HOKKAIDO UNIVERSITY

Title	Pragmatic Teaching and Japanese EFL Learners' Use of Greeting Routines
Author(s)	ZEFF, BERT BRICKLIN
Degree Grantor	北海道大学
Degree Name	博士(国際広報メディア)
Dissertation Number	甲第13188号
Issue Date	2018-03-22
DOI	https://doi.org/10.14943/doctoral.k13188
Doc URL	https://hdl.handle.net/2115/70652
Type	doctoral thesis
File Information	Bert_Bricklin_Ze.pdf

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Pragmatic Teaching and Japanese EFL Learners' Use of Greeting Routines

（語用論的指導と日本人EFL学習者の挨拶ルーティンの使用）

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Communication, and Tourism Studies
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND/OR SYMBOLS

Acceptability Judgement Test ..... AJT
American Native Speaker..... A-NS
Analysis of Moment Structures ..... AMOS
Analysis of Variance Between Groups ..... ANOVA
Communicative Language Teaching ..... CLT
Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project..... CCSARP
Discourse Completion Test ..... DCT
English as a Second language..... ESL
English as a Foreign Language..... EFL
First-language L1
Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology..... MEXT
Japanese Non-native Speaker ..... JNNS
Listening Test ..... LT
Non-native Speaker..... NNS
Native Speaker..... NS
Role play Test..... RT
Second-language L2

ABSTRACT

College-level English as a foreign language (EFL) students in Japan typically have six years of English language instruction in the form of rote memorization, grammar practice, and exposure to limited patterns of expression (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). This language instruction often depends on textbooks to introduce vocabulary, grammatical forms, and communication strategies. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been investigated as a way to enhance the EFL classroom approach to address aspects of theories of second language acquisition, such as the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981), Learner Strategies (Tarone & Yule, 1989), and the role of formal instruction (Ellis, 1995). CLT was developed as a way to address certain aspects of communicative competence that have plagued EFL classrooms. These problems are seen in EFL classrooms in Japan as the inability to communicate competently in English. Recent trends in language instruction in Japan have been to use CLT to enhance the classroom experience in High School. Indeed, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has identified language-use situations and functions that are necessary for good communication abilities (MEXT, 2011). Unfortunately, studies looking at CLT show no evidence of improvements (Humphries, Burns, & Tanaka, 2015).

This dissertation reports the findings of a study on the effectiveness of pragmatic instruction in helping Japanese students competently greet and respond to greetings in American English. Methods in the instruction and assessment of language functions and language-use situations are also investigated in this research. It is hypothesized in this dissertation that proper instructions in pragmatic rules supported by comprehensive assessment that frame CLT methodology will greatly enhance the learning experience and produce the improvements sought after in the EFL classroom.

In the main study, a pilot study, and various quasi-experiments, students were placed in situations where the greeting speech act should occur; their participation was recorded in an applied production oral performance. All the students in the main study were given a computer-based pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest that included a variety of questions designed to evaluate general greeting practices as well as the use of various expressions and their appropriateness in different contexts. The students were also asked to demonstrate some awareness of the differences and importance of practicing greetings in questionnaire responses that followed the study. The treatment groups were given either implicit pragmatic instruction in the form of structured input based and awareness-raising tasks or explicit pragmatic instruction along with structured input based and awareness-raising tasks (Ellis, 2003).

The data collected served to better understand the role that pragmatic instruction and assessment can play in the EFL classroom in Japan. To this end, phenomena were identified that can affect the use of certain greeting practices and within assessment procedures, one of which is a micro-greeting (Zeff, 2017). A real-life scenario assessment strategy, in the form of an applied production test, was developed to help understand communicative competence in American greetings, and tasks for teaching the greeting speech act were advanced.

A communicatively competent person should be able to greet someone in an appropriate manner in the target language. Without this skill, it is difficult to appear competent. The dissertation includes data findings and an analytical discussion that

explore this idea of language acquisition and how pragmatic instruction and speech act theory fits into core L2 education goals (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

College-level English as a foreign language (EFL) students in Japan typically have six years of English language instruction in the form of rote memorization, grammar practice, and exposure to limited patterns of expression (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). This language instruction often depends on textbooks to introduce vocabulary, grammatical forms, and communication strategies for students to learn and practice without any need to use this language outside the classroom. A textbook-based strategy devoid of the cultural dimensions of language use and understanding is not always efficient and effective in developing the communicative competence of students.

One aspect of communicative competence refers to pragmatic awareness as demonstrated by non-native speakers of a language (Bachman, 1990). Types of pragmatic awareness include appropriateness in communication, such as saying the right thing in a given context, and politeness, meaning saying it in the right way (Schachter, 1990). Another important aspect of pragmatic awareness is knowing how to appropriately use what Searle (1969) termed *speech acts*. The terms *politeness* and *appropriateness* are often heard when describing communicative competence in EFL/ESL instruction such that a communicatively competent person can be both polite and appropriate (Bachman, 1990; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Tang & Zhang, 2009). However, sometimes for the ESL/EFL student, what is appropriate is not always clear, and what one might think is a polite action may be considered rude. There exist degrees of appropriateness and levels of politeness that native speakers (NSs) have learned throughout their entire experience of living

within the culture of a given society (Watts, 2003). They learn the nature of the activity by participating in it.

By understanding the nature of the activity, the student gains an awareness of the rules and conditions to better understand and possibly demonstrate more competence in communicating in the language. Levinson (1979) pointed to Wittgenstein (1958) to suggest that the understanding of language is closely tied to "knowing the nature of the activity in which the utterances play a role" (Levinson, 1979, p. 365).

Wittgenstein (1958) tried to answer the question, *what is language?* He used a philosophical metaphor when he proposed, "Let us imagine a language … The language is meant to serve for communication between a builder A and an assistant B. A is building with building-stones; there are blocks, pillars, slabs and beams" (p. 3). This aphorism is Wittgenstein's introduction to language games; although the term appears later in his work, this aphorism has been described as his first attempt at describing the form of a language-game (Levinson, 1979).

In my research, I began with Wittgenstein's (1958) "language-game" idea—that the meaning of words is related to their use. This is the same thinking behind Searle's (1969) development of the speech act as a way to categorize the functions of language. By categorizing language functions into their use and attaching vocabulary and grammar that is necessary to communicate that meaning, it became obvious to me that the best way to help students to process the vocabulary and grammar that they were learning with a less contextual framework was to use the functions developed by Searle to provide that framework.

Pragmatic instruction involves introducing awareness raising tasks into the

learning process and bringing students' attention to how the speech act is used in context (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Teachers in Japan are required to teach with set curriculum goals, and pragmatic instruction takes classroom time. In addition, there are administrators who have not recognized its value. Other studies have demonstrated that pragmatic aspects of language play a minor role in curriculum development and overall attention in the language classroom in Japan (Ishihara, 2010; Kakiuchi, 2005), but the call for its use and its demonstrated impact are well established (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Lyster, 1994; Matsumura, 2003).

According to Zeff (2016):

> Instruction in the production of language functions is crucial for EFL students to develop a command of speech acts that can be used fruitfully outside the classroom. Recent trends in language instruction in Japan have promoted communicative language teaching (CLT) to enhance the classroom experience albeit with mixed results and few concrete improvements. (p. 129)

The strengths and weaknesses in producing various language functions varies from culture to culture and have been examined in various studies (Olshtain & Cohen, 1989), including Omar (1991) in learners' greetings in Kiswahili, Egyptian and American use of compliments (Nelson, El Bakary, & Al Batal, 1996), and apologies of Greek and English speakers (Bella, 2014).

One way that the researcher can observe how different intents in language vary from culture-to-culture and how this difference can be defined is to isolate a portion of the language that appears to cause confusion and to create problems for the language student. From observations over years of teaching, I have found a number of problems with students performing speech acts and conducted quasi-

experimental studies to observe these phenomena.

One quasi-experiment that I conducted concerned apologies. An apology serves the same purpose in Japanese as it does in American English, but the strategies to perform it effectively are different. Research into Japanese use of apologies (Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross, 1996) has found that the problem resides in L1 vs L2 politeness rules (Barraja-Rohan, 2000). The fact that I am a teacher prompts students to use their L1 politeness rules: *Do not speak unless spoken to and do not be disagreeable*. They are unaware that there may be differences in apology practices from culture to culture.

I asked new freshman students to come to my office to take a speaking test, which consisted of a short dialogue based on topics from the textbook. The students were told that the test would be to give the dialogue in pairs, but they were also told to use English from the moment they came into my office. Before each pair of students arrived, I set up a big stack of books and a few cassette tapes behind the door such that when the door was opened the books would fall. I was hoping to create a scenario that would elicit apologies from them. When they opened the door, the stack of books fell on cue with a big crash.

Only one out of 18 of the students initiated an apology that fit with L2 standards. Moreover, only about three out of the 18 were able to make an apology at all, and this was after seven years of study. I wondered whether this lack of ability resulted from not knowing how to construct a basic apology or because they had been given no real-life opportunity to practice.

