against listening materials they had used in the past. The last question asked students if Narrow Listening helped to improve their English and, if so, the areas which it helped to improve.

Results and Discussion

All subjects reported that Narrow Listening helped to improve their English. All but one student reported Narrow Listening to be better than listening resources they had used prior to using Narrow Listening. This student remarked that he understood almost everything but expressed frustration that he listened several times

Language Skill	TOIEC	Very helpful% (No.)	Helpful% (No.)	Little help% (No.)	Did not help% (No.)
Table 2: Student assessment of Narrow Listening and impact on language skills					
Speaking	195-299	7.7% (1)	46.2% (6)	30.8% (4)	15.4% (2)
	300-399	18.2% (2)	27.3% (3)	45.5% (5)	9.1% (1)
	400-495	15.4% (2)	38.5% (5)	46.2% (6)	0.0% (0)
Listening	195-299	84.6% (11)	15.4% (2)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	300-399	90.9% (10)	9.1% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	400-495	92.3% (12)	7.7% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Grammar	195-299	0.0% (0)	23.1% (3)	69.2% (9)	7.7% (1)
	300-399	0.0% (0)	27.3% (3)	36.4% (4)	36.4% (4)
	400-495	0.0% (0)	38.5% (5)	61.5% (8)	0.0% (0)
Pronunciation	195-299	61.5% (8)	23.1% (3)	15.4% (2)	0.0% (0)
	300-399	54.5% (6)	36.4% (4)	9.1% (1)	0.0% (0)
	400-495	69.2% (9)	30.8% (4)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
Comprehension	195-299	61.5% (8)	30.8% (4)	7.7% (1)	0.0% (0)
	300-399	18.2% (2)	9.1% (1)	72.7% (8)	0.0% (0)
	400-495	15.4% (2)	46.2% (6)	30.8% (4)	7.7% (1)
Confidence	195-299	30.8% (4)	53.9% (7)	15.4% (2)	0.0% (0)
	300-399	27.3% (3)	72.7% (8)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)
	400-495	15.4% (2)	53.8% (7)	30.8% (4)	0.0% (0)
Vocabulary	195-299	23.1% (3)	38.5% (5)	30.8% (4)	7.7% (1)
	300-399	9.1% (1)	36.4% (4)	36.4% (4)	18.2% (2)
	400-495	38.5% (5)	46.2% (6)	15.4% (2)	0.0% (0)

and could still not understand some portions of the responses (*Table 1*).

An overwhelming majority of the students found Narrow Listening most helpful for improving listening and pronunciation.[1] The majority of students found Narrow Listening to be very helpful or helpful for all other categories except grammar.

A discrepancy was found in the category of comprehension, which refers to both reading and listening comprehension. The majority of students in the 195-299 range indicated that Narrow Listening was very helpful for overall comprehension. The majority of students in the 300-399 range rated Narrow Listening to be of little help to comprehension, while most students in the 400-499 range rated it as helpful or of little help (*Table 2*).

A common complaint from students of the 300-399 range had to do with understanding the recordings because of background noise.

On average, students listened to each topic more than 4.6 times, reflecting a high level of interest. Students of all levels often commented on their interest in the materials. One student commented: "I had a good time while listening". Students in the 195-299 range tended to listen to each topic an average of 1.3 times more than students in the 400-495 range and 1.7 times more than students in the 300-399 range. Clearly, there was a positive correlation between the English competence of the listener, as measured by

1. In table 2, it was not possible to report reaction from one of the subjects who completed a section of the survey improperly.

the TOEIC as well as the percentage understood at the first hearing, and the average number of times listening to each topic.

All groups made gains of over 20% in comprehension between first and last listening. Gains were greater for lower-level students than for more advanced students. Dupuy (1999) found similar results in her research (*Table 3*).

Table 3: Comprehension

TOEIC Score	Average no. of times listening to each topic	Average % understood after 1st listening	Average % understood after 7th or last listening	Average % gain-between first and last listening
195-299	6.4	37.7%	75.1%	37.4%
300-399	4.6	50.0%	78.6%	28.6%
400-495	5.1	64.9%	85.6%	20.7%

which interferes with messages may thus have negative effects on comprehension and defeats the purpose of Narrow Listening.

Considerations

Instructors may wish to consider addressing student difficulties with comprehension when using Narrow Listening materials. Complaints were frequently in regard to lack of 100% comprehension and background noise.

Student frustration over lacking 100% comprehension may have led to some anxiety during listening. It is suggested for this activity that listening for meaning be emphasized more strongly.

At the beginning of this study, it was felt that background noise would add a greater sense of authenticity to materials. Students, however, reported difficulty in listening to specific sections where other conversations could be overheard. Teachers should consider the type and level of background noise during recording sessions.

In regard to the problem with background noise and comprehension, it may be the case that the ability to deal with background noise and the distractions of other conversations improves as speakers become more competent in the language, that is, when they get more comprehensible input. If this is true, less advanced acquirers need more noise-free input. Noise

On average, students listened to each topic more than 4.6 times, reflecting a high level of interest. Students of all levels often commented on their interest in the materials. One student commented: "I had a good time while listening".

Conclusion

All 38 subjects considered Narrow Listening to be helpful for improving English. The majority of students found this activity to be very helpful for improving listening and pronunciation. The majority of students also ranked it very helpful or helpful for improving speaking, comprehension, confidence and vocabulary. Over 97% of subjects found Narrow Listening to be better than listening materials they had used prior to this activity. In addition, students made impressive gains of over 20% in comprehension. These findings support the use of Narrow Listening Libraries in language programs.

Acknowledgements

Appendix A: Narrow Listening topic prompts

Tape/MD #1

1) Travel
Do you like traveling? How many countries have you been to? What's your favorite country? Why? Where would you like to travel in the future? Where would you like to visit in Japan? What prefecture would you like to visit?

2) Movies
What's your favorite movie? Who's your favorite actor? What's the last movie you saw? Was it any good? What kind of movie was it? Have you ever seen a Japanese movie?

3) Food
Do you eat out often? Do you like to cook? What's your favorite food? Do you like Japanese food? What Japanese foods do you like? What's your favorite Japanese food? Do you like natto? Are there any Japanese foods that you don't like?

4) Living Abroad 1
How long have you been in Japan? What did you think about Japan before you came here? What do you think about Japan now? What was the most surprising thing when you came to Japan for the first time? What was your first impression of Japanese people? What is the biggest difference between Japan and your country?

5) Drinking Alcohol
Do you like to drink? What's your favorite drink? How do you make it? How often do you go out drinking? Do you like Japanese sake? Do you like Japanese beer?

MD/Tape #2

6) Dating
What kind of guy/girl do you like? Do you like Japanese girls/guys? Where do you look for girls/guys? Have you ever dated a foreigner? Who do you think is the most beautiful woman/ handsome man in the world? Where do you like to go on dates with your boyfriend(s) / girlfriend(s)?

7) Living Abroad 2
Where are you from? How long have you been in Japan? Why did you want to live in Japan? Why did you decide to come to Japan?

8) Friends
Do you have a lot of friends in your country? Do you have a lot of friends in Japan? Do you have any Japanese friends? What is your best friend like? How long have you been best friends?

9) Studying Japanese
Can you speak Japanese? How did you learn? What were your teachers like? Do you have any advice for people learning languages?

10) Family

Do you have a big family? Do you have a close family? How many brothers and sisters do you have?

11) Japanese English
How is the English ability of the Japanese? Do you understand what they want to say? Do you often have difficulties communicating with the Japanese?

12) Music
What kind of music do you like? What's your favorite band? Do you like Japanese music?

13) Hobbies & Interests
What do you do in your free time? What do you do for fun? Do you exercise often?

Appendix B: Sample student survey #1

1) Which topic did you listen to today? _____
2) After listening to all of the speakers the 1st time, how much did you understand? _____%
3) After listening to all of the speakers the 2nd time, how much did you understand? _____%
4) After listening to all of the speakers the 3rd time, how much did you understand? _____%
5) After listening to all of the speakers the 4th time, how much did you understand? _____%
6) After listening to all of the speakers the 5th time, how much did you understand? _____%
7) After listening to all of the speakers the 6th time, how much did you understand? _____%
8) After listening to all of the speakers the 7th or final time, how much did you understand? _____%
1) Which topic did you listen to today? _____
2) After listening to all of the speakers the 1st time, how much did you understand? _____%
3) After listening to all of the speakers the 2nd time, how much did you understand? _____%
4) After listening to all of the speakers the 3rd time, how much did you understand? _____%
5) After listening to all of the speakers the 4th time, how much did you understand? _____%
6) After listening to all of the speakers the 5th time, how much did you understand? _____%
7) After listening to all of the speakers the 6th time, how much did you understand? _____%
8) After listening to all of the speakers the 7th or final time, how much did you understand? _____%

Appendix C: Student survey #2

1) What was your last TOEIC score? _____
2) How would you compare Narrow Listening to other listening materials you have used to learn English (e.g. tapes and CDs that accompany your textbook, tapes in the language laboratory)?
better   worse   about the same
Please explain briefly:
_____
3) Did this tape/MD help you to improve your English?
Yes   No
If yes, which skills were improved?

