Increasing Speech Comprehensibility in TETE Through the Incorporation of 10 CEG Features[1]

KOBAYASHI Toshihiko (Otaru University of Commerce)

Abstract The primary purpose of this paper is to guide Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) to teach English through English (TETE) successfully by demonstrating a specific approach to increase their speech comprehensibility. This project is another attempt to illustrate the benefits of the Colloquial English Grammar (CEG) Typology Framework (revised by Kobayashi, 2015). First, the status quo of English classes in Japanese junior and senior high schools is explored in order to examine the extent to which TETE is practiced, which is illustrated with data from previous studies and a new survey involving university freshmen which includes an analysis on the possible causes of JTEs' inaction to speak English. Second, the traits observed in various types of modified speeches are reviewed in tandem with an illustration of a comprehensive way to make speeches more comprehensible by incorporating ten selected CEG features into two speech scripts. Lastly, specific ways for achieving successful teacher talk and teaching comprehensible speeches through the CEG incorporation are proposed.

Key words: speech / modification / comprehensible / TETE / CEG

1. How Commonly is TETE Practiced in Japan?

1-1. The New MEXT Guideline

With a mounting concern, especially, from the business community, that Japan's competitive edge in various fields on the international stage could be further hindered unless extensive measures are undertaken to alter the current predicament in English teaching (especially, teacher training and retraining), the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) officially stipulated that Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) are to teach English in English (TETE). This government missive is stated in the new Course of Study that was implemented for the senior high English curriculum in April, 2014. Moreover, it is expected that junior high schools will follow suit in the near future. However, the guideline does not excludes the use of Japanese in class altogether. Rather, it appears to aim at encouraging JTEs to speak English more often in front of their students. This possibility is based on the premise that JTEs can be better role models for JLEs than their L1 English counterparts because, as proficient L2 users, they also act as real life examples of successful bilingual language learners.

In the current policy discourse, JTEs are unequivocally urged to hone and update their teaching skills which are needed for TETE; they are expected to avert from the common

practice of habitually spending a great amount of class hours speaking L1 for teaching grammatical rules, vocabulary and subsequent sentence-level L2-L1 translation. This common and long-standing teaching tradition is said to allow too little time for students to practice oral production in class.

One possible way to encourage JTEs to avert from this practice and maximize the use of English in classrooms is to suggest a switch to English without changing the contents of instruction. Yet, they must also recognize the need to modify their speech to the level of their students, changes which are generally associated with phonological features only – slow rate of speech and clear pronunciation. However, far more factors are involved in the rate of speech comprehension. In this paper, focus is placed on the lexicogrammatical features assumed to lead to better comprehension, namely through a demonstration of how speech scripts can be modified to be more comprehensible through the incorporation of specific linguistic features, and how these modifications can be taught in class.

1-2. The Impetus for This Study

The impetus for this study primarily derives from a professional obligation as a university professor to research the mechanism of speech comprehensibility and provide an organized and systematic way to understand these complex processes, for both future and current JTEs in teacher training/retraining courses. In addition, this study serves as a reference for both undergraduate and graduate students in my English classes as they attempts to improve their English speaking fluency and clarity. One of the underlying assumptions in this paper is that JTEs can feel confident to speak English in class if their students understand their teachers' English utterances and follow their teaching style well.

Another research motive is to explore potential benefits of the CEG Typology Framework (revised by Kobayashi, 2015) in pedagogical contexts. In a previous study, I explored the benefits of the framework for learners, teachers, researchers, and textbook writers (Kobayashi, 2014). As a first attempt to demonstrate the benefits as a research tool, mostly for researchers' and textbook writers', the authenticity of colloquial expressions in new junior and senior high school English textbooks approved by MEXT was tested and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively (Kobayashi, 2013). Now the time has come for the benefits for teachers and learners to be explored and exemplified in order to prove that the framework truly benefits all. Before proposing a specific way to modify a speech script to increase comprehension, the current situation of the spread of TETE among JTEs needs to be discussed in further detail.