Western cultures have certain strategies that may vary from the Japanese culture. The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSRP) has researched

apologies and requests. It identified a number of strategies involved in delivering an apology (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989). My students exhibited various responses to the set up, but out of the 20 pairs of students who entered my room, only one student was able to perform an apology that followed those identified in the CCSARP. This exercise was a valuable lesson to me in that I could see the gap in my students' education concerning apologies, but soon afterwards word got out, and my students became aware of my falling books strategy. Upon entering my office, they began to open the door with caution.

I began to consider how one could observe speech acts in conversation. One speech act I found particularly difficult for my students at a Japanese University was greetings. This difficulty led me to incorporate pragmatic lessons on the speech act of greetings into my classes.

In September of 2013, I took a group of Japanese college students, some of whom I had taught about greetings, to Canada for a three-week homestay program. On the first day, the students met with their homestay families. At this initial meeting, I could see that the homestay would be a new experience for all the students just by the way they responded to the greetings by the host families. Among the Canadian host families, there were huggers, kissers, and hand shakers. Many of the students seemed uncomfortable with hugging let alone kissing on first introduction (Zeff, 2016). Here was a perfect example of how acceptable greeting practices in one culture are a bit uncomfortable for another culture. When the three weeks ended, the Japanese students had adjusted and developed a comfort with the physicality of their homestay families. Upon saying good-bye, the Japanese students participated in the hugging, kissing, and hand shaking. This type of implicit learning and adaptation is

the kind of thing one hopes occurs in a homestay experience. Did any of the students benefit from my instruction prior to the homestay? As Kasper (1997) asked, “Can pragmatic competence be taught?” (p. 1).

I was influenced by the work of other researchers in the field. Lyster's (1994) work teaching sociolinguistic competence in a French immersion program in Canada where he focused on communicative language teaching to bring students attention to *vous* versus *tu* use. Ishihara's (2003) research on teaching compliments to Japanese students, as well as Takimoto’s (2009a) study of the “requesting” speech act documenting the positive effect of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese classroom. This study was developed to examine greetings, which are naturally occurring, contextually connected communications.

1.2. Aim of the Current Study

The purpose of the main study was to observe how Japanese nonnative speakers (JNNS) of English cooperate in the negotiation and structure of relatively natural verbal encounters in the target language. Specifically, it looked at how these students used common words and expressions associated with first time encounters, and it observed whether their use was somehow enhanced as a result of both implicit and explicit pragmatic instruction. The results helped better understanding the effect this instruction had on the communicative competence in greetings of these Japanese students providing information as to the effectiveness of the instructional methods and where improvement might be necessary.

[1]Pragmatic instruction is important for any speech act (e.g., greetings, requests, apologies, or compliments) because students can gain awareness of the speech act's function and learn how to make appropriate choices to successfully participate in it (Zeff, 2016). When students first learn to use a language function in the classroom, teachers need effective ways to assess their ability. Some typical methods for determining the effectiveness of pragmatic instruction as a teaching strategy include computer-based discrete point tests, discourse completion tests (DCTs), and role-plays in which students are asked to prepare answers for a given situation using specific expressions and phrases. Teachers well acquainted with the use of prosody, politeness, and appropriateness in a given speech act can observe students using them in lifelike contexts in the classroom. When students apologize for tardiness, request more time to complete a task, or simply greet in the hallway, teachers are able to assess their abilities.[2] For teachers in an ESL environment, the students are also able to observe and practice these functions in situations they may find themselves in on a daily basis.

Without instruction in the production of language functions, there is no way for EFL students to build the understanding that students in an ESL context gain through everyday communication outside the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998). Contexts, however, must be seen as dynamic. Mey (2001) stated that: "They

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[1] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 129)

[2] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

are an environment that is in steady development, prompted by the continuous interactions of the people engaged in the language use, the users of the language" (p. 10).

This research study examined greetings, which are functionally different in use in Japanese and American English. In Japan, greeting practices are complex primarily because there are culturally required honorifics connected to appropriate means of address, and Japanese greetings are fundamentally grounded and determined by a hierarchical system of status (Burdelski, 2013; Okamoto, 1997). In American English, there are few, if any, culturally required honorifics surrounding greetings (Ebsworth, Bodman, & Carpenter, 1996; Goffman, 1971; Kakiuchi, 2005), making the greeting speech act somewhat tricky for Japanese users of English. The primary rule is that an initiated greeting requires a response. The complexity of its socio-pragmatic function and yet commonplace nature in everyday communication made the greetings speech act ideal for developing and testing a real-life setting assessment process.

1.3. Scope of the Current Study

The scope of this study was twofold. Its first goal was to see whether communicative language teaching techniques in the form of both implicit and explicit pragmatic instruction could improve communicative competence as demonstrated in increased scores on computer-based testing. This has been the most common tool for analyzing ability. However, according to Bardovi-Harlig (2001), it is possible that computer-based testing does not accurately show communicative competence; therefore, as part of this dissertation study, a real-life scenario in the form of an applied production test was also developed as a further attempt to increase

authenticity in testing. The second goal of the study was to develop effective methods for teaching American greetings as speech acts. I developed a method based on four tasks for teaching the speech act of greetings, which could be used to teach other speech acts as well.

Authentic testing is an important trend in CLT. Whereas discrete test scoring and DCTs have been shown to be a useful tool for determining understanding of students' communicative competence in the ability to identify patterns and vocabulary taught, the use of those functions in authentic communication is still in doubt (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985). This study was an attempt to bring the teacher closer to being able to observe authentic communication for analysis. Where the data produced in the applied production test was not authentic, it was still one step closer than discrete point scoring normative testing techniques toward this goal.

Recognizing that testing situations are not the real world and that there are differing roles of sociolinguistic variables in real-life, some researchers (e.g., Kim, 2007) have sought to improve DCTs by making them more realistic with respect to the speech act. The study reported herein created and trialed computer-based tests in addition to an applied performance testing situation that approximated a real-life encounter by requiring students to speak appropriately within the context of genuine communication, thus enabling them to demonstrate their pragmatic proficiency.

In addition, the current research concerns three aspects of language education in Japan. The first aspect is that of understanding, as represented by the current focus of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) on language functions and Communicative Language Teaching (MEXT, 2011). MEXT has recognized a variety of speech acts as desirable to be mastered by Japanese

students in language classes. Greetings are one of the speech acts included, as are apologies and requests.

The second aspect is that of instruction. Very little information is available regarding methods for teaching greetings besides providing students with set routines and patterns. As described by Kakiuchi (2005), most textbooks in Japan introduce one or two patterns for greetings, and they provide no contextual information as to when, where, or with whom one should employ the patterns. A main goal of this study was to determine the methods that would provide students with an effective way for learning the rules for speech acts, in this case greetings, and giving teachers a series of lessons that would help them provide students with the opportunity to learn how to use the speech act appropriately and effectively no matter the context.

The third aspect is that of assessment. The challenge in designing more authentic assessments of speech act execution has been the difficulty of observing participants in naturally occurring settings. To develop a tool capable of assessing students' ability to engage in the speech act in natural settings, five key issues must be addressed. These five issues are described below.

First, computer-based tests have shown some ability to provide students a means to demonstrate understanding of a speech act (Ishihara, 2003; Takimoto, 2009a). Designing a reliable and valid computer-based test is essential for establishing benchmarks for further evaluation.

Second, one must design a measurable situation that enables the student to use a specific speech act in an original and responsive manner that does not merely repeat the vocabulary or expressions used in class. Searle (1969) explained that there are two parts to a speech act: "the speaker's intent and the hearer's understanding of

that intent" (p. 48). When it comes to language use, a student may have the intention to communicate in one way but not necessarily the ability to follow through. The measurement tool should allow the student to demonstrate both ability and intention.

The third issue is that the speech act should occur in the designated testing situation (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985) This challenge has eluded those studying apologies, compliments, and requests (Bella, 2014; Ishihara, 2003; Takimoto, 2009a). How can one ensure that within the testing situation a genuine apology or compliment will occur? Searle (1969) determined that sincerity rules need to be present in a request; for example, the speaker must need something from the hearer and the hearer should be capable of providing it.

Fourth, the testing scenario must produce certain pragmatic knowledge of the situation in the hearer. This means the speaker must demonstrate an understandable intention. As Searle (1969) explained: "When I say 'Hello,' I intend to produce in a hearer the knowledge that he is being greeted. If he recognizes it as my intention to produce in him that knowledge, then he thereby acquires that knowledge" (p. 43). To this end, such a measurement tool provides the student with the situation where the speech act would occur, the freedom to make choices of politeness levels, and the choice of the role to play in the exchange.

Finally, the measurement tool must evaluate the assessment criteria within the freestyle nature of natural conversation. Since choice is essential in polite and appropriate language use, the opportunity to make choices needs to be an intrinsic part of the test. Therefore, the test must represent an environment conducive to the speech act. For example, when testing appropriate American-English apology strategies, a teacher could give students an item to use and return. Those who did not

return the item would be questioned. Students who did not use appropriate apology strategies (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981) would fail the assessment.