1= did not help
2= helped a little
3= helped
4= helped a lot

Speaking	____
Listening	____
Grammar	____
Pronunciation	____
Comprehension	____
Confidence with listening	____
Vocabulary	____
Other? _____	____

Appendix D: Student handout

Narrow Listening is a resource for improving listening to natural spoken, casual speech. Students studying foreign/second languages have commented on the usefulness of Narrow Listening (Rodrigo and Krashen, 1996; Dupuy, 1999). In studies on Narrow Listening, students have found that Narrow Listening is very helpful. They have said that it is helpful for improving listening, vocabulary, developing fluency and decreasing stress.

The Tapes/MDs

There will be six to eight speakers for every topic. You will hear different men and women from different countries with different accents. Some speak faster than others. Some speakers are more difficult to understand than others. People on the tape speak for about one or two minutes on average.

The questions were made by Himeji Dokkyo University students with some help from their teacher.

Tips for listening
1) Listen to the topics you think are interesting.
2) Make sure you understand the questions and the topic you listen to.
3) Don't worry about understanding every word. Listen for the whole meaning.
4) Stop listening if you become bored or you are not making gains in comprehension.
5) Do not stop the tape/MD because you don't understand something. Listen until the speaker is finished.
6) Listen in a low-stress environment.

Using Narrow Listening
1) Choose a topic you think is interesting.
2) Write down the topic on the survey.
3) Listen to all of the people speak about the topic.
4) Write down what percentage you understood.
5) If you like the topic, listen as many time as you'd like.
6) Every time you listen, write down how much you understand.

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Sustained Silent Reading Using Assigned Reading:
Is Comprehensible Input Enough?

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INTRODUCTION

There is consistent evidence that sustained silent reading (SSR) is effective. Students in SSR classes typically gain as much in reading comprehension as traditional students, and often gain more, especially when treatments last for longer than one semester (Krashen, 2004). SSR is usually self-selected reading. Will assigned reading also work?

The goal of this study is to compare assigned reading to traditional EFL instruction at the college level. Previous research in this area is sparse. In a one semester class, EFL college students in Hong Kong doing assigned reading outperformed traditional students in vocabulary and reading speed (Lao and Krashen, 2004). In another one semester study (Sheu, 2004, study 2) assigned readers made significant gains in vocabulary, reading, and grammar, exceeding gains of traditionally taught students in reading and grammar, but not in vocabulary growth.

Method

To account for at least some individual variation in instruction, three different classes, taught with different instructors, were used as comparison groups. Classes were randomly selected from 26 freshman English classes at National Taipei University.

The comparison groups had traditional instruction, reading, analyzing and discussing texts, student pre- sentations based on issues related to the assigned readings, and direct instruction in language "skills." There were frequent quizzes and examinations.

During the first semester, the experimental group did not do assigned reading. Rather, students did self-selected reading of graded readers. Students chose from 570 graded readers varying in difficulty from 300 headwords to 3300 headwords. Students devoted half of the once weekly three hour class to reading, 20 minutes to checking in and out books, and the rest of the class to shared reading, giving short presentations or interacting with group members. Students were required to record what they read (titles, pages, time spent on reading) and write short reflections on what they read in either English or Chinese. These reading logs were handed in each week. Grades were based on participation and students' logs (time spent reading, pages read, and reflections on reading).

 During the second semester, students were required to read five texts: Stuart Little, Charlotte's Web, The Trumpet of the Swan, The Little Prince, and Tuesdays with Morrie. In addition, students were required to choose another two books from a list of suggested readings. The list consisted of books related to current films, such as The Bridges of Madison County, Bridget Jones' Diary and books from the Harry Potter series, as well as teachers' suggestions.

As was the case in the first semester, students were required to keep and hand in weekly reading logs, and were graded on their logs and class participation.

Measures

The tests used for both groups included (1) a 100 item cloze test measuring reading ability, developed by Mason (2003), which was used as both the pre and post test; (2) vocabulary tests developed by Schmidt (2000) that test the 2000 level words, 3000, 5000, 10,0000 and academic vocabulary levels, also used as both pre and post-tests. Tests were given at the beginning of the academic year and at the end.

RESULTS

Pretest scores for the three comparison groups for each level of the vocabulary test, for the total vocabulary test, and for the cloze test were not significantly different (for total vocabulary, F = 1.84, p = .145; for the cloze, F = 1.65, p = .18). Scores for the three comparison classes were thus combined.

As noted above, students in the experimental class spent the first semester doing self-selected reading from graded readers. Previous studies done with college student populations have shown that one semester of self-selected reading of graded readers results in about the same gains in vocabulary and reading as traditional instruction (Lee, 2005, using university students; Hsu and Lee, 2005, using junior college students). The data presented below can thus be considered the impact of the assigned reading done during the second semester.

Gains in the cloze test were nearly identical, with both the combined comparison group and assigned reading group gaining about five points (table 1). (For post-test only, t = .21, df = 193, p 34; for gain scores, t = .21, df = 193, p = .71)

The assigned reading group showed better gains on all levels of the vocabulary test (table 2).

Because the combined comparison group scored slightly, but consistently higher than the experimental group on all levels of the vocabulary pretest, statistical significance was determined by examining differences between gain scores (table 3). At each level, the experimental group made better gains in vocabulary. Because multiple t-tests were used, the alpha level, the level of significance necessary to achieve statistical significance, was adjusted using the Bonferroni procedure (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1984). Using the adjusted alpha of .008 (.05/6), the experimental group significantly outperformed the comparison group on the combined vocabulary test, at the 10,000 and 3000 word levels.

Table 1: Cloze test

	PRE	POST	DIFF
Comp	46.9 (10.1)	51.8 (9.8)	4.9
EXP	47.1 (10)	52.1 (8.3)	5

Table 2: Vocabulary test results

	COMP PRE	EXP PRE
	means (sd)	means (sd)
2000	27 (3.3)	26.3 (3.8)
3000	22.1 (5.7)	20.9 (6.5)
5000	17.5 (6.0)	17 (6.7)
10000	4.6 (4.1)	3.7 (3.9)
PREAC	20.6 (5.5)	19.7 (6.2)
TOTAL	91.7 (20.3)	87.7 (21.1)
	COMP POST	EXP POST
	means (sd)	means (sd)
2000	27.6 (2.4)	27.9 (2.3)
3000	23.5 (4.9)	24 (4.7)
5000	19.4 (5.6)	20.5 (5.5)
10000	6.0 (4.6)	7.3 (4.3)
PREAC	22.4 (5.5)	22.4 (5.4)
TOTAL	99 (18.7)	102.1 (17.7)

Note: Each level of the vocabulary test contained 30 items

Table 3: Gain scores for the vocabulary test

	DIFF pre/pst			
	COMP	EXP	T	P
2000	0.6	1.6	2.01	0.046
3000	1.4	3.1	2.72	0.007*
5000	1.9	3.5	2.55	0.012
10000	1.4	3.6	3.84	0.00013*
PREAC	1.8	2.7	0.55	0.583
TOTAL	7.3	14.4	4.35	0.000014*

DISCUSSION

This study reports a modest victory for assigned reading over traditional instruction in vocabulary growth, as did Lao and Krashen (2000), and a tie in reading comprehension, as measured by a cloze test. Neither group made impressive gains on the cloze test. Previous studies using the same measure show some experimental (self-selected reading) and comparison groups making five point gains on this test in one semester (Lee, 2005, using university students, Hsu and Lee, 2005, junior college students).

A more likely candidate for these results is the kind of books that were assigned. The list consisted of books that teachers felt were interesting. Teachers' views, however, may not be the same as students' views (see e.g. Ujiie and Krashen, in press, for confirming evidence). In fact, some students remarked that they merely flipped through the pages of the assigned books, with little comprehension, and several students considered E.B. White's books too childish. With such a lack of enthusiasm about the reading, in fact, one wonders how the students made as much progress as they did.

It appears to be the case that for reading to do a reader any good, to result in language and literacy development, it needs to be more than comprehensible. It needs to be interesting, or even compelling. An interesting hypothesis is that the reader needs to be "lost in the book" (Nell, 1988). Sometimes assigned reading is comprehensible and compelling, and results in real gains. Some times it does not (for a review, see Krashen, 2004, chapter 1, fn 8, pp. 51-52). There are good reasons to assign reading: for the purpose of discussion and to ensure exposure to certain crucial readings. We need to be sure, though, that what is assigned is really right for the students.

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The Influence of First Language Reading on Second Language Reading and Second Language Acquisition

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INTRODUCTION

Do those who read more for pleasure in their first language also read more in a second language? It is known that more free voluntary reading results in more language development (e.g. Krashen, 1993). If the reading habit transfers, first language reading may have an effect on second language competence, which in turn suggests that developing a reading habit in the first language is of benefit for second language acquisition, Surprisingly, only one study appears to have investigated this question. Flahive and Bailey (1993) reported a substantial correlation between time spent reading in the first and second language (r = .79) for adult ESL students studying at the university level in the United States.