1-3. Previous Studies

A recent survey conducted by MEXT (2014) for senior high school JTEs (totaling 2,622 teachers from 477 national and public high schools) on the frequency of their speaking English in English II (currently abolished) classes for the third-year students found that 16.5% of those surveyed answered that they speak English for over 50% of their class hours.

Another relatively recent study on TETE by Tsukamoto and Tsujioka (2013) surveyed 95 senior high school JTEs teaching in the Kansai and Fukuoka areas and found that 46.9% of the teachers said they speak English either most of their lesson hours, or more than half the time in Oral Communication I classes, and for 10.1% in English I classes (both courses have been discontinued since). In addition, it was also found that JTEs speak English most frequently for classroom instruction (71.5%) and greetings and warm-ups (71.5%), and least frequently for grammar explanation (3.2%).

Nevertheless, doubt remains on the methods used to measure the length of JTEs' speaking English in class. The results are not based on objective experiments where a rater is seated and measures the length of the teacher' utterances in the same classroom; rather, they are more likely based on the JTE's subjective judgments of current and past lessons.

One possible way to verify and reinforce, to some extent, the validity of the results of these previous studies would be to collect data directly from current or past students. By integrating information gained from both JLEs and JTEs, as in the following retrospective survey involving Japanese university students, a more accurate picture of the spread of TETE in Japanese junior and senior high schools could be grasped and rendered available for further discussion to promote the style of TETE throughout Japan.

1-4. A Retrospective Survey on College Freshmen

A survey was conducted on TETE involving a total of 193 freshmen enrolled in my five classes at two national universities in Hokkaido – Otaru University of Commerce (OUC) and Hokkaido University (HU) – in April, 2015. The students were asked to answer two sets of multiple-choice questions in Japanese on a sheet, which was collected right after completion.

First, the students were asked to recollect how frequently they had seen their junior and senior high school JTEs speak English in class – giving instructions, explaining grammar and vocabulary, summarizing stories on textbooks, etc. other than merely reading aloud blackboard or in textbook contents. Second, they were asked to choose their preference of language of instruction or the extent they thought English should be used in their classes. The results are summarized in Table 1.

For the first question, of the 193 students, 77 students (40.1%) chose either #4 or #5,

indicating that a relatively high proportion of students having experienced TETE. However, 37 students (19.2%) said they had rarely or never seen their teachers speak English in class. In light of the previously mentioned MEXT survey results (2014) that found only 16.5% JTEs speak English, there is a gap between students' impressions and reality. This discrepancy occurs probably because the students involved in this survey are not a true representation of Japanese college students. Moreover, differences in the survey methods and the number of subjects may also have exacerbated this gap.

Table 1
Results of Survey

		Response	Total (Ratio)	OUC	HU
Q1	#1	Never	5 (2.6%)	3	2
	#2	Rarely	32 (16.6%)	15	17
	#3	Sometimes	78 (40.6%)	39	39
	#4	Many times	46 (24.0%)	29	17
	#5	All the time	31 (16.1%)	16	15
Q2	#1	English only	6 (3.2%)	5	1
	#2	Mainly in English; Japanese when necessary	116 (61.7%)	67	49
	#3	Mainly in Japanese; English when necessary	38 (20.2%)	13	25
	#4	Half in English; half in Japanese	28 (14.7%)	14	14
	#5	Japanese only	1 (0.5%)	1	0

Concerning the second question, only 6 students (3.2%) supported instruction being conducted exclusively in English; the majority of students (61.7%) prefer the dominant use of the target language with their L1 assuming a supporting role. This learners' preference appears to have been underestimated or even totally ignored by TETE proponents.

1-5. What Inhibits JTEs from Speaking English in Classrooms?

Another question concerns the factors that are possibly inhibiting JTEs' speaking English in class. The survey mentioned earlier conducted by Tsukamoto and Tsujioka (2013) also found that over 70% of the JTEs surveyed thought that it is not easy for them to conduct English classes in English. However, only 11% of the JTEs admitted to having insufficient competence in speaking English as the reason for their not speaking English. In contrast, 56% thought that TETE is difficult to implement because they think their students' English competence is not sufficient. In my view, however, it is also due to: fear of making mistakes in front of their students and losing face; obsession that they must portray a perfect model of speaking English; sense that TETE is troublesome: or concern that TETE is counterproductive to the development of empathy with students and lowering the affective filter, especially in an unresponsive class. Moreover, teachers' mental and physical states should not be underestimated: they would not be in the mood or disposition to speak English unless they are mentally and physically fit.