Most studies dealing with pragmatics in the Japanese classroom consist of DCTs, Acceptability Judgment Tests (AJTs), Pattern Identifications, and/or role play performances (Hill, 1997; Houck & Gass 1996; Ishihara, 2003; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Takahashi & DuFon 1989; Takimoto, 2009a). This study presents a fifth evaluation section as a way to collect more natural data in the form of a test of applied productive oral performance, which is an oral communication attempt. Observing nonnative speakers' attempts at speech acts is a valuable tool for assessing ability (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

To achieve the goal of developing students' pragmatic awareness, the issue became one of activating the processes for Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Therefore, identifying effective instruction for teaching pragmatics in a classroom setting to activate the processes that are necessary for SLA to develop (Ellis, 1997) was one goal of this research.

This study was conducted to observe the roles of (1) explicit pragmatic instruction with awareness-raising tasks and form-focused instruction (Ellis, 1995) and (2) implicit pragmatic instruction with awareness-raising instruction and form-focused input instruction on the communicative competence in greetings of Japanese learners of English (Ellis, 2002). A unique assessment strategy in an Applied Productive Oral Performance was developed to better observe the roles these types of instruction played in raising students' awareness of the target speech act, as well as their competence level. This type of testing gave the instructor a chance to observe each student's attempt to perform the speech act in a real-life scenario, thereby

creating a more authentic testing method. This, in turn, allowed the instructor to see what was effective and what might need more attention to improve the processing of this input and thereby to improve communicative competence.

These issues are integral to determining effective strategies for instructing students in pragmatics. This study attempted to provide a framework for addressing such issues as an explicit pragmatics pedagogy and student assessment.

1.4. Online Survey of Native English-Speaking EFL Teachers in Japan

[3]Japanese students of English have a difficult time making a greeting that would appear to be appropriate or polite to the native speaker. An unpublished online survey by the author in 2016 of 75 native English-speaking EFL teachers throughout Japan (see Appendix A) showed that they perceived a problem with the English greeting practices of native Japanese speakers across a range of social contexts. When asked about how their students returned greetings in English, 32% (n = 24) of respondents reported receiving contextually unexpected return greetings and 14% (n = 11) found the greetings to be non-proficient or unnatural. Respondents' comments indicated the greeting speech act was mostly conducted with a basic pattern and without complex routines. They specifically mentioned the case of addressing a professor without a title (i.e., "Smith" instead of "Professor" or "Mr. Smith"), receiving a response of "Good morning" regardless of the time of day, and experiencing confused or shyly proffered greetings particularly in less common

[3] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 131)

contexts or in response to nonstandard greetings. By far the biggest indicator of problematic greeting practices occurred when respondents were approached by people unknown to them; fewer than 10% (n = 8) of responses were termed unproblematic while close to 40% (n = 30) were considered inappropriate. Such problems indicate a need for greetings instruction.[4]

1.5. Organization of the Current Study

There are eight chapters in this dissertation. This introduction has provided the reasoning for why this research is necessary and valuable to the current literature. Additionally, the results of an online survey of 75 English teachers in Japan were discussed. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on pragmatic instruction, speech act theory, and the function of greetings. To investigate the challenge of finding a method for assessing pragmatic ability, Chapter 3 presents a pilot study conducted to observe greeting routines, using basic word frequency techniques to analyze the interaction. The general research questions are introduced in Chapter 4. These questions were proposed based on research conducted in the field of pragmatic instruction in language classrooms. Chapter 5 describes the main study, outlining the procedures taken to produce this study, as well as the participants and instructional goals. Research findings are presented in Chapter 6, which includes the results of the computer-based test and the applied productive oral performance as well as a qualitative analysis of the data. Chapter 7 presents a comprehensive discussion of the research, including the effectiveness of the instruction and best practices for pedagogical implications. In Chapter 8, limitations and suggestions for future

[4] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

research into this field are presented. In addition, conclusions and lessons learned from the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter begins by reviewing research literature that supports the case for pragmatic instruction in the language classroom and demonstrates the value it has in EFL classrooms. It then defines and explains the history of the development of speech act theory from its origins in the philosophy of language and sociology (Goffman, 1971), as well as its place in applied linguistics research. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the functions of greeting in contemporary society and the value of the ability to perform appropriate and polite greetings may have on overall communicative language ability.

2.1. In the Language Classroom

2.1.1. Need for Pragmatic Instruction

Acknowledging the need for pragmatic instruction in the language classroom is not new (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Tajeddin, 2008). Yet, explicit pragmatic instruction has traditionally played a very small role in language classrooms throughout Japan (Zeff, 2011) where language instruction generally follows the pedagogical model of grammar explanations, rote memorization, and the translation of passages (Ishihara, 2011a). As a result, what often happens in Japan is that students with high discrete point test scores may fail to develop basic communication skills. This paradox exemplifies what Bardovi-Harlig (2001) meant when she expressed that "a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess concomitant pragmatic competence" (p. 14).

Much research has been done on the pragmatics of the speech act of apologies. This speech act in particular can be seen as a source of pragmatic failure in Japan. According to Cohen (2008), "Research on apologies has found that there

are a series of strategies that are specific to the performance of apologies in many different languages in a variety of speech communities" (p. 120). Apologies could be considered a major linguistic devise for politeness. Most language programs teach language for communication in its polite form. It is expected that students learn proper conduct while using the L2. Olshtain and Cohen (1989) stated that "the strategies used to perform apologies are largely universal" (p. 171). Looking at aspects of universals in linguistic politeness, apologies in Japanese play a very important role in communication but serve a very different role in Western cultures. Ellis (1994a) described apologies as "face-threatening acts which are part of the elements necessary in politeness theory" (p. 174). Ide (1989) commented that "politeness in Japanese often falls outside of the framework or play a minor part" (p. 224) in the politeness principles described by Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987). Nonaka (2000) suggested that for the Japanese to use the expression, "I'm sorry," they do it to show consideration towards their interlocutor's feelings. They do this even if the speaker is not at fault. Americans tend to only apologize if they consider themselves in the wrong. Kumagai (1993) has made similar distinctions, describing Japanese apologies as "penitent" and American as "rational." Other speech acts that have been investigated in their effect on Japanese communication skills are requests (Kasper, 2000), compliments (Ishihara, 2003) and requests (Takimoto, 2009a).

2.1.2. Explicit vs. Implicit Pragmatic Instruction

One study showing the value of explicit pragmatic instruction in the Japanese language classroom was conducted by Takimoto (2009a). By focusing on one part of the speech act of requesting, Takimoto charted the development of learners'

pragmatic proficiency. His study used structured input in the form of explicit pragmatic instruction and awareness-raising tasks to learn bi-clausal expressions as politeness markers in request forms. A bi-clausal expression is an extra polite expression used to make a request that the speaker may consider particularly face threatening by its imposition on the hearer or because of the relationship the speaker has with the speaker in regard to power or distance from the hearer's in regard to intimacy.

The purpose of Takimoto's instruction was to get his students to understand the role of politeness markers better when making requests that may be considered a high rate of imposition on the hearer. Such situations include asking a neighbor, with whom one has not had much interaction, to water the plants while on vacation, or asking a neighbor for a ride to school (Zeff, 2016).

Takimoto (2009a) used a pre-, post-, and follow-up test in his study. The pretest was administered two to three days prior to the instructional treatment. Eight to nine days after the instruction, a posttest was administered. Four weeks after the study was completed, a follow-up test was given. For all testing periods, an acceptability judgement test (AJT) and a listening test (LT) were given, as well as a DCT and a role play test (RT). He found in his results a positive effect from the explicit pragmatic instruction and concluded that there was an effect on the development of pragmatic awareness regarding requests. Takimoto's work was an attempt in Japan to answer the call by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998), who stated that "increased pragmatic awareness should be one goal of classroom instruction" (p. 255).

Takimoto's (2009a) study was not the first to document the positive effect of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese classroom. Ishihara (2003) examined EFL

students' ability to give and respond to compliments after explicit pragmatic instruction. Ishihara (2011b) said, when discussing this study, that "instruction probably facilitated learner's improvement not only in terms of performance but also awareness of giving and responding to compliments" (p. 75). Even though pragmatic language instruction plays a minor role in Japan (Ishihara, 2010; Kakiuchi, 2005), the call for its use and its demonstrated impact are well established (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Lyster, 1994; Matsumura, 2003). These impacts can affect students' awareness of and abilities in communicative competence.

2.1.3. Communicative Language Ability

When linguists talk about how learners develop communicative language ability, they usually look at two different but related things. The first are interactional acts. These refer to acts that give structure to discourse by ensuring one utterance leads to another (Ellis, 2001). This involves turn taking, knowing when one's turn is over and the next turn begins in a conversation, openings and closing, and temporal and spatial considerations (Have, 2007). Are there rules for doing these things? How do people manage conversations? How do people negotiate meaning? What do people do if they do not understand something someone said? How do people repair a conversation that breaks down? All of these questions are part of understanding how discourse is structured (Schegloff, 1991). These questions are also pertinent to classroom instruction of pragmatics.