In this study, we examine the reading habits of students of English as a foreign language in Korea, investigating the relationship between frequency of reading in the first and second language.

To confirm that reading in the first language benefits second language proficiency, we also predict that reading in the first language will be positively related to second language proficiency, as measured by a test of second language vocabulary. The relationship, however, is predicted to be indirect, mediated through second language reading.

METHOD

Participants consisted of 420 undergraduates (20% male, 80% female) enrolled in an undergraduate level English course offered at a university in South Korea. All students were preparing to become multiple subject elementary school teachers.

The Korean Reading survey probed frequency of free reading in Korean (Appendix A) and consisted of eight items. Students responded to the items along a four-point response scale, i.e. 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree, or along an intensity scale: 1=Rarely, 2=Only Occasionally,

Table 1: Summary Statistics and Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities				
measure	minimum score	mean	sd	reliability
English Vocabulary	0	50	2.26	0.82
Free reading in Korean	8	32	4.28	0.76
Free reading in English	4	16	1.73	0.77
Total n = 420				

3=Frequently, 4=All the Time, or level of agreement: 1=No, 2=Not Really, 3=Sometimes, 4=Yes. The total score was the sum of the values of each item.

Four items were used to measure students' self-reported free reading in English, done outside the classroom, frequency of visiting bookstores, etc. (*Appendix B*). Subjects responded to the items along a four-point

response scale: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree, or along an intensity scale: 1=Rarely, 2=Only Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=All thetime. The total score was the sum of the values of each item.

The English vocabulary test was a checklist that asked students to indicate which English words they recognized. Subjects were informed that not all the words on the list were real English words; some were "foils," words that looked like English words but were not.. The validity of this kind of measure has been confirmed in several previous studies (Meara & Buxton, 1987). In order to prevent falsely rewarding students who guessed randomly, the English vocabulary test were corrected for guessing. A formula that rewards discretion was used (Ebel, 1972) .

Table 2: Intercorrelations Among Variables

measure	English Vocabulary	Free reading in Korean	Free reading in English
English Vocabulary	1.00	.074(n.s.)	.237*
Free reading in Korean	.074(n.s.)	1.00	.242*
Free reading in English	.237*	.242*	1.00

N = 420, p < .05

FIGURE 1   Path Analysis

Table 1 presents mean scores on the measures used as well as the reliabilities of the measures (coefficient alpha). Inspection of intercorrelations among the variables (*table 2*) shows that, as predicted, Korean Reading and English Reading are significantly but modestly related, as are English Reading and English vocabulary. The correlation between Korean Reading and English vocabulary, however, is not significant.

Path analysis (figure 1) confirmed the positive relationship between Korean and English reading (beta =.308; t =3.653 p <.05), and between English reading and English vocabulary (beta =.299; t =3.969; p <.05). Once again, the relationship between Korean reading and English vocabulary was not significant, consistent with the hypothesis that first language reading affects second language proficiency indirectly, mediated through the first language.
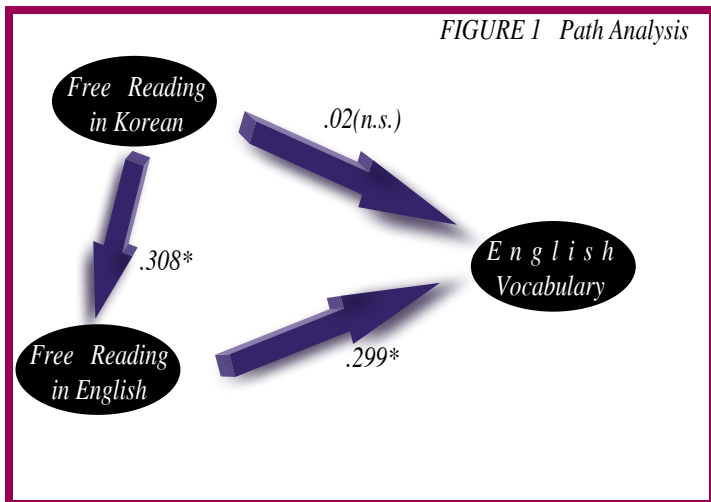
DISCUSSION

Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that the reading habit transfers; the presence of a reading habit appears to be independent of any one language and can be considered part of a common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1981), or in this case, orientation.

The finding that those who report more pleasure reading in the first language also report more in the second language indicates that first language reading has a positive impact on second language development. The effect, however, is indirect, mediated through pleasure reading done in the second language. It is, of course, quite possible that a direct relationship between first language free reading and second language competence might be found when the languages involved have similar writing systems and a great deal of cognate vocabulary.

English competence is thus influenced directly by reading in English, and also indirectly by reading in the first language. Competence here, however, was defined as performance on a vocabulary test. It would be of interest to confirm these results with a wide variety of measures.

The size of the relationship between Korean and English reading behavior was significant, but small, much smaller than the correlation reported by Flahive and Bailey (1993). This could be due to the fact that Flahive and Bailey's subjects were living in the US, which meant easy access to reading material in English, while subjects in this study, EFL students in Korea, had limited access to English language books; even those very interested in reading in English might have had a hard time finding appropriate reading material at a reasonable price. (Kim and Krashen 1997) This is confirmed by the results of the reading surveys: for Korean, the mean response was 2.44 on a scale of 1 to 4, but for English reading, it was only 1.49. Subjects did much less pleasure reading in English than in Korean.

We would not expect to see a significant relationship between reported reading in the first and second language if access to print in either language is extremely low. Foreign language programs in the US, for example, typically provide limited access to books for genuine pleasure reading. Also, print is not easily available in some languages spoken by language minority students.

It is reasonable to hypothesize that for transfer of the reading habit to occur, access to reading material must be plentiful. When this is the case, encouraging reading in the first language can have payoffs for second language development.

NOTE

 The formula is as follows: $S = R + O/N$, where S is the score corrected for guessing on the basis of items omitted, R, the number of items answered correctly, O, the number of items omitted, and N, the number of alternative answers, in this case, 2.

APPENDIX A

Self-reported Reading in Korean Survey (English Version)

1. Do you enjoy reading (not including school related reading) as a hobby?
(1) No; (2) Not really; (3) Sometimes; (4) Yes

2. Do you enjoy popular novels or best sellers?
(1) No; (2) Not really; (3) Sometimes; (4) Yes

3. How much do you spend on books other than school related material every month?
(1) 0 - 5,000 won (2) 5,000-10,000 won;
(3) 10,000-15,000 won; (4) more than 15,000 won

4. I enjoy reading for leisure.
(1) Strongly disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Agree;
(4) StronglyAgree.

5. I visit the bookstore
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

6. I read magazines
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

7. I read newspapers
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

8. How many books to you read a year (not including school related books)?
(1) 0 – 5 (2) 6-10; (3) 11-20; (4) More than 20

APPENDIX B

Self-reported Free Reading in English Survey (English Version)

1. How often do you read English novels just for fun?
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

2. How often do you read English magazines just for

fun?
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

3. How often do you purchase English books at bookstores?
(1) Rarely (2) Only Occasionally (3) Often;
(4) Frequently

4. I enjoy reading English books.
(1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Agree;
(4) Strongly Agree

APPENDIX C: *English Vocabulary Test*

Put an 'X' next to words you recognize as English words. Keep in mind that not all the words listed below are real words.

weary		untamed	
dismissal		loyalment	
successment		possess	
flane		amusity	
handle		invaluable	
conversal		bluck	
combine		heal	
magnify		forcement	
risent		strangity	
instrucness		influence	
rejected		deformness	
strap		artificial	
inscarce		sloping	
miggle		mudge	
collar		bundle	
infect		proposal	
forgivity		crope	
arousion		forsake	
lodge		inject	
expume		flapping	
infectory		burdle	
recipe		whistle	
asainful		turmoil	
forecast		article	
conscious		repeat	

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Kató Lomb's Strategies for Language Learning and SLA Theory

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Abstract

A noteworthy yet relatively unknown text on language learning is Dr. Kató Lomb's Így tanulok nyelveket [This is how I learn languages] (Budapest: AQUA Kiadó, 1995, 4th ed.). The text is noteworthy for its language-learning strategies, which closely correlate to language-learning strategies of successful learners documented in major SLA studies of the past 25 years. Also significant is the fact that the text is one of the few accounts of successful language learning by a self-directed and lifelong language learner; as data, it is rare.

Introduction

The knowledge of foreign languages has always been important in Continental Europe, and from at least the time of Comenius (1592–1670), scholars have written serious discourses on foreign language teaching and learning. In the last 40 years, important European contributions have been made by Belyayev (The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Languages, 1964), Lozanov (Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy, 1978), and Medgyes (The Non-native Teacher, 1994), among others.