2. Modified Ways to Speak English

It is commonly observed in our daily life that the way people talk to each other varies depending upon the level of proficiency of the listener. Parents usually speak to their young children in careful and supportive ways. People tend to speak to foreigners slowly and pronounce each word clearly. Likewise, teachers typically speak to their L2 students more loudly and use more common lexical items than to L1 students in classrooms. These linguistically modified speech patterns offering comprehensible input are called *caretaker speech*, *foreigner talk*, and *teacher talk*, respectively. Even before the notion of *comprehensible input* was developed by Krashen (1981), Hatch (1978) described the linguistic features pertaining to *simplified input* that are observed when people talk to less proficient speakers.

In the early days of SLA research, Ferguson (1971) characterized *foreigner talk*. Later, Richards and Schmidt (2002) summarized the characteristics of *caretaker speech*, which includes *mother talk* and *baby talk*. Similarly, Chaudron (1988) extensively reviewed the linguistic features observed in *teacher talk* that were identified in dozens of previous empirical studies conducted from 1977 to 1986 and divided them into the areas of phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse. Following this division, the nature of modified speeches is summarized in Table 2 (some terms have been shortened or edited so as to be consistent with others).

Table 2
Comparisons of Modified Speeches

	Simplified Input (Hatch, 1978)	Caretaker Speech (Richards&Schmidt, 2002)	Foreigner Talk (Ferguson, 1971)	Teacher Talk (Chaudron, 1988)
Phonology	- longer pauses - exaggerated intonation - extra volume	- clearer pronunciation - exaggerated intonation	- slower rate of delivery - increased loudness - clearer articulation - clearer pronunciation - more pauses - more emphatic stress	- longer pauses - extra volume - extra stress on nouns - exaggerated intonation
Lexis	- common vocabulary - word definition*(CEG29) - context information	- simpler vocabulary	- repetition*(CEG26) - topicalization*(CEG44) - common vocabulary	- common vocabulary - less slang - fewer idioms
Syntax	- shorter utterances - left dislocation*(CEG46) - repetition*(CEG26) - restatement	- simpler grammar - shorter utterances	- simpler grammar	- less subordinate clauses - left dislocation*(CEG46) - present-progressive
Discourse	- reply within question - corrective feedback		- shorter utterances	- tag questions*(CEG23) - corrective feedback

(*indicates a feature listed in the CEG Typology Framework, see Table 4)

In addition, Chaudron (1988, p.55) studied the features of NS and NNs discourse (as illustrated in Figure 1 below) and states that:

> on various comparisons, teacher talk in L2 classrooms differs from speech in other contexts, but the differences are no systematic, nor are they qualitatively distinct enough to constitute a special sociolinguistic domain, as has been argued for the case of foreigner talk. Rather, it appears that the adjustments in teacher speech to nonnative-speaking learners serve the temporary purpose of maintaining communication – clarifying information and eliciting learners' responses – and do not identify the interaction as an entirely different social situation.
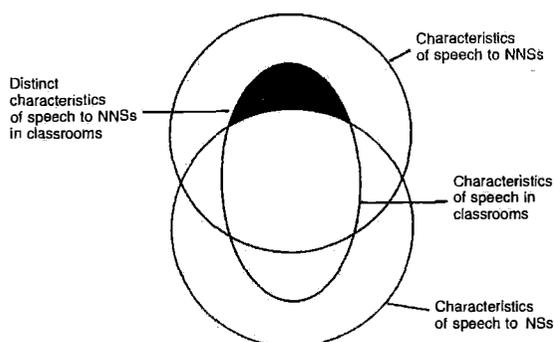

Figure 1. **Teacher Talk in Second Language Classrooms** (excerpt from Chaudron, 1988, p.55)

These characteristics listed in Table 2 well represent the ways in which both L1 and L2 English teachers speak to less proficient speakers, and provide JTEs with elements and concepts that can both make their speech more comprehensible to JLEs and help the latter improve their own speech comprehensibility.