2.1.4. Pragmatics in the EFL Classroom

Through casual observation of a group of students in a class, teachers can pick out certain communicative abilities or lack thereof. Ellis (2002) and Kirsner (1994) have pointed out the difficulty of observing implicit knowledge: how do

teachers know what their students know or do not know? To confound this problem even more, there is the Observer's Paradox that says the only way to collect real data for research is for the researcher to be invisible from the subjects being observed for research (Labov, 1972). It seems possible that there is a way to reconfigure the research design to allow for stealth observations of implicit knowledge (Schmidt, 1994). In so doing, teachers would be able to research and determine the effectiveness of teaching these pragmatic rules for the EFL student with no other way to experience these acts other than in the language class.

2.1.5. Assessing Communicative Language Ability

Language instruction often depends on textbooks to introduce forms and language for students to learn and practice (Ishihara, 2011a). Unfortunately, it is impossible for textbooks to address all the variations possible for a given speech act. Yet, it is vitally important to introduce students to the fact that such variations exist (Kakiuchi, 2005).

[5]Although evaluating an understanding of language functions can be challenging for any teacher, assessment is an important part of teaching the greeting speech act. Because the purpose of pragmatic instruction is to prepare students for the variability of discourse, one can pair the assessment tool with the objective of the awareness-raising tasks. Understandably, no one type of assessment meets all needs.

For assessing performance, as is required when evaluating conversations in pairs or groups of three or more, oral or written feedback works well. The feedback

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can include comments on key phrases use as well as tonal quality and awareness of hesitations and non-verbal cues.

DCTs can aid in assessing L2 pragmatics. Some instructors see the "T" as representing "test" whereas others prefer the "T" to represent "task." This change of focus involves re-tasking the examples used into a testing environment with timed responses. I refer to a DCT as representing a "test" throughout this dissertation, and I use the phrase *discourse completion task* to signify a "task."

A scaled assessment also can be used to evaluate students' awareness of an answer's appropriateness in a written example of a greeting exchange. This is referred to as the acceptability judgement test (AJT). For instance, one might use a scale from "most appropriate" to "least appropriate" below a written greeting; the students are asked to rate the example on that scale and their responses are assessed (Ross & Kasper, 2013). Finally, a rubric is a helpful tool for both the students and teachers to break down the functions involved in greetings.[6]

2.2. Pragmatic Instruction

2.2.1. Development of Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic instruction plays an important role in the development of a student's identity as a speaker of another language (Mey, 2001). Most students of a second language accept that they will never be able to speak as well as a native speaker, but they have no desire to sound rude or inappropriate.

In the language classroom, teachers need to consider the development of pragmatic competence by addressing instruction in speech acts. These are acts that users attempt to perform specific actions, in particular interpersonal functions such as

[6] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

apologies, requests, compliments, and greetings (Searle, 1969). To complete a speech act, it is necessary to perform three types of acts: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary (Grice, 1975).

According to Grice (1975), the first is the locutionary act, which is the act of actually saying something. This act is the content of what one is saying. It answers the question of what one said given the words and tone used to get one's point across. Associated with the locutionary act are the non-verbal cues, such as gestures and facial expressions.

Grice explained that the second is the illocutionary act, which is the performance of a particular function by what is said. What is one trying to say? This can be, for example, a request, an apology, or a greeting. This the "intention" as described by Searle (1969).

The third is the perlocutionary act, according to Grice, which is the effect the utterance has on the addressee. Huang (2007) provided the context for the following example in which one might have the goal to make a polite request to a friend such as requesting a ride to town. If the friend agrees and provides the ride, then the request was successful. If the friend refuses because of some appointment but understands the request as a request, then the perlocutionary act still was successful but merely refused. If the friend does not understand the request to provide a ride and instead thinks the speaker is taking a taxi, then the perlocution is unsuccessful (Huang, 2007).

2.2.2. Pragmalinguistics and Sociolinguistics

Pragmalinguistics and sociolinguistics are components that can be isolated and addressed in the language classroom. Pragmalinguistics are the tools one uses to

convey communicative acts. Kasper (1997) identified such resources as "directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts" (p. 8). An example could be using a bi-clausal expression when making a request that may seem a large imposition: *Do you think it would be okay if you could maybe feed my dog while I am away?* versus *Can you feed my dog while I am away?*

Sociopragmatics, as described by Leech (1983), involves those "social perceptions and actions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action" (p. 10), which is to say, the accepted practices both verbal and non-verbal in a society. Some examples could be as follows: how one speaks with people of different ages and social groups, taking one's shoes off when entering a person's home, shaking hands when greeting a person, and understanding what could be considered an aggressive manner (Kasper, 1997).

According to Kasper (1997), communicative competence refers to pragmatic awareness as demonstrated by non-native speakers of a language. One can also say that communicative competence includes appropriateness in communication, saying the right thing in a given context, and politeness, saying it in the right way (Schachter, 1990).

2.2.3. Politeness

University students come to class with a fairly complete understanding of the politeness rules in their first language (L1). Many of these are culturally acceptable norms and are similar from country to country. How people talk to a family member uses one set of politeness rules, whereas how they talk to a person of authority, such as a police man, follows another set of rules (Zeff, 2010). This is the case where a

police officer is in a recognized position of power. In most cultures, a certain respectful tone would be expected to avoid causing offense. These rules are pertinent to a number of contexts in which to generate appropriate speech acts and by what Brown and Levinson (1987) described as the politeness theory. These contexts can include, as described by Leech (1983), "tact", "generosity", "approbation", and "modesty," with participants determining the appropriate context (p. 132).

Brown and Levinson (1987) described the participants as having certain values in regard to power, role, and degree of intimacy. Participants often come into the interaction both temporally and spatially, whether it is face to face or on the phone. The weight of the obligation to make choices can be overwhelming. However, in order to not impede the flow of communication, choices must be made that follow the temporal and spatial restrictions, which can be burdensome to the second language learner (Zeff, 2010).

Generally, American politeness rules follow a positive politeness model as compared to British politeness, which follows what is called negative politeness. Positive politeness is used to show commonalities (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Making compliments is a positive politeness strategy. Using nicknames or pet names is also a positive politeness strategy. For example, in a 2009 seminar for Temple University, Japan Campus, Dr. Rod Ellis (2009) mentioned that when British people are dealing with strangers, they follow a negative strategy of not wanting to impose. The Japanese do this in situations where they are interacting with people outside the group, *soto*. But they often change this strategy when interacting with people within the group, *uchi*. This aspect of Japanese politeness is explained in detail in section 2.3.5.

When considering Takimoto's work (2009b) on input-based instruction, one needs to distinguish between the formulaic routines that a student has developed in relation to what needs to be learned and how a student demonstrates the acquisition of that knowledge. The stage of this development returns to the idea of choice. Choosing an appropriate routine formula that demonstrates the desired level of politeness in an appropriate situation so as to appear confident in the practice of a given speech act should be the goal of such instruction.

2.2.4. Pragmatic Failure

In observing naturally occurring language, output has always been the most effective way to judge how a person uses language to communicate (Tran, 2007); however, such data analysis often proves to be a daunting task for researchers. In pragmatic research, most data are elicited from DCTs and questionnaires to extrapolate on the effectiveness of teaching methods (Weir, 1988).

Of particular note are mistakes. If linguists look at how mistakes occur, it is possible to understand the meaning better. Most mistakes occur in either a pragmalinguistic direction or a sociopragmatic direction resulting in what was termed "Pragmatic Failure" by Thomas (1983). Pragmatic failure is the situation that arises when one of the parties involved in a speech event fails to understand "what is meant by what is said" (Thomas, 1983, p. 91). Bialystok (1993) observed that when adult language learners make mistakes, it was often not because of the lack of vocabulary or knowledge of grammar, but because they made the wrong language choice for the speech act. In fact, the person may not even know an error was made.

If language learners are to avoid making such mistakes, Block (2003) argued language learners need an understanding of the social and cultural aspects of speech acts.

2.3. The Greeting Speech Act

2.3.1. The Pragmatics of Greetings

[7]When most people think of a greeting, they consider it as the first words spoken in a turn-taking routine used to acknowledge the presence of another person or persons (Goffman, 1971). A greeting can be as simple as a nod of the head or a wave of the hand. It is a statement that forms an *adjacency pair* (Have, 2007), in that there is an initiation of contact followed by a response, both of which can be either verbal or nonverbal and may conclude with a warm embrace (Omar, 1991).

Greetings appear to be a universal construct in that all languages engage them in some form. The form of a greeting as an adjacent pair consists of the first pair part followed by a second pair part completing the pair type (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Even animals have some kind of greeting, as found by primatologist Jane Goodall in her work with chimpanzees (Goodall, 2007) and as evidenced by watching common pets greet other animals—including humans.