A lesser-known but exceptional text on language learning from Europe is Dr. Kató Lomb's Így tanulok nyelveket [This is how I learn languages] (Budapest: AQUA Kiadó, 1995, 4th ed.). Lomb's text

> *Krashen and Kiss (1996) note that Lomb "demonstrates, quite spectacularly, that high levels of second language proficiency can be attained by adults; much of her language acquisition was done in her 30s and 40s…" (p. 210)*

is remarkable for several reasons. First, it has strategies for, and conclusions about, language learning that closely correlate with those of successful learners documented in major SLA studies of the past 25 years. Lomb's text is one of the few discourses on language learning written by a learner who achieved fluency in several languages after childhood and largely through self-study. Krashen and Kiss (1996) note that Lomb "demonstrates, quite spectacularly, that high levels of second language proficiency can be attained by adults; much of her language acquisition was done in her 30s and 40s…" (p. 210). Finally, Lomb's text is important because it constitutes a rare body of SLA data. Although McLaughlin (1987) believes that "recourse to conscious or unconscious experience is notoriously unreliable" (p. 152), Stevick (1989), in his study of successful language learners, points out that learners' accounts are valuable: "Whenever there is an apparent inconsistency between [successful learners'] statements and a given theory, then the theory must either show that the statement should not be taken seriously, or it must show how the statement is in fact consistent with it after all, or the theory must modify itself accordingly" (pp. xii–xiii).

This article presents Lomb's learning strategies and correlates them to learner strategies documented in major SLA studies of the past 25 years. Most of Lomb's strategies, it will be shown, agree with documented strategies, a few challenge them, and a small number have been matters of dispute among researchers or have simply not been studied. It is argued that when many outstanding acquirers such as Lomb use the same strategies, these strategies are worthy of our attention; indeed, they drive research and shape SLA theory.

Kató Lomb

Dr. Kató Lomb (1909–2003) was Hungary's most accomplished multilingual. A professional transla-

tor/interpreter, she worked in 16 languages for government and business concerns. As a state translator she traveled widely, and her reputation was such that, according to an interview in Hetek newspaper (14 November 1998), she and her multilingual colleagues were known as "the Lomb team" (p. 16). A lifelong language learner, Lomb began learning her 17th language, Hebrew, in her eighties.

Largely self-taught in languages (her doctorate was in chemistry); she first described her learning strategies in This Is How I Learn Languages. Upon publication of the first edition in 1970, the book attracted scholarly and popular interest across Hungary, and subsequent editions were published in 1972, 1990, and 1995. In addition, translations were published in Russia, Latvia, and Japan.

> *A lifelong language learner, Lomb began learning her 17th language, Hebrew, in her eighties.*

In her book, Lomb describes her strategies for learning a foreign language through the construct of a made-up language, Azilian. She assumes that she has had no exposure to Azilian and that it shares no cognates with her native language or any language she knows. Because of her conscious application of strategies to learn languages, Krashen (1997) calls Lomb's experience "very relevant to foreign language education" (p. 41).

Learning "Azilian"

(from Chapter 20 of This Is How I Learn Languages, 4th ed. [1995] by Dr. Kató Lomb. Translation by Kornelia DeKorne. Note: Heads have been inserted into the text for clarity.)

Using dictionaries

"First of all, I try to get my hands on a thick Azilian dictionary. Owing to my optimistic outlook I never buy small dictionaries; I go on the assumption that I would fathom them too quickly and then the money I invested in them would end up being wasted. If an Azilian-Hungarian dictionary does not happen to be available, then I try to get hold of an Azilian-English, Azilian-Russian, etc., dictionary.

a)   In the beginning, I use this dictionary as my textbook. I learn the rules of reading from it. Every language—and consequently every dictionary—contains a lot of international expressions. The bigger the dictionary, the more such expressions there are in it.

b)   The words for nations, countries and cities (especially names for smaller places that are not in danger of distortion through frequent use) and the scientific vocabulary that 'transcends language' reveal to me the relationships between letter-characters and phonemes in the Azilian language. I remember that the first thing I looked up in the Russian-English dictionary I bought in 1941 was my own name: E_____1.

c)   I do not memorize the words; I just scan and study them as though they were some crossword puzzle to be solved. By the time I glean the rules of reading from the above-cited vocabularies, my dictionary will have revealed a lot of other things, too, about the Azilian language. I can see how it morphs the parts of speech into one another: how it nominalizes verbs, how it forms adjectives from nouns and adverbs from adjectives.

This is just a first taste of the language. I am sampling it, making friends with it."

Notes

Lomb's strategy of using a L2–L1 dictionary as a beginning text for learning a language is unique; there is no extant research on it. In terms of general dictionary use, her use of bilingual dictionaries when beginning to learn a language is strongly supported by SLA research. Rossner (1985), Underhill (1985), Gethin and Gunnemark (1996), and Harmer (2001) all endorse the use of bilingual dictionaries over learner's monolin-

gual dictionaries by learners at the beginning stages of foreign language learning.

Although it is not known if Lomb was familiar with bilingualized compromise dictionaries, Laufer and Hadar (1997) suggest that these dictionaries (which follow a bilingual dictionary format but include the "good features" of learner's monolingual dictionaries) may represent an advance over bilingual and learner's monolingual dictionaries. In a study that compared the use of learner's monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualized compromise dictionaries among 123 EFL learners in Israel, Laufer and Hadar found that irrespective of the learners' proficiency level, the bilingualized compromise dictionary was either as good as, or significantly better than, the other two dictionaries for comprehension and production tasks.

Using textbooks and works of literature

"Following this first assay, I buy a textbook and some works of Azilian literature, all together. Of the first, I always buy one with answers provided for the questions in the exercises, as I am an ALS, or average language student: i.e., because of time constraints, I mostly have to teach myself.

"I go through the lessons and do all the written exercises in sequence, as they come in the book. I write 'breezily,' leaving ample room for corrections. Then I look up the correct answers in the key and write them beside/above my own incorrect variations. In this way, I get a very visual representation of 'the history of my folly.'2

"I scold myself for the errors made and then promptly forgive myself. I always leave enough space in my notebook to be able to write five–six correct words or sentences, similar to the ones I got wrong….

This is very helpful in imprinting the corrected formulas.

"As all this is a bit tedious, right from the outset I start reading Azilian plays or short stories. If I'm lucky, there will be 'adapted' texts available. If not, I just start on any literature published before 1950. (I can have trouble understanding the style of modern novels, even in my native Hungarian.) I always buy books in pairs: this increases the chance that at least one will be comprehensible.

"I start on the comprehensible novel immediately. To go from incomprehension to half-understanding to complete understanding is an exciting and inspiring journey of discovery worthy of the spirit of a mature person. By the time I finish the journey, I part with the book feeling that this has been a profitable and fun enterprise.

"At first reading, I only write out words that I manage to understand, that is, words whose meaning I have been able to figure out from context. Naturally, I do not write them out in isolation, but in the context they appeared. It is only after a second or third reading that I look up words unknown to me. Even then, I do not look up each and every one. With those that I record in my notebook, I include the vortex of meaning supplied by the book or by any contemporary dictionary worthy of the name."

Notes

No studies could be found on the value of answer guides in language textbooks. Lomb's systematic use of them suggests that they are important for language learning, at least independent language learning.

The research on whether adapted texts are superior to authentic texts in aiding L2 acquisition is inconclu-

sive. One practical solution, supported by many recent studies, is to have students choose their own texts ("free voluntary reading"). This would be consistent with Lomb's strategy. Krashen (2003) writes that free voluntary reading "is now perhaps the most thoroughly investigated and best-supported [language learning] technique we have in the field of second-language pedagogy" (p. 26).

Lomb's strategy of learning vocabulary in context is strongly supported by SLA research (see Seal, 1991; Ur, 1996; Harmer, 2001).

Learning to comprehend and pronounce Azilian via radio broadcasts

"All this, however, does not teach one of the most important of the four aspects of language learning: verbal comprehension. In addition, I have not gotten an accurate picture of Azilian pronunciation (the phonetic transcriptions of the textbook are always of somewhat dubious value). For this reason, at the very beginning of my language study I set aside some time for scanning the Azilian airwaves. I figure out when and at what frequency I can hear Azilian speech live on the radio. Somewhere, sometime, I am sure to catch the idiom I am interested in from the ether.

"News bulletins generally reflect the most important international events of the day in their main outlines. For this reason—even if the news items are selected according to the probable interests of Azilia's inhabitants—they are usually the same in the broadcasts of different languages. So I always listen to the news in some other, familiar, language as well. Thus I am given a key—almost a dictionary—to what I can expect, in advance. If an unknown word crops up along the way, I write it down. After the broadcast, I look it up immediately in my big dictionary. The reason for this is that at that time, immediately after the broadcast, the word still resounds in my ear with its entire context and if I misheard it (which happens many times), the context, still fresh in my memory, helps redress the error.

"If I find the word in the dictionary, a little self-congratulation is in order again, and this makes learning a pleasant pastime instead of a burdensome task.