Long and Sato (1983, p.284) argue that "NS-NSS conversation during SL instruction is a greatly distorted version of its equivalent in the real world." On the other hand, Ellis (1986) claims that in teacher talk ungrammatical speech modifications do not generally occur although extreme simplifications involving deviant utterances can occur in certain types of classroom interaction. Likewise, Chaudron (1988, p.55) maintains that,

> if teachers' efforts to modify their classroom speech have any effect on L2 learners, it is more likely that the effects contribute to comprehension and learning than that they mark the classroom events as unusual or stigmatized

This suggests pedagogical benefits for students willing to learn how to modify their speeches. Furthermore, there are other syntactic and discourse features that have been overlooked or unexplored in studies on speech comprehensibility.

3. How to Increase Speech Comprehensibility with the 10 CEG Features

3-1. The 10 Selected CEG Features

The ten lexicogrammatical and discourse features (shown in Table 3 below) that are assumed to increase speech comprehensibility have been selected from the Colloquial English Grammar Typology Framework (revised by Kobayashi, 2015, Table 4 below), which summarizes lexicogrammatical and discourse features peculiar to casual conversation and writing. Of the ten linguistic features, #3, #4, #7, #8 and #9 have already been identified, as listed in Table 2. As for the other five features, it is unknown at the moment if any of them have been identified by other researchers.

Table 3
The 10 CEG Features to Improve Comprehension

#1	CEG20	Attention-Getting Signals	#6	CEG28	Using More Clauses
#2	CEG22	Discourse Markers	#7	CEG29	Communication Strategies
#3	CEG23	Tags	#8	CEG44	Topicalization
#4	CEG25	Repetition	#9	CEG46	Left Dislocation
#5	CEG27	Redundancy	#10	CEG50	Hypotaxis (Parataxis)

Table 4
The Colloquial English Grammar Typology Framework (revised by Kobayashi, 2015)

The CEG Typology Framework					
--A Way to Give Shape to Colloquial English--					
Reduction ⊚→⊚ W C		Expansion ⊚→⊚ W C		Variation ⊚→☆ W C	
Ellipsis	Contraction	Attachment	Paraphrasing	Substitution	Rearrangement
1. Greeting	14. Abbreviations	19. Attaching the Personal Pronoun *you*	26. Repetition	30. Colloquialism	44. Topicalization
2. Fixed Expressions	15. Nicknames	20. Attention-Getting Signals	27. Redundancy	31. Frequent Use of *get*	45. Post Positioning
3. Ellipsis in Replies	16. Texting Abbreviations	21. Reaction Signals	28. Using More Clauses	32. Frequent Use of *give/get* Phrases	46. Left Dislocation
4. Ellipsis of Subject	17. Verbal Phrase Contraction	22. Discourse Markers	29. Communication Strategies	33. Vernacular Range of Expression	47. Right Dislocation
5. Ellipsis of Copula *be* in a Command	18. Coalescent Assimilation	23 . Tags		34. Vulgarism	48. Post-W/H-Word Interrogative
6. Ellipsis of *If*		24. -'ve got to		35. Progressive Form of a State Verb	49. Declarative Question
7. Ellipsis of Copula *be* in the Middle		25. Preference for Phrasal Verbs		36. Past Tense for Present/Past Perfect	50. Parataxis
8. Ellipsis of *that*				37. Preference for *was* in Subjunctive Mood	
9. Ellipsis of Infinitive				38. *who* for *whom*	
10. Ellipsis of *-ly*				39. Neutralizing a Personal Pronoun	
11. Ellipsis of Prepositions				40. *less* before a Countable Noun	
12. Ellipsis of *have / had*				41. *like* for *as*	
13. Ellipsis at the End				42. *more* before a Short Adjective	
				43. Double Negation	

3-2. Original and the Revised Speeches

The two tables below contrast unmodified (BEFORE) and modified (AFTER) speeches. These have been incorporated with all of the selected 10 CEG features at appropriate locations in each text. The first set of speeches (Table 5) – a teacher announcing the details of a coming examination – is typically heard in English classrooms. The second set of speeches (Table 6) shows a student describing her hometown, a task assigned to the university students who participated in the survey discussed earlier. Each of the incorporated features is explained in the following section.