The form a greeting takes, as with all speech acts, depends mostly on the context of the encounter (Ellis 1994a, 1994b). Context considers the relationship of the people: are they friends, acquaintances, or perfect strangers? Is there a power difference, as with a boss and employee? What is the degree of imposition, which

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includes both temporal and spatial concerns: Are they in a hurry, or is the distance between the two people somehow constraining? Maybe the relationship has certain rules that make an overly friendly greeting seem inappropriate at the time. For EFL learners, the ability to make an appropriate greeting is often the first opportunity to demonstrate communicative competence.

Although greetings may seem simple and formulaic in their wording, they are culturally saturated speech acts that can determine the course of an encounter well past the initial exchange (DuFon, 1999). For example, both the Japanese exchange students and their host families in the opening anecdote experienced discomfort that may have stilted the early days of an important relationship. The content and delivery of a greeting influences a first impression and can also create a lasting one.[8]

According to Ebsworth et al. (1996), "Greetings are among the first speech acts that are learned by children in their native language" (p. 89). Often, one of the first things a student is explicitly taught in the language classroom is how to perform a basic greeting. The utility that greetings perform in a communicative role is usually considered subordinate to other purposes in the ultimate goal of communication (Dufon, 1999). This subordinate position is often over-stated in the language classroom with very little attention given to the function greetings play in various cultures and how this may have some bearing on the ultimate goal of communication.

Variations within the greeting routine are often imbued with valuable cultural clues (Dufon, 1999). As Rivers (1983) pointed out, students "need to understand how

[8] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

language is used in relation to the structure of society and its patterns of inner and outer relationships, if they are to avoid clashes, misunderstandings, and hurt" (p. 25). Greetings are how people initiate communication. Misspeaking a greeting can be seen as rudeness or make someone uncomfortable in some societies. A misspoken greeting can impact a first impression or create the outcome of a lasting, sometimes negative, impression.

One way to look at greetings is to divide them into three groups: Acknowledgement, Approach, and Social Function. The function of a greeting as acknowledgement, as described by DuFon (1999), points to the simple act of seeing the other person and both participants recognizing that fact. For this greeting, the illocution is as follows: I see you, you see me; I know who you are; I am aware of the relationship between us; I wish to acknowledge that relationship (Kiefer, 1980). This might be what Austin (1962) would describe as felicity conditions. Huang (2007) describes these as, "conditions under which words can be used to perform actions" (p. 99). This type of greeting is done most often in a temporal greeting of "Good afternoon," for example. Terms of address are often important. It is also important to participate in the act. A non-response can be considered rude.

The second type of greeting that students may experience is as an Approach. This greeting is to provide a strategy to open a conversation. In this speech act, the illocution is as follows: I may not know you, but I am aware of the relationship between us and I want something from you (Kiefer, 1980). This type of greeting is often followed by some kind of request for information. It is often initiated by some kind of salutation, possibly temporal like "good morning," or an apology for intrusion on the other persons' attention or space. All these elements would make up

an appropriate and polite greeting. The absence of any of these elements could be considered rude or too direct. This type of greeting also depends on the relationship of the two participants. For instance, one could examine this statement: “Good morning. I am sorry to bother you, but could I ask you a question?” The use of the expression “good morning” is a standard form of greeting and would be an adjacent pair part. The apology for the intrusion “I am sorry to bother you” appears to demonstrate distance of the participant. Not wanting to bother someone is typical of negative politeness rules (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This type of exchange could be used by strangers or co-workers with different power positions.

The third type of greeting is the most obvious, which is that of a Social Function. This is a greeting to encourage friendship or camaraderie (Goffman, 1972). In this type of greeting, one often refers to the situation or past experience as the interlocutor. The illocution is that one wants to make a friendly gesture. Some examples of such friendliness statements include such phrases as, “Hi, how’s it going?” “Long time, no see,” and “How is your family?”

Japanese greetings tend to be formulaic and/or ritualized (Ide, 1989). Japanese students expect a greeting routine they recognize from textbook language learned in previous high school or other courses. Moreover, a greeting in Japan can be considered a face-threatening act (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example, a greeting in an inappropriate register can be considered rude in many of Japan’s societies. The result is that Japanese speakers might choose to avoid the greeting act rather than risk doing it incorrectly. This action does not transfer into western cultures where the avoidance of greeting rituals can be considered inappropriate or rude. The context of the greeting can greatly influence the expression used (Dufon,

1999), but the purpose of the utterance is still a greeting.

2.3.2. Interactional Acts

[9]When students participate in awareness raising tasks, questions concerning interactional acts emerge: turn-taking rules, negotiation, and the fact that a greeting accompanies an opening and often includes a closing (Schegloff, 2007). When teaching greetings, bringing awareness to the initial interaction of opening a conversation is important. Since a handshake often functions as an opening (and a closing as well), one of the first activities some teachers use is to teach students how to shake hands like a Westerner. Students stand up, face each other, and practice shaking hands. It is easy to teach an appropriate handshake with timing and grip as a key factor. Proper timing and a confident grip are important when performing a handshake, just as timing and position are to a hug (Navarro, 2013; Whitbourne, 2016).

Pragmatic norms related to greetings also include non-verbal behavior (e.g., eye contact, gestures, facial expressions, and physical contact), spatial association, and relational responsibility (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Greeting contexts often are found near elevators, in hallways, and in places where people are moving. As such, proper etiquette is harder to define because time constraints play a major role in greeting acts. What constitutes a successful greeting act depends largely on contextual information and on the interlocutors, themselves. Some greetings might

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be accomplished very quickly, while others might need more extensive verbal exchanges.[10]

2.3.3. Target Greeting Structures

[11]Ebsworth et al. (1996) have identified eight varieties of greetings commonly used in American English. Three of these cause Japanese students' particular difficulty, not because of a lack of knowledge concerning appropriate vocabulary or phrases, but because of the situational element of the exchange. The researchers named these greetings the *introductory greeting,* the *chat,* and *greeting on the run* (which by nature can involve a micro-greeting). These types of greetings are outside the typical Japanese social context and have different sociolinguistic elements from those found in Japanese greetings. The problems they present are representative of greeting difficulties for Japanese EFL students.

In American-English, the *introductory greeting* engages eye contact because it plays a big part in successfully accomplishing a friendly or professional introduction greeting. A friendly greeting with a new friend or acquaintance after eye contact is followed by the first adjacency pair part of a temporal greeting expression, such as "good afternoon" and only given names would be exchanged as a second pair part: A: *Good afternoon.* B: *Good Afternoon*. A: *I'm Bill.* B: *I'm John.* This second pair part often would be followed by a handshake and continued or renewed eye

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[10] This is the end of the passage adapted from the journal article.

[11] This passage is adapted from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 131) This reproduced passage will continue to p. 33.

contact. Such an introduction might be concluded with an expression like "*Nice to meet you*."

In contrast, in a casual encounter in Japan, unless some prior relationship exists between the parties involved, there is no *introductory greeting* even if the people make eye contact. When eye contact occurs, the *hierarchical nature of the relation* as described by Okamoto (1997) immediately comes into play. One single adjacency pair part is uttered. This utterance usually is temporal, related to the time of day.

The *chat* in American English typically occurs when people with some relationship have a brief conversation, but it can also occur between strangers (Ebsworth, et al., 1996). For example, two people without prior contact standing in line to order at a coffee shop might strike up a conversation. The *chat* as a greeting is problematic for Japanese because it does not occur often in their culture, and the situation can contain face-threatening elements such as not knowing the social context (Matsumoto, 1988) or making a mistake as to the level of politeness. Again, if no relationship exists between the parties, then no greeting will occur. If there is some relationship, then the person of lower status must wait until the person of higher status acknowledges the relationship. The first pair part would typically be followed by a temporal greeting, which would formally complete the act, the second pair part.

The *greeting on the run*, or a *passing greeting* as described by Goffman (1971) is a greeting that occurs when participants do not stop to talk beyond an initial acknowledgement (Ebsworth et al., 1996). For example, a simple nod of the head that receives a similar nod of the head is a completed *greeting on the run.* For many

Westerners, micro-greetings such as this are reserved both for close friends and for strangers. Yet, for Japanese, passing greetings are for people with an established relationship, such as a neighbor or coworker.

These three greeting acts may be especially problematic for the Japanese EFL student, and they are challenging to learn and perform appropriately without contextual awareness that comes from explicit pragmatic instruction, making them especially valuable for measuring pragmatic ability.[12]

2.3.4. Division of Pragmatic Labor in Greetings

In American English, the context of the greeting can greatly influence the expression used (Ebsworth, Bodman, & Carpenter, 1996; Goffman, 1972). Use of unfamiliar words or phrasing may cause students learning English to not understand the situation because it does not conform to high school and/or other student study of the language. In other words, they have not heard the expression used in that context and for that reason the expression is unfamiliar.