"Then, not immediately, but after a day or two, I record in my glossary the knowledge thus acquired 'from the air.' This temporally staggered approach is advisable because this way I am forced to revisit fading memories—unfortunately, quite often not for the last time.

"Once a week, I tape the broadcast. I keep the recording for a while and play it back several times. On these occasions, I always concentrate on pronunciation. Alas, I must admit that based on the announcer's native pronunciation, sometimes I have to reacquaint myself with words that I thought I already knew from books."

Notes

Studies by Crookall (1983), Norbrook (1984), and Imhoof and Christensen (1986) show that radio, whether used naturalistically or formally, has positive effects on the acquisition of an L2.

Although television- or Internet-based technologies may eventually prove to be superior to radio in facilitating L2 acquisition, in much of the world radio is still the only language-learning technology available for little or no cost to learners. It must be noted that Lomb herself preferred radio to television: "I simply believe it [television] to be a time-wasting activity. My favorite is the radio…. When considering pronunciation it is indispensable." (Varga, 1996, p. 4).

The role of the Azilian teacher and/or informant

"Of course, I try to seek out a teacher who speaks Azilian. If I find a professional educator, I've got it made. If there isn't a bona fide teacher available, I try to at least get a native speaker student who is staying in my country on a scholarship.

"I confess that I prefer to be taught by a woman. Perhaps this is because it is easier to chat with women. I have long been intrigued by the question of why women talk more than men do (generally speaking)….

"To return to my method of language study, what I expect from my Azilian teacher is what I cannot get from either books or from the radio. Firstly, I ask the teacher to speak at a slower than average speed so that I can catch as many words as possible from the context, and secondly, I expect him or her to correct my Azilian, mainly on the basis of written assignments that I diligently prepare for each class.

"At first, I write free compositions because it's easier. Often these are disjointed texts, made up of elements not connected with each other, just loose sentences that I use to hang new, just seen/just heard words and grammatical phrases on. On the basis of the teacher's corrections, I verify whether I grasped their meanings and functions properly. When I reach a higher level of knowledge, I begin to translate. At this stage, an already given text compels me to give up using well-practiced formulas and, under the pressure of the translating discipline, employ others that I am not so certain of.

"Uncorrected mistakes are very perilous! If one keeps repeating wrong formulas, they take root in the mind and one will be inclined to accept them as authentic. Written translations pinpoint one's errors ruthlessly, while a listening ear might be prone to just glossing over them….

"I would like to emphasize another great advantage of written translations over holding conversations. To speak a foreign language is a matter of practice, and a wise person learns not to get out of his depth…. [unfortunately,] this does not lead to an increased vocabulary or an enhanced ability to create sentences....an ALS….must learn how to expand the framework and then fill it…."

Notes

Lomb recognizes the value of the trained teacher regardless of native tongue over the native speaker who is not a trained teacher. This is consistent with ELT theory (see Medgyes, 1994). In addition, Lomb acknowledges the value of the untrained native speaker as an informant. This is consistent with ELT theory as well (see Krashen, 1993).

Lomb's strong belief in written corrections runs contrary to much ESL theory for teaching writing. Gray (2004) cites several studies that show that written corrections do not serve to improve students' writing, and that they can actually be harmful to students' "performance and development." However, Gray notes that most students "strongly expect" teachers to notice their writing errors and comment on them.

Harmer (2001) suggests self-assessment: "Where students are involved in their own assessment there is a good chance that their understanding of the feedback which their teacher gives them will be greatly enhanced as their own awareness of the learning process increases" (p. 104).

Lomb's assertion that translations advance one's knowledge of a foreign language and "pinpoint one's errors ruthlessly" is noteworthy; translations are an important part of foreign language instruction in most countries. However, to be most effective they generally require that the students and the instructor share the same L1. This is rare in most ESL programs in English-speaking countries.

Learning about, and traveling to, Azilia

"Those who had the patience to read through my musings about mastering the Azilian language might find two things lacking in them. Any self-respecting language-learning manual's writer would now say something like: '…I make an effort to familiarize myself with the history, geography, social, political, and economic conditions of Azilia as thoroughly as possible.'

"Such study cannot hurt, of course, as it brings us closer to our goal: as comprehensive and precise a knowledge of the language as is possible. If I write this with some degree of reluctance, it is mainly be-

cause this 'trans-linguistic' field (as I call it) is often abused.

"It is much simpler to attend (or give) lectures on these aspects of Azilia in one's own language than to torment oneself (or one's students) with the vocabulary and grammar involved….

"If I am able to travel to Azilia, the trip's effect on my Azilian may depend on two factors. One is the extent to which I am able to observe the natives' speech with conscious attention and to make a record of what I hear for subsequent reinforcement. The other factor is the extent of my knowledge of Azilian at the time of departure.

"It is a grave delusion that a stay in the country of the language one is studying functions as a funnel through which knowledge just pours into one's head. I think people have been misled by the Latin proverb: 'Saxa loquuntur,' or 'Stones talk.'

"Houses, walls and buildings do not undertake the task of teaching. It may be that they talk, but their speech, alas, is in stone language. It is quite possible to pick up a few colloquial, idiomatic expressions or clever turns of phrase under the influence of the local environment, but these generally do not amount to any more than what one would have acquired anyway by applying oneself to diligent study at home for the same time period.

"Neither reminiscing with your émigré compatriots who live in Azilia ('Do you remember Alex from sixth grade?') nor comparative window shopping (or Schaufenster lecken in German, meaning 'shop window licking') will do anything for your Azilian. Frequent hearing of spoken Azilian, however, will. Local papers usually publish information on what museums or galleries offer guided tours. Then there must be an Azilian version of the Society for Popular Science Education that is sure to organize free lectures to educate the public. Whenever I am abroad, I frequent all these types of events and take copious notes every time. Studying a language also provides an excellent excuse to go to the movies. I spent three weeks in Moscow in 1967 and during that time, I went to the movies 17 times….

"The ideal solution, of course, is to maintain active relationships with native speakers of one's ilk and interests, with lots of shared activities—especially if these natives are willing to correct your mistakes, and if one is resolved not to get mad when they do.

"The other factor that decides the impact of a trip on one's knowledge of the language is one's level of mastery at the time of departure…. 'A' and 'F' students will benefit the least from trips. Those who know nothing at the outset will probably return with virgin minds. For those at a very advanced level, improvement will be difficult to detect. The best results will show—given the ideal conditions listed above—at the intermediate level."

Notes

Lomb's claim that "trans-linguistic" (i.e., content-based) instruction is "often abused" is provocative though unsupported by SLA research. Lomb's observations about the factors that determine a trip's influence on one's acquisition of a language are supported by Rubin and Thompson (1994) and Gethin and Gunnemark (1996).

***

Ten "Requests" for language learning

"The thoughts distilled in the course of my linguistic excursions are organized into the little compendium below. Heaven forbid that we should call them Ten Commandments—let us perhaps call them Ten Requests.

I.

Spend time tinkering with the language every day—if there is no more time available, then at least to the extent of a ten-minute monologue. Morning hours are especially valuable in this respect: the early bird catches the word!

II.

If your enthusiasm for studying flags too quickly, don't force the issue but don't stop altogether either. Move to some other form of studying, e.g., instead of reading, listen to the radio; instead of assignment writing, poke about in the dictionary, etc.

III.

Never learn isolated units of speech, but rather learn words and grammatical elements in context.

IV.

Write phrases in the margins of your text and use them as 'prefabricated elements' in your conversations.

V.

Even a tired brain finds rest and relaxation in quick, impromptu translations of billboard advertisements flashing by, of numbers over doorways, of snippets of overheard conversations, etc., just for its own amusement.

VI.

Memorize only that which has been corrected by a teacher. Do not keep reading texts you have written that have not been proofread and corrected so as to keep mistakes from taking root in your mind. If you study on your own, each segment to be memorized should be kept to a size that precludes the possibility of errors.

VII.

Always memorize idiomatic expressions in the first person singular. For example, 'I am only pulling your leg.' Or else: 'Il m'a pose un lapin'—'He stood me up.'

VIII.

A foreign language is a castle. It is advisable to attack it on all fronts at once: via newspapers, the radio, un-dubbed movies, technical or scientific articles, text-books, or via a visitor at your neighbor's.

IX.

Do not let the fear of making mistakes keep you from speaking, but do ask your conversation partner to correct you. Most importantly, don't get peeved if he or she actually obliges you—a remote possibility, any-way.

X.

Be firmly convinced that you are a linguistic genius. If the facts demonstrate otherwise, heap more blame on the pesky language you aim to master, on the diction-aries, or on this little book than on yourself."

Notes

All of Lomb's "requests," with the exception of VII (a minor point), have been validated as strategies of "good" language learners in research and studies by Stevick (1989), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Rubin and Thompson (1994), Naiman et al. (1995), Cook (1996), Gethin and Gunnemark (1996), Chamot et al. (1999), and Lightbown and Spada (1999). More broadly, Lomb's requests fall under the two holistic strategies that Nation (1983) found em-ployed by good language learners: abstraction (non-analytical learning; requests I, II, V, VIII, X) and rule induction (analytical learning; requests III, IV, VI, VII, IX).