Table 5
How a JTE's Speech Can Change

BEFORE	AFTER
φ #1: Attention-Getting Signals	Hello, everyone. I would like to tell you about the examination.
There will be an examination on Friday, July 28 on the 5th period in this class. #4: Repetition	The exam will be on Friday, July 28 on the 5th period in this class, okay? #3: Tags Friday, July 28 on the 5th period in this class.
You really need to study hard. There are many questions you have to answer in 60 minutes. #9: Left Dislocation	You really need to study hard because there are many questions you have to answer in 60 minutes. #10: Hypotaxis
Questions on the exam are based on the reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary exercises on all the units covered in this class. #2: Discourse Markers #8: Topicalization	Questions on the exam, they are based on the exercises on all units covered in this class. You see? All units. #5: Redundancy Unit 1, Unit 2, Unit 3, Unit4 and Unit5. The exercises include reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. #6: Using More Clauses
Listen to the CD attached to the textbook many times to get a good score for the listening part.	For the listening part, listen to the CD attached to the textbook many times to get a good score.
Do shadowing at least 10 minutes every day.	Do shadowing at least 10 minutes every day. Shadowing is to listen and repeat what you hear quickly. #7: Communication Strategies
φ	Good luck.

Table 6
How a JLE's Speech Can Change

BEFORE	AFTER
φ #1: Attention-Getting Signals	Hello, everyone. How are you today? I would like to talk about my hometown.
My home town is Otaru. #9: Left Dislocation I have lived in Otaru throughout my life. #4: Repetition #2: Discourse Markers #8: Topicalization	My home town is Otaru. #3: Tags You know Otaru, right? #5: Redundancy Otaru, do you know where it is? Do you know what the city is like? Do you know the history of Otaru? I was born and brought up in Otaru. I attended an elementary school, a junior high school, and a senior high school in Otaru. Moreover, I attend Otaru University of Commerce now.
Otaru was the business center of Hokkaido and many job seekers rushed to Otaru. There were many jobs available there before World War II.	Before World War II, Otaru was the business center of Hokkaido and many people came to Otaru to get jobs because there were many job opportunities in Otaru. #10: Hypotaxis
Now the city is one of the most popular tourist attractions in Hokkaido with a famous canal and nice shops and restaurants. #6: Using More Clauses #3: Tags	Now the city is one of the most popular places for tourists in Hokkaido, and there are has a famous canal, nice shops and restaurants, and things like that. A canal is a water way to carry goods from one place to another.
φ #7: Communication Strategies	I hope you will visit Otaru sometime. Thank you for listening.

3-3. Details on Each Added CEG Features

1. Attention-Getting Signals (CEG20)

Attention-Getting Signals collectively refer to any types of words or phrases that are commonly used to direct the listener's attention to the speaker in daily conversation and speeches. These include *Look. / Listen. / Hi. / Excuse me. / Ladies and gentlemen. / Everyone.*

In both sets of speeches in Tables 5 and 6, a considerable portion of the greeting segment "Hello, everyone. (How are you?)" plus the pattern "I would like to talk about ___ ." is added at the outset. This whole chunk constitutes a formulaic utterance to get attention.

2. Discourse Markers (CEG22)

Discourse Markers (DMs) have been defined somehow differently by a number of linguists. In general, however, they help messages to flow logically and sound well-organized. In speaking, they enhance speech comprehension on the part of listeners who struggle to keep listening and follow.

In the modified speech in the first set (Table 5: AFTER), "You see?" functions as a confirmation marker to check the listener's comprehension. However, it also involves recognition of students' facial, bodily and verbal reactions. In the modified speech in the second set (Table 6: AFTER), "Moreover" implies something which immediately follows and helps maintain the listener's attention.

3. Tags (CEG23)

A tag refers to an element to be attached to the end of one's utterance to provide certain additional semantic effects, such as confirmation, implication, emphasis, etc. It is used frequently by teachers to check their students' comprehension.