If, when speaking to a native speaker (NS), a NS uses an unconventualized use of a routine it can cause confusion within the speech act. For example, a Japanese student might be expecting an unmarked exchange. According to Horn (2004), an unmarked exchange is "briefer and/or more lexicalized" (p. 25). An example of such an exchange might be a simple "How are you?" in the case of a greeting. But the common American-English use of the expression "How's it going?" can have many problems in the syntax of this expression. "How" carries the same meaning, but the present participle "going" can cause confusion. This

[12] This is the end of the passage adapted from the journal article.

expression would most likely be met with silence from a Japanese student. "Where am I going?" is what they possibly may hear, which means that this expression is "marked" for the student. A marked expression could be either longer than what was expected or less lexicalized as in the example "How's it going?"

The inability to respond to a marked expression is what Horn (2004) referred to within the *Q principle* as the *division of pragmatic labor*. In other words, when a marked expression is used while an otherwise unmarked expression is expected, the pragmatic work is divided (Horn, 2004). This division can inhibit the participant from making a response and, more commonly, the inability to respond to the greeting by not providing the appropriate second pair part. Thus, a breakdown in communication occurs and potentially results in "pragmatic failure" or "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (Thomas, 1983, p. 91). Pragmatic instruction can aid in avoiding such contextually-fused failures.

If a Japanese student is a participant in the speech act "greeting," he or she is expecting a more formulaic use of expressions because that is how they learned it in school. Japanese greetings also tend to be formulaic and/or ritualized (Ide, 1989). However, in English, the context of the situation will have some influence on the expression used, "but the illocution is still a greeting" (Zeff, 2010, p. 15). According to Kakiuchi's (2005) research of over 200 examples of native speaker greetings, NSs often increase their use of different greeting routines so that they can interact with various interlocutors in a pragmatically appropriate manner. This manner considers the "person's age and social status, intimacy, and the power relationship between the interlocutor and the context" (Kakiuchi, 2005, p. 63).

According to Goffman (1971), a greeting is accomplished when the person

doing the greeting does it in such a way that is acceptable by certain social conventions. Effort needs to be made to understand the illocutionary value of the utterance. When this new utterance is introduced, it becomes marked requiring a processing of its meaning, in this case a greeting (Horn, 2004).

A greeting in American English can be a complex speech event that includes many parts and choices (Ebsworth et al., 1996). What makes a greeting utterance different from other utterances often stems from the politeness rules, described above, related to particular social contexts (Brown & Levinson, 1978). For example, one would use a different rule for greeting a good friend than when greeting a total stranger. For some students, simple changes in habit and practice can make a difference and broaden the routines available to them, yet they can also lead to confusion and silence. These changes can include not giving a full name or including first and last name or using alternate phrases like "How's it going?"

2.3.5. How American-English Greetings Challenge Japanese Students

Greeting practices in Japan include culturally required honorifics because they are fundamentally grounded in and determined by a hierarchical status system (Burdelski, 2013; Okamoto, 1997). According to Okamoto (1997), "Both referent and addressee honorifics are most commonly regarded as markers of social distance—i.e., hierarchical relation, the lack of intimacy, or *soto* 'out-group' relations as opposed to *uchi* 'in-group' relations" (p. 797). Few rules like this exist in American-English when it comes to greetings. Rather, the primary rule is that once a greeting is initiated, a response is required. Because of the complexity of its socio-pragmatic function and yet commonplace nature of its position in everyday communication, the speech act of greeting was chosen as the focus of this study to

develop and test an assessment for measuring whether students can transfer pragmatic instruction as demonstrated in a computer-based test and in a natural setting (Zeff, 2017).

[13]Greetings are an important and necessary pragmatic speech act for Japanese EFL students. American-English greetings especially challenge Japanese students. When two English-speaking people from the United States connect, a greeting should normatively occur unless some context exists that would prevent this from happening, such as a noise distraction (Goffman, 1971). However, greetings in Japan are different because social context is highly visible in Japanese greetings (Matsumoto, 1988). According to Matsumoto (1988), "no utterance in Japanese can be neutral with respect to the social context" (p. 208). When an exchange is necessary, the person of lower status must wait until the person of higher status acknowledges the relationship. This acknowledgement might be a slight nod of the head serving as a *micro-greeting*, thus successfully meeting the conditions for greetings. A micro-greeting is a greeting where all the conditions for successfully completing the speech act are met in a micro amount of time, defined as when the two or more parties participating in the speech act recognize it as a completed greeting and accept it as such. Whereas in the West a nod is an upward motion of the head, in Japanese it is a downward motion signifying a bow. Because of the complicated nature of the bow in Japanese culture (De Mente, 1990), language

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students' understanding of the Western use of this micro-greeting can be problematic. Indeed, it was confusing even for former US President Obama during his 2009 meeting with the Emperor of Japan, leading to a situation termed Bow-Gate by the press (Sky News, 2009). Regardless of the formality of the context, it is culturally important for language students to perform speech acts in a way that is polite and appropriate.[14]

Japanese use the micro-greeting in recognition of the hierarchical status of a relationship with the party of higher status not being required to give a full verbal response. This silence—part of the Japanese greeting practice—is problematic in an American greeting situation and may be considered inappropriate or even rude.

Greetings are important speech acts in every culture. Even though they are often presented in language classes as common place and phatic, they are far from simplistic. Whether low stakes greetings (when friends meet) or high stakes greetings (when political officials meet), language students need to be aware of the cultural differences in speech acts in order to conduct themselves appropriately. Research suggests that Japanese students of English have a difficult time making what would appear to the native English speaker as an appropriate or polite greeting (Kakiuchi, 2005). The problem is not one of vocabulary but of pragmatics.

[14] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Research Questions

This research was developed to respond to the following research questions:

1. What are the effects of implicit and explicit pragmatic instruction of greetings in the EFL classroom?
2. To what extent can these effects provide an understanding of teaching methods for improving Japanese students' competence in American-English greetings in the EFL classroom?
3. Can an observable, yet naturally occurring, scenario be devised to demonstrate students' use of pragmatic knowledge for Assessment of greetings in the EFL classroom?

3.2. Methodology

The type of research used in this study was a mixed methods approach of both quantitative and qualitative research. The aim of the quantitative research was to gather data of the students' scores in a discrete point testing in the form of quizzes that focused on the recognition of greeting patterns taught in university speaking classes using both explicit and implicit pragmatic teaching methods (Ellis, 2001).

The Glexa system was used to administer the Greeting quizzes that served as the pre-, post- and delayed posttests. The Glexa system, created by the company Version 2 in 2007, is a learning management system (LMS) that allows teachers to manage classroom role, attendance, and course material. I developed a test to use on the system. The system is unique in that it allows one to create video based material as well. For this study, I created two unique computer-based tests, with what I hoped to be similar criteria to test students understanding of the greetings speech act (see

Appendices B and C). Two video-based test questions were developed to test hearing and context awareness of greeting patterns in the form of identifying adjacent pair parts. I used one test for the pretest (see Appendix B). The second test was used for the posttest (see Appendix C), nine weeks later with nine hours of training in the target function, greetings, and I added the applied production test. I used the second test again for the delayed posttest (see Appendix C), twelve weeks after. I thought it was within parameters to use the test again because the repeat effect would be limited. The time effect would apply.

The tests had six components. The first five components were a variety of evaluative methods, as described by Takimoto (2009a). They were AJT, DCT, and a LT, with the addition of the video test, which served as a type of AJT. These five parts made up the computer based test. However, where Takimoto used RP for oral evaluation, I used an applied production test for a sixth component. These components are described in detail in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.4.

The applied production test was the unique part of this study in that it attempted to create a real-life scenario that would allow the researcher to gather something like natural data to help evaluate the success of the teaching method. These data were analyzed in a quantitative manner, looking at overall scoring using a rubric designed for this task. They were also analyzed in a qualitative manner looking at the language used and the possible reasons for the choices made by the students.

The qualitative research aim was to look at the exchanges produced by the students in the applied production test and determine how the students were applying the input from instruction in the real-life scenario. Also, this part of the study

attempted to understand how these instructional methods might be improved to address shortcomings. To analyze the qualitatively developed real-life performance test, adaptations of Schegloff (1996) and Pomerantz and Fehr's (1997) tools were used.

Have (2007) described Schegloff's (1996) three distinct elements, each of which plays a major role in an analysis of an exchange. According to Have (2007) Schegloff (1996) says that "the action of some utterance implements":

1. A formulation of what action or actions are being accomplished
2. A grounding of this formulation in the reality of the participants
3. An explication of how a particular practice (i.e., an utterance or conduct) can yield a particular recognizable action. (p. 121)

These actions of an utterance were considered in this study's analysis of students' real-life performance of greetings.

Greetings are one of the most common speech acts that teachers can instigate and observe in the everyday experience of teaching. Where it might be more difficult to have the students make requests and apologies, as discussed in my quasi-experiments, greetings were easier to observe. What the students should be able to accomplish when it comes to greetings is simpler than other speech acts because the main requirement is to complete the adjacency pair. In the explicit treatment for this study, the pair part they chose is discussed in how it may lead to a particular action (Schegloff, 1996).