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Ten "No's" of language learning

"As seven of the biblical Ten Commandments are in the negative, let me now approach the question from a forbidding angle and list what not to do if you aim to achieve an acceptable level of linguistic mastery within an acceptable time frame.

1.	Do not postpone embarking on learning a new language—or restarting such a study—until the time of a prospective trip abroad. Rather, try to gain access to native speakers of your target language who are on a visit to your country and who do not speak your language. They could be relatives or friends. If you accompany them and show them around, they will help you solidify your knowledge of their language out of gratitude; they will enrich your vocabulary and overlook the mistakes you make.

2.	Do not expect the same behavior from your compatriots. Do not practice on them because they will be prone to giving prime time to your errors—or

at the very least, they will be inclined to employ meaningful facial gestures—to demonstrate how much better they are at it.

3.   Do not believe that instruction by a teacher in a course, however intense and in-depth that might be, gives you an excuse not to delve into the language on your own. For this reason you should, from the outset, get into browsing through illustrated magazines and into listening to radio programs and/or prerecorded cassettes.

4.   In your browsing, do not get obsessed with words you don't know or structures you don't understand. Build comprehension on what you already know. Do not automatically reach for the dictionary if you encounter a word or two that you don't understand. If the expression is important, it will reappear and explain itself; if it is not so important, it is no big loss to gloss over it.

5.   Do not miss noting down your impressions in your own words, with familiar expressions. Write in simple sentences; words you can't think of at the time can be replaced by words from your own language.

6.   Do not be deterred from speaking by the fear of making mistakes. The flow of speech creates a chain reaction: the context will lead you to the right track.

7.   Do not forget to store a large number of filler expressions and sentence-launching phrases in your memory. It is great when you can break the ice with a few formulas that are always on hand and can help you over the initial embarrassment of beginning a conversation, such as 'My English is kind of shaky' or 'It's been a while since I spoke Russian,' etc.

8.   Do not memorize any linguistic element (expression) outside of its context, partly because a word may have several different meanings: e.g., the English word 'comforter' may refer to someone who is consoling another or it can mean a knitted shawl, a quilt or eiderdown, or yet again a baby's pacifier. In addition, it is good, right off the bat, to get used to the practice of leaving the vortex of meanings around the word in your own language alone and reaching out to its kin word in the new language or to the context you have most frequently encountered it in.

9.   Do not leave newly learned structures or expressions hanging in the air. Fix them in your memory by fitting them into different, new settings:

into your sphere of interest, into the reality of your own life.

10.   Do not be shy of learning poems or songs by heart. Good diction plays a more significant role in speech performance than the mere articulation of individual sounds. Verses and melodies impose certain constraints. They set what sounds must be long and which ones must be short in duration. The rhythm inherent in them guides speakers and helps them avoid the into
nation traps of their native language."

Notes

All of Lomb's "no's," with the exception of Point 2, have been validated as traits of "good" language learners in research and studies by Stevick (1989), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Rubin and Thompson (1994), Naiman et al. (1995), Cook (1996), Gethin and Gunnemark (1996), Chamot et al. (1999), and Lightbown and Spada (1999). As with Lomb's requests, her no's fall under the two holistic strategies that Nation (1983) found employed by good language learners: abstraction (non-analytical learning; no's 1, 2, 3, 4, 6) and rule induction (analytical learning; no's 5, 7, 8, 9, 10).

Conclusion

Lomb's text is noteworthy; it has been shown, for its language-learning strategies, which closely cor-relate to the language-learning strategies of successful learners documented in major SLA studies of the past 25 years. When many outstanding acquirers such as Lomb use the same language-learning strategies, these strategies are worthy of our attention; indeed, they constitute a valuable body of data to SLA research-ers and those engaged in the practice of second- and foreign-language teaching.

Translator's notes

1. This transcribes as "Yekatjerina," the Russian version of "Catherine."

2. This is a reference to the title of a romantic Hungarian movie.

Biographical information

Dr. Kató Lomb (1909–2003) was an interpreter and translator based in Budapest. She is the author of Így tanulok nyelveket [This is how I learn languages] (1970, 1972, 1990, 1995), Egy tolmács a világ körül [A translator around the world] (1979), Nyelvekrol jut eszembe... [Languages remind me...] (1983), and Bábeli harmónia (Interjúk Európa híres soknyelvu embereivel) [Harmony of Babel (Interviews with famous multilingual people in Europe)] (1988).
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TEACHER TO TEACHER

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Access to Books and a Quiet Comfortable Place to Read: A Practical Guide to Establishing a Free Voluntary Reading Program

by Jason Fritze and Karen Rowan

According to Dr. Stephen Krashen, all that is required to turn children into readers is access to books and a quiet comfortable place to read. Students who read not only have more access to comprehensible input, but also have the opportunity to focus on pleasure reading. We acquire a language when we understand its use in real messages. Therefore we must receive comprehensible input, or understandable and meaningful experience of that language. Reading allows us to gain patterns of vocabulary, semantics and morphology without the cluttering details that would confuse if explicitly taught.

Stephen Krashen calls FVR "reading because you want to." Free Voluntary Reading is one of the most powerful tools we have in language education and is the missing ingredient in foreign language instruction. It provides a foundation so that higher levels of proficiency may be reached. It results in better reading comprehension, improved writing style, a broader vocabulary, better spelling, and more advanced grammatical development. In The Power of Reading, Krashen says, "In my work in language acquisition I have concluded that we acquire language in only one way: by understanding messages, or obtaining comprehensible input in a low-anxiety situation. This is
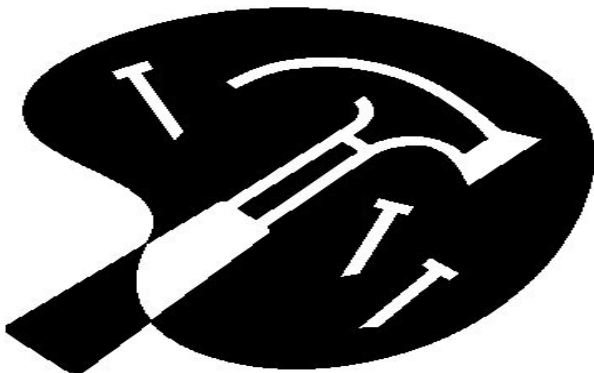
precisely what free voluntary reading is: messages we understand presented in a low-anxiety situation.

In spite of ample evidence and teacher experience that creating classroom libraries of rich and varied texts motivates students to read, actually creating FVR libraries and programs present some problems. Krashen says that all that children need to become literate is access to books and a quiet, comfortable place to read. The reality for most teachers is that lack of access to books and lack of space to create a proper reading environment prevents many of the most dedicated teachers from creating classroom libraries for FVR programs. Access to books and a quiet comfortable place to read becomes a short list of obstacles rather than a simple description. Teachers faced with the task of creating a reading library from scratch have to be creative.

Overcoming Obstacle Number One: Access to Books

1.   The first solution is a temporary one, but provides instant access to books until a permanent supply can be obtained. Check out the children's books from the public library.
2.   Download and print on-line books. Go to http://homepage.mac.com/jasonfritze/Reading/Menu36.html for a list of on-line books in translation.
3.   Offer Scholastic order forms to students. Ask them to share their books throughout the year with the classroom library. At the end of the year, when they have read and re-read their original selections, ask them to donate the books to the classroom library. http://teacher.scholastic.com/clubs/custsvc/tguide/gettingstarted.htm
4.   Contact book companies that sell Children's Books at low cost. Sosnowski Books (www.

SosnowskiBooks.com) or World of Reading (www.wor.com).
5.   Go to www.comprehensibleinput.com for a list of recommended books and ideas for how to find them.
6.   Troll through used book stores, EBay, dollar stores and public library book sales. Children's books in other languages are often sold at a discount.

Overcoming Obstacle Number Two: A Quiet, Comfortable Place to Read

1.   Mount standard hardware store rain gutters to the wall or beg book racks from the library. Books that are displayed with visible covers are more likely to entice students to read.
2. Ask for donations of bean bags, large pillows or comfortable chairs. Make sure the room has plenty of light.
3. Encourage students to take the titles that are interesting to them. The room will be mostly quiet, interrupted occasionally by one student pointing out to another something interesting or funny in the book he is reading. Expect chairs to scrape against the floor as some students return books they have finished or that they weren't interested in and select another. Students self-select interesting, comprehensible reading materials, return the books they don't enjoy or find to be too difficult or too boring and settle back into their reading nooks. It is important for students to feel free to read texts that they find comprehensible and interesting. Often they will choose a text and then decide to replace it with something they can understand better. The goal is for all students to eventually read chapter books, which will further stimulate their literacy development. Encouraging students to explore COMPREHENSIBLE readers and children's books beginning in level I boosts their

> *"In my work in language acquisition I have concluded that we acquire language in only one way: by understanding messages, or obtaining comprehensible input in a low-anxiety situation. This is precisely what free voluntary reading is: messages we understand presented in a low-anxiety situation."*
> Stephen Krashen, The Power of Reading: insights from the Research

confidence and fosters a love of reading in the target language. Students' reading successes will provide them with greater success in communication in general (listening comprehension, speaking and writing). Comprehensible reading activities allow students to reach ever higher levels of language acquisition and proficiency.