In the first set (Table 5), "okay" is added to confirm students' understanding and make them realize the importance of the event. In the second set (Table 6), the tag "and things like that" is added to emphasize the abundance of commercial activities available in the city.

4. Repetition (CEG25)

Repetition is one of the most common means of enhancing comprehensibility. In formal writings, such as academic papers, repetition is often regarded as semantically redundant. In speaking, however, where the listener rarely has the opportunity to hear missing information again, repetition plays an extremely important role for comprehensibility.

In the modified speech in the first set (Table 5: AFTER), the most important information for students-the time and the day of the exam-is repeated. In the modified speech in the second set (Table 6: AFTER), the pattern "Do you know ___?" is repeated to encourage the audience to learn more about the city of Otaru.

5. Redundancy (CEG27)

Redundancy does not take any particular forms or specific structural forms; rather, it is concerned with the state or nature of certain peripheral messages relevant to the core message included in a text that can work positively to enhance comprehension. In a broader sense of the term, redundancy can encompass repetition. Chaudron (1983, p.437) stresses that redundant repetition is especially important for less proficient speakers since they "tend to have poorer recall ability on the syntactically more complex structures."

In the first set (Table 5), "all units" are detailed into "Unit 1, Unit 2, Unit 3, Unit 4" to iterate what will be on the exam. In the modified speech in the second ser (Table 6: AFTER), the added details on his academic record underlines the speaker's close ties to the city.

6. Using More Clauses (CEG28)

Since oral messages often limit the quantity of information that can be processed at one time, the speaker must take care not to say too much at one time; instead, information should be transmitted in an extended string of an utterance. Using more clauses provides a lexically less dense message and allows for more decoding time.

In contrast, the content of a written message tends to be more lexically dense and has a greater range of nominal construction, such as nominalization. (Halliday, 1994). In sentence (a) below, the *man* is pre-modified apparently by an excessive number of lexical items. Yet, the whole sentence looks well-organized and neat. To increase comprehensibility, the lengthy modifier can be redistributed into multiple clauses as in sentence (b):

(a) I saw a <u>tall skinny scary-looking young</u> man this morning.
(b) I saw a <u>tall</u>, <u>young</u> man this morning. He was <u>skinny</u> and looked <u>scary</u>.

Sentence (b) is easier to understand because it contains two clauses with two adjectives each. As such, it is more appropriate to an oral message, since it allows listeners more time to process and comprehend the whole message.

In the first set (Table 5), the details included in the pre-modification position are moved to the position of predicate. In the second set (Table 6), the post-modifying prepositional phrase "with a famous canal, …" is rewritten into a single clause.

7. Communication Strategies (CEG29)

Communication Strategies (CSs) typically represent learners' consolidated efforts to convey their meaning when, for example, failing to use appropriate lexical referents. This is usually achieved through synonyms, the creation of a new word, paraphrasing, word definition, or even non-verbal communication. For example, a speaker may express *aquarium* as *fish zoo* or paraphrase it as "the place where you go to view fish, different types of tropical fish" (Kobayashi, 1994, p.134).

In addition, CSs can also increase speech comprehensibility when jargon, technical terms, or low-frequency words are used. In the first set (Table 5), "shadowing" is described to ensure comprehension. In the second set (Table 6), "canal" is defined as "a water way where you carry goods from one place to another" also to ensure comprehension.

8. Topicalization (otherwise known as Fronting) (CEG44)

Topicalization occurs mainly in speaking, to raise the salience of a particular lexical item by setting it at the initial position of an utterance since this position is fairly noticeable to the listener. It can also allow for greater emphasis on a particular element, to express contrast, and to organize the flow of information to achieve cohesion (Biber et al, 1999).

In both sets of speeches (Tables 5 and 6), "for the listening part" and "Before World War II" are moved to the front to gain emphasis (important information) and to express contrast (comparing to the present), respectively. It should be noted, however, that JLEs tend to say an adverb of time first as in *Yesterday I went to Otaru to eat sushi.*, which clearly demonstrates the L1 transfer and could potentially puzzle L1 English speakers, who would normally place the adverb at the end of the sentence.