Pomerantz and Fehr (1997), as described in Have (2007), developed tools to analyze oral exchanges. They supplied five tools, which function as processes, to be applied to an exchange to get a clear understanding of what is happening. The first

process was to "select a sequence" (p. 122). The sequence I selected was the greeting. The second process was to "characterize the actions in the sequence" (p. 123). The actions characterized in this study were greetings and responses to them. The third process was to "consider how the speakers' packaging of actions, including their selection of reference terms, provides for certain understanding of the actions performed and the matters talked about" (p. 123). Pomerantz and Fehr referred to the "*form* chosen to produce the action" (p. 123), which in this study was an *introductory greeting*, a *chat* greeting and a *greeting on the run*. The fourth process was to "consider how the timing and turn-taking provides for certain understanding of the actions in the matters talked about" (p. 123). To this end, I searched for adjacency pair parts and whether they were provided in a timely manner. Finally, the fifth process was to "consider how the ways the actions were accomplished implicate certain identities, roles and/or relationships for the interactants" (p. 124). I understood this fifth process to mean analyzing how the participants understood to whom they were talking and what would be considered appropriate exchanges between and among them in the applied production testing. Given that understanding, I searched for changes in the participants' talk, looking particularly at those patterns that were introduced in the explicit instruction or made available in the implicit instruction treatments.

3.3. Uniqueness of the Study

There are few studies that examine the teachability of appropriate greeting strategies. Most of them observe the difference in practice (DuFon, 1999; Jibreen, 2010; Omar, 1991), but few actually consider data collected regarding appropriateness and politeness strategies used. In this study, I used greetings because

of their commonplace place nature and their contextual appropriateness as a beginning for any speech act instruction. Because the felicity conditions for greetings are simple, they are easy to observe. The condition for a greeting in this study was when at least two people came within proximity of each other in a casual encounter and recognized the need to greet. The choice to participate was the students' own.

Using an applied production test to observe real-life use of speech acts was unique to this study. Most of the studies done in this field use DCTs and other role play forms of evaluation, but not observation of the authentic speech act they are aiming to evaluate.

CHAPTER 4: PILOT STUDY

4.1. Goal of Pilot Study

I conducted a pilot study to determine whether explicit teaching of pragmatic notions—speech act rendition (greetings and finding things in common), back channeling, formulaic routines, politeness (levels of directness), repair, nonverbal behavior, discourse markers, pre-sequences and turn-taking—influenced how Japanese Non-native Speakers (JNNSs) constructed short communicative exchanges in the L2 that were initiated by a greeting act. Specifically, I considered how JNNSs (a) conducted opening gambits-initiated conversation exchanges through greetings and (b) transitioned to a more elaborated exchange.

4.2. Participants

For this pilot study, two intact speaking classes from the English Language and Culture Department of a private university in Japan were used. Class A had 21 students (hereafter called Pilot Group A) and Class B had 19 students (hereafter called Pilot Group B). There were seven male students and 14 female students in Pilot Group A. There were eight male students and 11 female students in Pilot Group B. Both groups were first-year students. Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores for both groups were fairly low, with an average mean of 480. Both groups used the same textbook, *Touchstone 2* (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sanford, 2005). The pace of instruction was controlled to ensure that both groups were exposed to the same corpus of vocabulary at approximately the same time. A questionnaire regarding what the students thought about greetings and how they are used in communication was given at the end of the study (See Appendix D).

4.3. Procedures

The mission of the Speaking curriculum at the university was geared toward the development of students' communication skills to help them achieve a level of communicative competence in which they were confident speaking English in a variety of situations and contexts. To realize this goal, students were provided with many opportunities to observe and use language in context. The macro-objectives of the program's curriculum were to:

1. practice using both old and new vocabulary and grammar knowledge to express genuine ideas;
2. develop conversation management skills (i.e., speech act rendition, formulaic routines, non-verbal behavior, discourse markers, levels of directness, phatic expressions, back-channeling, turn-taking, register);
3. express opinions and to support those opinions with additional information;
4. to develop problem-solving skills by engaging in functionally oriented, collaborative activities; and
5. develop a sense of ownership of the target language through oral expression.

The use of the *Touchstone 2* textbook in the Speaking classes was believed to be a beneficial step towards meeting these goals. However, a complementary layer of pragmatic instruction was believed to be necessary for ensuring that students developed functional communicative competence in the L2. Western pragmatic norms of language use formed the core of target language pragmatic instruction for Pilot Group A, considering that *Touchstone 2* places an emphasis on American English. However, true to pragmatic awareness-raising methodologies, instruction did not follow ethno-centric guidelines for language use. As such, contrastive

pragmatic instruction (between L2 and L1, and among varieties of English) also formed an important part of Pilot Group A's pragmatic instruction. The main objective of the pragmatic teaching component was to raise learners' awareness of how the target language is used pragmatically and to instill a sense of agency regarding how they wished to use the target language. In short, teaching was not essentially prescriptive, so learners had a choice whether or not to adhere to L2 pragmatic norms.

For the first session, which began at the beginning of the school year in April, and ran until July, when the first data collecting session occurred, both groups were exposed to the themes, functions, grammar, and vocabulary from Units 1 to 3, using regular techniques for promoting language acquisition (i.e., introduction to grammar and vocabulary, pattern recognition and manipulation, basic phrase translation, dialogue practice, speaking strategies, and some reading and controlled discussion). Then in July, the pretest was held.

For the second session that began in October, Pilot Group A was re-exposed to elements from Unit 1 as they were regularly reviewed to reinforce learners' understanding of greetings and basic conversation management strategies. Unit 1, "Making friends," focused on initiating a conversation with an unknown person. From a functional perspective, this unit asked students to:

- start a conversation with someone they do not know
- ask questions to get to know people
- talk about themselves, family members, and friends and about things they like
- find something in common with their interlocutor(s)

Regarding grammar structures and language form focus, simple grammar was emphasized (e.g., simple present tense, responses with *too* and *either*, use of word webs). This unit also included a useful article about how to improve one's conversational skills, which was used for both discussion and students' self-reflection. This reading was considered one of the central awareness-raising activities, linking pragmatic elements of target language use with a general sense of what it is to be a successful communicator.

As part of the pragmatic awareness-raising teaching strategy (Garcia, 2004), the Pilot Group A instructor supplemented textbook content teaching with video samples of short TV show conversations that included greetings. Video samples of compliments were also shown to position the speech act as a possible conversation opener. During viewing, students were asked to take notes on information that caught their attention. Then, a general discussion based on their notes followed, after which students were asked to role-play short conversation exchanges. This activity, designed to move students from awareness toward procedural knowledge, linked textbook content with the additional pragmatic examples and practice. In addition, discourse completion tasks were introduced to add discussion about the differences that roles and relationships play in word choice and greeting strategies.

This training lasted for nine weeks and provided 4.5 hours of training in the speech act with approximately 30 minutes of a 90-minute class scheduled for training in the speech act of greetings. Pilot Group B, which served as the control group, only followed the textbook and received no supplementary instruction. In this study process, I learned that the textbook alone did provide material for implicit awareness

of the greeting speech act and this awareness of the greeting speech act was emphasized in the main study. The second data collecting session, the posttest, was given in December.

For the pre- and posttests, the students were brought into a large computer room. Each student sat alone at an individual computer and was asked to work on the Internet site "English Central" (www.englishcentral.com). This task had an indirect relation with the task designed for data collection; primarily, however, it served as a distraction from the intended goal of the data collection procedure and kept students busy while waiting for their turn.

4.4. Measurements

It has been the case with most studies on the effectiveness of pragmatic teaching that assessment of its effectiveness almost exclusively involved students demonstrating ability by performing role plays or DCTs that described a situation and had the students write down possible responses (Kasper & Rose, 2002). However, in this pilot study, students were placed in a situation where the greeting speech act could occur, and their participation was recorded on video in an authentic oral performance. To this end, two data collecting sessions were planned: a pretest and a posttest.

The assessment was a process in which students were placed in a situation where the greeting speech act should occur naturally. Pairs of students were chosen at random (one each from Pilot Group A and B) and assigned to a triad that included a stranger and one other student. They were brought into a smaller room by one of the researchers/instructors and instructed to speak as much as possible; their participation was recorded. The students were not informed as to which part of the

interaction was being used for evaluation of their performance.

During the first data collecting phase of the pilot study, the researcher videotaped 20 conversations involving 40 students intermixed from Pilot Groups A and B, as well as one NS (not the researcher); each taping session comprised between two to three minutes. Individual students from Pilot Group A were randomly paired up with individual students from Pilot Group B, removing all possibilities for pre-study planning and practice. This process was repeated for the posttest except that a different NS was engaged for this activity. This approach offered some level of confidence that conversations would retain an improvisational quality, thus paralleling natural speech. During the second data collecting phase, the same controls were applied, and the student pairings were designated so as to ensure that different pairings were made.