> *One of the most important components of an FVR program is teachers' modeling reading for pleasure. Teachers who neglect to read for pleasure during FVR time model the opposite and undermine their goals.*

FVR is not a synonym for "Study Hall"

The students are quiet and busy. It's tempting to take attendance, catch up on paperwork or let students work on make-up work. One of the most important components of an FVR program is teachers' modeling reading for pleasure. Teachers who neglect to read for pleasure during FVR time model the opposite and undermine their goals. Some students don't see books in the home, rarely see adult role models read and generally do not see teachers reading for pleasure while at work.

Model life-long learning and reading for pleasure. Read while your students read. Read because it's fun. Read because it's intriguing. Read because it's a page-turner. Read at a level that is comprehensible to you to improve your own comprehension of the target language and expand your own vocabulary. Read in a comfortable chair. Read with your feet up on the desk and if you want your modeling to be even more powerful say, "Class, I need two extra minutes. I just can't put this book down!"

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> *" I think the very first quality that a good teacher has is that they care deeply for children and they want to see them learn; they want to see all children learn and succeed and realize their potential. They have to have the heart, the caring."*
>
> Lea Alpert, school superintendent, in Hawaii Advertiser

Teaching Grammar with TPRS

by Blaine Ray

[Blaine Ray](#) is the inventor of TPR Storytelling. He is a retired Spanish teacher, author, International workshop presenter and Fluency Fast language teacher.

Comprehensible Input and Fluency

Fluency is the primary goal of foreign language classes. Ultimately, we are teaching our students to speak fluently. Secondary goals might include accuracy in oral production. Complete accuracy that would sound both comprehensible and correct to a native speaker is complex. Students would be able to choose the correct vocabulary, choose the correct conjugations of the verbs they choose to use and place words in the correct order. Language structure can only be acquired, as opposed to learned. Structure is acquired through repetitive exposure to ample comprehensible input.

A child who hears a language for 10 hours a day for six years would have over 20,000 hours of input. In the classroom, if our students are on task for 45 minutes a day, 180 days a year for four years, then they will have less than 600 hours of input. A student would have to take 148 years of Spanish 1 to approximate the equivalent of 6 years of language acquisition in the home. Since we are trying to help our students to achieve the same level of fluency in a few hundred hours that parents are helping their children achieve in thousands of hours, we must use class time to maximum efficiency.

> *Since fluency is achieved through the acquisition of a language through comprehensible input, teachers direct the bulk of their teaching energies towards activities that will provide a flow of comprehensible input.*

In the past, language classes have been about studying rules or grammar. These classes were about the language. These classes helped motivated students understand how the language worked, but they didn't help students gain fluency. That is because fluency is acquired. A person who would use grammar rules to edit his speech would have to know the rule, be focused on the rule and have time to edit. (Krashen, S. 1998. Foreign Language Education: The Easy Way. Culver City, CA: Language Education Associates).

Application of learned rules during conversation impedes fluency. When a student does self-correct in an attempt to apply learned rules, speech is often halting, edited and not fluent.

TPRS: Comprehensible and compelling

TPRS (Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling, formerly known as Total Physical Response Storytelling) focuses on fluency as the primary goal. Since fluency is achieved through the acquisition of a language through comprehensible input, teachers direct the bulk of their teaching energies towards activities that will provide a flow of comprehensible input. With the Natural Approach as our theoretical base and a method that is steeped in comprehensible input, we accept that language is acquired through comprehensible input. We add to the Natural Approach that classroom experience has shown us that the input must be not just comprehensible but also repetitive and compelling. TPRS is a teaching method that involves three steps: the introduction of vocabulary words or structures; asking a story using those targeted vocabulary words or structures and finally, reading. Each step involves ample comprehensible input, student involvement, personalization of the material to the students in the class and repetition. TPRS teachers frequently time themselves to make sure that a minimum of 80% of their class time is dedicated to comprehensible input in the target language. Some TPRS teachers approach 95% while telling stories.

Accuracy through Pop-up Meaning

Each student can have a different level of understanding when he or she hears a statement in the target language. For example, some students will comprehend "talk" when they hear the word hablan. Some students might comprehend "they talk." We can tell what they have acquired when we listen to them produce. Their production communicates to us what sounds right to them. It is echoed in their speech. If a student says, Yo va we can assume he hasn't had enough repetitions of the proper structure, or the deeper meaning of va wasn't made clear to him. In other words, he comprehends and has acquired that va means "goes" and has not yet acquired "he goes."   The output a student produces is a symptom or an indication of what has been internalized or acquired. What is acquired first is that which carries meaning. The difference between es (is) and está (is) does not meaningful, whereas the difference between Tengo hambre (I am hungry) and tener hambre (to have hunger) is, the former being more likely to help the hungry person get fed.

In order to speak fluently, students need to hear and read the target language and understand it. In order to speak with accuracy, students must be focused on the complete and complex meaning of the words. They must be focused on va meaning "he goes" instead of "goes" or "go".

We want our students to know the meaning and be focused on the meaning. This is the challenge of our classes if we are going to get students to speak with accuracy.   In order to achieve fluency, the students must know the meaning and be focused on the meaning, rather than knowing the grammar rule and being focused on the grammar rule.

In TPRS we get students to focus on the deeper meaning through pop-ups. The term was originally termed "pop-up grammar" but we found that many teach-

In order to achieve fluency, the students must know the meaning and be focused on the meaning, rather than knowing the grammar rule and being focused on the grammar rule.

ers felt we meant to give students a grammar lesson. What we really meant was "pop-up meaning." We wanted students to hear the deeper meaning and we wanted them to focus on that meaning. "Pop-ups" can be communicated by the teacher in 3-5 seconds apiece.

Our goal is to teach the basic structures of the language through meaning. Therefore, when we are teaching a language in which the basic structure is different from English, we point that out. We point it out as often as we can. We get students to focus on the exact meaning through repetitive questions. Pop-ups are a very important part of TPRS. It is easiest to do them during Step 3, Reading, but it is helpful to do them during any of the steps.

For example, a basic structure in Spanish is le da. (He or she gives to him or her.) This structure is different in Spanish than in English. We need to point out this out. We do that by explaining that the le means "to him." It goes before "gives" (unlike in English.) Once we have explained this, we are ready for our pop-ups. The pop-up would be a simple question like, "Class, what does the le mean?" If the class is translating and the student reads, le dijo we would ask, "What does the le mean?" If there is a later sentence that just says, dijo we would ask, "Why isn't there a le there?" Students would answer that he didn't say it to someone. Later a question would be, "Class, what is the difference between le dijo and se dijo?" Over the course of a year we would draw attention to the difference between se and le many times.

As the class begins to respond more quickly, the questions about le and se will become less frequent. The teacher's focus on pop-up meanings will start with the basic verbs and verb endings. Students learn that buscaba and buscó both mean looked for. Later they learn that buscó completed the action. It will include the pronouns. Later as students progress in their language acquisition and are answering the basic verb and pronoun questions with ease, the teacher would

progress to pop-ups about agreement. This type of question would be something like, "Why is contenta used in that sentence instead of contento?" The students would answer that only a boy can be contento. Much later you would ask why do they say libros importantes? The students would answer, "Because there is more than one book."

As the students progress, the pop-ups will be about more advanced structures. In quiere que tenga (he wants that she has), at first students don't need any more information than "he wants her to have" or "he wants that she have". If we explain more than this, it just leads to confusion and makes it less likely they will learn this for fluency. We want them to hear quiere que tenga hundreds and thousands of times until it simply sounds right. Meanwhile, we point out the meaning of the sentence. Through repetitive questioning we have the best chance that students will learn to speak, focus on accuracy and know the exact meaning of what they are saying. It is therefore more likely they will hear their errors when they make them and make fewer errors because they are saying what sounds right to them.

The language school leader's guide to BASIC marketing planning

Peter Cornish
UK Marketing Director
TEFL International

Confronted by an increasingly competitive and continuously changing market place, the language school leader faces more challenges than ever before if their school is to survive and prosper. With these challenges come four questions that many feel ill equipped to answer or, worse still, choose to ignore:
1.   Where are we now?
2.   Where are we going?
3.   How do we get there?
4.   How do we know we have arrived?

To help answer these questions, language school leaders are being forced to adopt new management practices that many feel uncomfortable with or have little understanding of. Topping the list is marketing which, despite on-going evidence as the most important of business activities (Simpson & Taylor, 2002), is frequently given low priority by the leaders of language schools.

Reasons for this are varied: some find it too time consuming and beyond their means whilst others argue that they have done well without so it must not be needed. Some equate marketing with selling and rely on their natural charisma to strike deals with overseas agents. "I can sell ice to Eskimos" they happily proclaim with little understanding that Eskimos don't need ice and will eventually stop buying.