9. Left Dislocation (otherwise known as Header / Noun Header) (CEG46)

Left Dislocation (LD) is another approach to the increased salience of one particular element or topic of interest in a sentence by advancing it to the head of the sentence. Topicalization simply moves a constituent to the head, whereas LD maintains the structure with the advanced constituent replaced by a pronoun at the original position in the sentence.

In the first set (Table 5), "Questions on the exam" is moved to the beginning to the sentence because it is the most important information for the students as the head position is more noticeable by students. In the second set (Table 6), "Otaru" is moved to focus the listeners' attention on the city.

10. Hypotaxis (CEG50)

A speaker often uses loosely connected clauses without using a word such as *because* to connect a main and a subordinate clause as in the following first sentence. In contrast, the second sentence represents a firmly bound logical sequence of cause and effect.

1) Parataxis: I was scared. I ran away. / I ran away. I was scared.
2) Hypotaxis: I ran away because I was scared. / Because I was scared, I ran away.

To enhance speech comprehensibility, the second connection of the two events by using a connector "because" or hypotaxis is more desirable than the first loosely combined sequence or parataxis. Thus, in both set of speeches (Tables 5 and 6), "because" is added to clarify the logical sequences of the discourse and illustrate what happened and the outcomes.

4. Teaching the Speech Modification Technique
4-1. For Successful Teacher Talk

To improve their use of English in the classroom, JTEs could first analyze their own speech by recording it, transcribing it, and analyzing it in light of the 10 selected CEG features introduced in this paper. This would also help their students learn how to improve their own speech. Moreover, JTEs can create a variety of their own speech scripts in advance on topics that are referred to commonly and daily in class such as the weather, school events, how to study English, etc. by incorporating any of the 10 selected CEG features

Although it is not the primary interest of this paper to discuss the teaching benefits or the effects of using a target language partially or exclusively as the language of instruction, TETE is in the repertoire of naturally required professional expertise by the JTEs. Even so, it is essential for them to reflect on the values of TETE to their context, and envisage the possibility to combine the L1 and L2. Some of them may conclude that English-only is suited to their context, while others may wish to conduct their classes 1) mainly in English with Japanese when necessary, 2) mainly in Japanese with English when necessary, or 3) half in English and half in Japanese. In the previous survey (Table 1), the majority of university students prefer option 2.

Brulhart (1986, p.42) suggests that "some teachers may have the intuitive ability to fine tune their lesson activities to promote discourse patterns to suit the language learners' needs. Others of us may need to be taught how to do that optimally." Thus, JTEs need to learn how to modify not only their rate of speech or pronunciation but also incorporate lexicogrammatical and discourse features conducive to better comprehension. In addition, they need to provide visual cues – e.g. body language, photos, movies, and TV series to make message content more meaningful. More importantly, as Long (1983) suggests on the basis of empirical studies of NS-NNS interactions, interactional measures such as *comprehension confirmation and checks* enhance the listener's comprehensibility more than modified speech. Therefore, tags (3: CEG2) are more appropriate means of ensuring comprehension.

Needless to say, JTEs need to make constant efforts to improve their own English proficiency and teaching skills, as their current English proficiency level greatly affects their range of language teaching techniques. Just as individual differences in language aptitude can be responsible for the outcome of naturalistic and classroom SLA, teaching skills, including speech modification, are crucial. Therefore, TETE will never be fully adopted by JTEs unless speech modification skills are valued and highlighted in teacher training courses for future teachers at colleges and universities and teacher retraining programs including the license renewal courses for current teachers.

4-2. For Successful Teaching of Comprehensible Speeches

In six English classes delivered at two national universities in Hokkaido in the spring of 2015, students were assigned to make a one-minute speech about their hometown, with reference to the 10 CEG features. Table 7 below shows a fill-in-the-blanks handout to be filled by students. It elicits information about students' hometowns, and students were allowed to add or delete any words or phrases. They were instructed to memorize the whole script to make a one-minute speech in front of the other students on the following day of instruction.