Those that do embrace some nature of marketing do so with varying degrees of formality and planning, arguing that day-to-day constraints of running a language school combined with an ever changing environment do not allow for much more than developing agendas of objectives (Simpson & Taylor, 2002).

However, adopting a formal and planned approach to marketing enables the language school leader to iden-

tify options and choice for the future direction of their school. Helping allocate resources and handle change, a documented marketing plan ensures that targets are achieved and provides early warning of things going wrong.

The steps to producing a marketing plan are as numerous as the authors who present them and to the uninitiated the prospect of writing a plan can be daunting. With limited budgets, employing a marketing agency to complete the planning process is an option that many language schools can ill afford.

But by following a series of tasks outlined in Brooksbank's (1996) BASIC approach to marketing planning, leaders of language schools can develop effective plans that will underpin the continued success of their school.

According to Brooksbank (1996), effective marketing planning involves following a framework of five phases, the end objective of which is the satisfying customer needs, profitably:

Business-customerising
Analysis
Strategy
Implementation
Control

The first phase calls for development of a customer driven culture that must be supported by the leaders of the school. The second phase advocates careful analysis of the school's internal and external environments where student needs are identified and compared with the school's core capabilities.

Stage three defines marketing objectives including customer segmentation and positioning of the school's products and services. From these objectives, the school develops its marketing mix inline with its organisational structure and differential advantage. In the final stage, performance is measured against objectives so that future goals can be set.

Business-customerising

Business-customerising your school calls for adopting a marketing orientation and showing organisation-wide commitment to satisfying the needs of your students. In following this approach, there is a need for school staff to accept ultimately that they are working for the student.

Task One – building a market-led school culture

Through recognition and satisfaction of student needs, a school is said to be market-orientated (Blankson & Stokes, 2002). Schools that adopt a market orientation are likely to perform better than those that don't (Simpson & Taylor, 2002).

In-school promotion of customer awareness, involvement of staff in the planning process and the introduction of training sessions for staff will focus and encourage staff awareness to this need. However, a school cannot fully become market orientated if leader support is not visible.

Task Two – developing a customer-driven mission statement

Despite the opportunity mission statements provide to highlight school strengths and give staff a shared objective, few schools produce one (McDonald 1999).

An effective mission statement should identify your school's core competences – its differential advantage - and relate to how these impact customer value. Without covering greater details of the marketing plan, your statement should be clear, realistic, specific, based on distinctive competencies and motivating for those it is aimed at (Kotler et al., 2002).

Analysing

The second phase of Brooksbank's framework examines your school's operating environment, both internal and external, and should look in particular at your school's competitive position. The information collected through this auditing process provides the foundation on which to develop and launch your marketing plan and is critical in forming the future direction and success of your school.

Task Three – conducting market research

Ultimately, research conducted should assist in identifying the students that are able to provide high volume and value, both in the present and the future (Chaston & Mangles, 2002); these are your target markets. This calls for examination of your school's existing and potential customers and the activities of the competition.

The information audit process has four stages that can be addressed in a series of questions:

1.   What does the school need to know?
2.   What does the school already know?
3.   What is missing?
4.   How can these gaps be closed?

To start the ball rolling, Question 1 can be broken down into a further four questions:

1.   What do my students need?
2.   Who are my students and how much can be found out about them?
3.   What is my competition?
4.   Are there any gaps in the market?

The research you conduct should be looked at as an investment rather than a cost, so it is essential to set and define objectives before embarking (Blythe, 2001). This serves two purposes: firstly, it makes sure that the benefits gained from your research outweigh the cost of collecting it; and secondly, helps determine if the sought data is available from secondary resources or if it requires you to conduct primary research.

Task Four – examination of internal and external factors

The key objective at this stage is identification of your school's core competencies – what you are best at – and how these impact on customer value. You will also examine your competitors' strengths and weaknesses to identify potential for creating and sustaining your school's competitive advantage – why students choose you and not the competition.

Conducting a SWOT analysis for your own school as well as competitors' will help identify internal Strengths and Weaknesses and external Opportunities and Threats. To assist in this process, Brooksbank (1996) suggests some further questions to be answered:

1.   What is our marketing mix offer?
2.   What is our competitive advantage?
3.   How well are we performing?
4.   How are we likely to compete in the future?

Of equal importance is analysis of your potential and existing students. Questions such as; who are they, why do they buy and what benefits are the seeking will help you develop profiles of your students and segment them into different groups.

Segmenting your students helps you gain a better understanding of the particular needs each group has. With this knowledge you can identify which segments' needs you are best able to meet and which segments are most profitable to your school. This allows you to be more precise in what you offer to whom and also makes it easier to recognise and combat competition.

Strategy

With a greater understanding of the environment you are operating in and how your school is best able to compete, you are now able to define your objectives. The objectives of your plan will spell out what you hope to achieve, the strategy will explain how you hope to achieve them.

Task Five – setting objectives

When deciding on objectives, consideration needs to be given to levels of achievement for both demand and supply. Demand typically relates to target profit levels and sales goals whilst supply relates to your marketing costs and the use of other resources.

Objectives need to be set that consider your students as well as your school and acknowledge that both will have benefits and goals that they wish to be met. Whatever objectives you decide on, they should be set on the basis of what is quantifiable with in a given timescale – SMART – Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Timed.

Task Six – positioning strategies

The term 'positioning strategy' refers to the target customer your school chooses to serve, the competitors you will vie with and the competitive advantage you decide to compete with (Brooksbank 1999). The key to success is through identification of a differential advantage that distinguishes your school from your competitors and is of superior value to your chosen target market.

Establishing your school's differential advantage calls for accurate identification of your desired student segments and determination of the services you offer that best match their needs. From here, close examination of how the services you offer differ from those of the competition will identify potential gaps and reveal positions of advantage.

When segmenting your students and identifying your differential advantage, you must be able to provide services of high value to the customer and that competitors will find hard to copy. In doing so, you will be able to focus your potentially limited resources on a group of students whose needs your school is best able to meet.

Implementation

This stage of the planning process will help you develop a marketing mix that your potential students will perceive as superior to your competitors, primarily through the reflection of your school's differential advantage.

Task Seven – the marketing mix

The marketing mix, or 7Ps – Product, Price, Promotion, Place, Physical evidence, People and Process – determine what you offer your students, how you offer it and how they perceive what it is you are offering. The golden rule at this stage is to combine them in such a manner that they complement each other and support your positioning strategy.

Your product should clearly satisfy the needs of your students and should be priced in a way that is attractive but also reflects its quality. Your promotional activities should stress the merits of your product, highlight its benefits and persuade your students to buy it.

Products should be available to your students at the time and place they want it. The physical evidence, such as premises and course materials should reinforce your school's image, as should the people your students come into contact with and the processes they encounter throughout their experience with your school.

Task Eight – the marketing effort

Transforming your marketing strategy from a documented plan to a working application means allocating tasks to complete in a given timeframe. This calls for specific tasks to be defined, timing decided on and then made the responsibility of a staff member.

As well as assigning individual responsibilities to staff members, successful implementation of the marketing plan is dependent on procedures to manage specific marketing tasks. Introducing clearly defined processes for tasks such as generating and tracking sales leads, following up enquiries and capturing customer information helps ensure consistency throughout the processes.

Controlling

The final stage of your plan involves setting up systems to monitor and control changes in your school's environment so that strategies which go wrong or become inappropriate can be changed and adapted to accommodate the school's changing objectives.

Task Nine – marketing information systems

By harvesting and collating information related to your marketing activities you can assess the results and ensure that changes are introduced at appropriate times. This also helps you take a broader, long-term view of your school's objectives and match them with your students' needs.

A good marketing information system is capable of capturing information from your school's financial records as well as on-going intelligence from the market place. In designing a system suitable for your individual school, Brooksbank (1996) suggests three questions to answer:

1. What type of information is needed and how much?
2. What information sources should be used?
3. What is the best way of storing / accessing it?

Task Ten – comparing reality with objectives

The final task of the marketing planning process is comparison of performance against objectives. Use of a suitable performance tracker enables you to measure events in the operational environment against those of the plan. In order to achieve this, an effective performance tracker must accomplish two tasks:

1. Establish the performance levels to be achieved, at what time and to which levels
2. Enable logging of plan performance and environmental factors at pre-determined regular intervals

Such a system will enable you to assess your school's performance levels at a glance and take corrective action where necessary. By conducting 'in action' controls, your plan becomes a living document able to evolve over time to meet your students' needs, organisational objectives and environmental changes to your best advantage.

Brooksbank's BASIC framework for marketing planning provides language school leaders with a simplified yet practical set of tasks and guidelines for the effective planning of their marketing operations. However, in conclusion of his framework he places strong emphasis on schools adopting a marketing-led approach to their operations. Through genuine commitment to identifying, satisfying and exceeding student needs, schools can be more confident in their future growth and success.

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