Table 7
Prefabricated Script for a Comprehensible Speech

Hello, everyone. How are you today? My name is _____ . I would like to talk about my hometown. My home town is _____ . You know _____ , right? _____ , do you know where it is? Do you know what the _____ is like? Do you know the history of _____ ? I was born and brought up in _____ . I attended an elementary school, a junior high school, a senior high school in _____ . Moreover, I attend [attended] _____ .   is one of the most popular places for tourists in Hokkaido, which has _____ , and things like that. I hope you will visit _____in ____ because we have _____ . Thank you for listening.

It would be possible to develop more prefabricated speech script formats on different topics that are relevant to students' daily life and needs. Such could be useful when they join a party or simply have a casual chat on various topics such as giving their self-introduction, or at club activities, when they talk about their dreams, hobbies and pastimes, favorite food and drinks, likes and dislikes, pros and cons, reasons for or against, and when making proposals, etc. Moreover, subsequent oral feedback: comments on each other's speech on the content, delivery, expressions, pronunciation, etc. and their responses can involve more interaction in class and further develop into discussion and debate.

Furthermore, it is also important for teachers to demonstrate how people modify and adjust their speeches to their listeners by showing students movies and TV series, or videos of speeches, lectures and workshops that are readily available in abundance on websites today. The principal aim in this type of activity is for students to notice various linguistic and non-linguistic features observed in these media resources.

5. Conclusion

To help less proficient speakers, the incorporation of the 10 selected CEG features, as discussed in this paper, is an effective way to aid comprehension. Yet, this assumption, which is based on my personal professional observations of my own students but not fully validated with extensive experimentation, needs to be tested empirically by comparing the comprehension rates of unmodified and modified English speeches involving EFL learners or possibly L1 English speakers as well.

Note

1. This paper is based on my presentation at the 21th ATEM National Convention at Kyoto Women's University on Saturday, August 7, 2015.

References

Biber, D., S. Johansson, G. Leech, S. Conrad & E. Finegan. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Hawlow, England: Longman.

Brulhard, M. (1986). Foreigner talk in the ESL classroom: interactional adjustments to adult students at two language proficiency levels. *TESOL Canada Journal, 1*, 29-42.

Chaudron, C. H. (1983). Simplification of input: topic reinstatement and their effects on L2 learners' recognition and recall. *TESOL Quarterly, 17*, 3, 437-458.

Chaudron, C. H. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1986). *Understanding SLA*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ferguson, C. (1971). Absence of copula and the notion of simplicity: a study of normal speech, baby talk, foreigner talk and pidgins." In Dell Hymes (Eds.), *Pidginization and Creolization of Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 141–150.

Halliday, M. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar: 2nd Edition*. London: Arnold.

Hatch, E. (1978). *Discourse Analysis and Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Kobayashi, T. (1994). Learner variations in communication strategies. *Hokkai Gakuen University, Studies in Culture, 3*, 109-138.

Kobayashi, T. (2013). Testing the authenticity of colloquial expressions in new junior and senior high school English textbooks approved by MEXT and the five urgency proposals. *Otaru University of Commerce, The Review of Liberal Arts, 126,* 155-200.

Kobayashi, T. (2014). The benefits of the CEG typology framework for learners, teachers, researchers, and textbook writers. *ATEM Journal, 19,* 3-15.

Kobayashi, T. (2015). *Introduction to CEG: Revised Edition*. Nagoya: Screenplay.

Krashen, S. (1981). *SLA and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Long, M. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in second language classroom. In M. Clarke & J. Handscombe (Eds.), *On TESOL '82 Pacific Perspectives on Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Long, M, & C. Sato. (1983). Classroom foreigner talk discourse. In H. Selinger & M. Long (Eds.), *Classroom Oriented Research in SLA*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

MEXT. (2014). Eigokyoiku kaizen no tame no eigo ryoku chosa jigyo hokoku. Retrieved July 28, 2015, from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/1358258.htm

Richards, J. & R. Schmidt. (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics: The Third Edition*. London: Longman.

Tsujioka, N. & M. Tsukamoto. (2013). Teaching English through English to senior high school students in Japan. *The Bulletin of Shitennoji University, 55,* 308-324.