The primary measurement for this study consisted of a quantitative comparison of the language choices used for the pretest compared to the language used for the posttest. This measurement was accomplished by comparing word cloud representations of the transcribed language sets. Word clouds are visual representations of word frequency (McNaught & Lam, 2010). For example, the more times a word occurs in the text, the larger the font of that word in the graphic representation (see Figures 4.1 and 4.2). Word cloud is one method of text mining, and it is often used in the field of education to identify the most commonly used words in a text such as transcribed data. According to McNaught and Lam (2010), word mining may have limitations such as taking words out of context, but Ramsden and Bate (2008) argued that it can be a useful tool when a simple, visual analysis is needed. In this pilot study, I used word clouds to provide a visual representation of

the most commonly used words in the student dialogues. This process and the resulting visual seemed to have an advantage to other text mining methods for its simplicity. McNaught and Lam (2010) stated that, "word clouds can be a useful research tool to aid educational research" (p. 641). The online word cloud creating software used to create the figures was called Wordle (http://www.wordle.net).

The pretest and posttest were controlled observations of a greeting situation that was created as part of the overall study. This was accomplished by having students go to a classroom individually where a foreign person was seated. After a set amount of time (about 60 seconds), a second student was instructed to go to the same classroom. In the pilot study, two 60-year-old American women were selected as interlocutors; one was used for the pretest and the other for the posttest. No prior direction was given to the students or the designated American-English speaker as to what could be said or done in this encounter except that they should use only English. The posttest provided a general comparison outline of the effectiveness of the teaching strategies applied to the treatment groups. The scenario was controlled in that both students had very little previous contact although it was determined that this had little impact on the outcome of the study. The purpose of this part of the study was to see whether the students were able to make appropriate greetings to both the American-English speaker and the other JNNS student in English.

Finally, students were provided a questionnaire that asked them to reflect on the experience they had in the controlled observation (see Appendix D). They were asked questions about how they felt they performed the greeting, whether they felt it was successful, and whether they could have made other choices in the exchange. One point of the survey was to see whether their attitudes about greetings had

changed and whether this change had any influence on their overall experience in the communication class that accompanied this study.

4.5. Results and Discussion

This pilot study observed how JNNSs cooperated in the negotiation and structure of relatively natural verbal encounters in the target language. Specifically, it looked at how JNNSs used common words and expressions associated with first time encounters, and observed whether their use was somehow enhanced as a result of explicit pragmatic instruction in greetings. The purpose of the pretest was to observe implicit greeting knowledge and to see whether it could be affected by explicit pragmatic teaching. The two pilot groups were compared as a whole, and individual exchanges were analyzed for word choice and overall performance.

Figure 4.1. Word Cloud of Transcripts from Pilot Study Pretest Demonstrating Formulaic Routine Pattern.

Figure 4.1 represents the Word Cloud derived from the pilot study pretest of students in greetings, Pilot Group A, the treatment group. The larger font represents higher numbers of occurrences in a 2000-word sample. Notice that the words *name* and *you* are the largest, indicating that these were spoken most often and suggesting that these words represent key concepts. The words *hi* and *hello* were relatively

small, suggesting that students did not use these words frequently in their greetings or responses to greetings.

In contrast, Figure 4.2 shows a second Word Cloud created after the pilot study's posttest; it features only Pilot Group A, the treatment group. This posttest also examined the students' abilities to perform greetings, and it revealed that the treatment group showed the ability to access a greater variety of patterns when participating in the greeting speech act. Notice that Figure 4.2 reveals increased use of the words *meet* and *nice* although *name* remained an often-used word. *Hi* and *hello* were used more often than in the pretest, and such words as *now* and *see* were used among the least often.

Figure 4.2. Word Cloud Transcripts from the Pilot Study Posttest.

4.5.1. Micro-greeting

As previously identified, a micro-greeting is a greeting where all of the conditions for successfully completing the speech act are met in a micro amount of

time, defined as when the two or more parties participating in the speech act recognize it as a completed greeting and accept it as such (Zeff, 2017). The most significant condition is the presence of both adjacent pair parts. This presence can be both verbal and non-verbal, and it can be accomplished by a simple verbal "hey" with a response of "hey," or nonverbally in a wave of the hand met with a similar response. If the first pair part and second pair part are presented by the participants in the speech act and recognized by both parties, then the micro-greeting act is successful.

In the pretest, micro-greetings sometimes occurred in the absence of verbal greetings. For example, it was noticed that when the students met in the hallway, a greeting usually occurred. However, the greeting was not always verbal. Sometimes it was a bow of the head, for example. That head bow in the hallway rendered the exchange in the testing room invalid because it violated the felicity conditions sought to make the greetings real per the testing scenario. From a research perspective, the idea was to create a situation where a greeting should occur when someone met another person for the first time that day. If two participants had already performed a physical micro-greeting using a head bow or even a brief verbal one, thereby satisfying the social practice of a greeting, there would be no genuine reason for the greeting to occur again whether physically or verbally.

After this phenomenon of micro-greetings was identified during the pretest, an attempt was made to ensure that no micro-greetings occurred in the rest of the pilot study because the study was searching for longer, more structured greeting strategies from students. Upon the creation of the applied production test for the main study, this goal was accomplished partially by ensuring that no contact between

participants occurred before each separately entered the room and by instigating a scenario that strongly indicated a need for a verbal greeting.

4.5.2 Effectiveness of the Pilot Study

The overall results from the initial observation showed that most of the Japanese students used a formulaic routine. They generally used one single formulaic routine that consisted of an introduction, including both first and last name, and the expression *nice to meet you*. The second part of the study tested the student's ability to perform greetings, and it was observed that the treatment group, Pilot Group A, showed a better ability to appropriately participate in the speech act. In analysis, special attention was paid to the use of various patterns and routine phrases taught to the treatment group. Also of interest was how different routines paved the way for proceeding to broader communication and information exchanges.

The presence of the micro-greeting was a factor in the overall effectiveness of the pilot study. The gathering of useful data in the video recordings demonstrated the presence of micro-greetings as a common student greeting choice. For some of the students, performing the micro-greeting served as a complete greeting without having to use the target forms. As previously stated, this problem was addressed in the main study by removing opportunities for students to greet, however quickly, in the hallway and by creating a more structured greetings scenario.

In the pilot study, effort was made to create a situation for the effects of the explicit pragmatic instruction to be revealed in the analysis. However, it also appeared that some effect from implicit instruction, however unintentional, may have played a part in the pilot study. An example of this phenomenon was the use of expressions from the textbook *Touchstone 2*; for example, "Where are you from?"

and “Where do you live?” were used in the oral performance. Some strategy attempts also were observed. These strategies included trying to start a conversation with a question about the weather. From these data points, it became evident that the effects of both explicit and implicit pragmatic instruction would be the primary focus of the main study.

Finally, the JNNSs also showed more awareness for the speech act’s importance in their responses to the questionnaire provided after their encounter in the triad (see Figure 4.3). Many students experience their entire English education without acknowledging the importance of the greeting speech act (Kakiuchi, 2005). Kakiuchi (2005) indicated that most textbooks in high school barely touch on the topic of greetings. By participating in this study, students appeared to be more aware of the importance of the greeting speech act as demonstrated by their responses to the questionnaire.

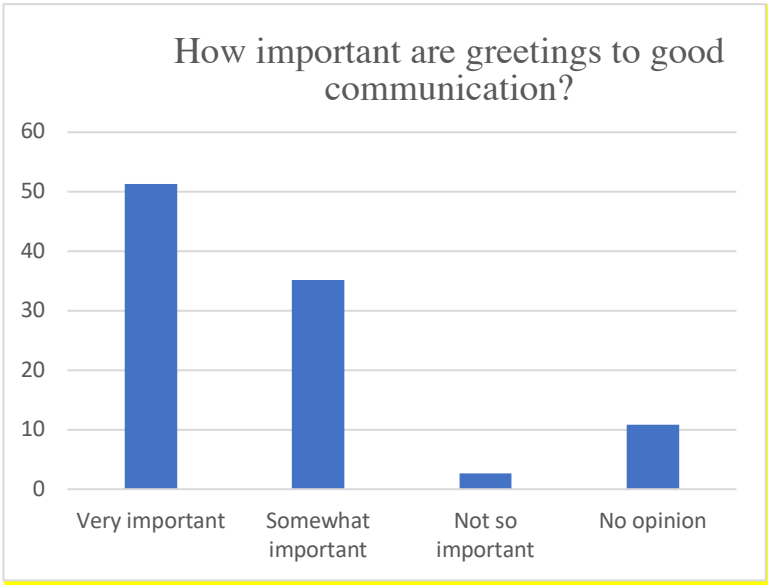

Figure 4.3. Results from Pilot Study Questionnaire.

In sum, in the pilot study, along with a few preliminary, informal studies, I observed and recorded over 100 examples of student greetings. After having incorporated focused input methods for teaching this pragmatic routine (Sharwood, 1986), a main study was developed to determine whether explicit and implicit instruction on greetings improved students' pragmatics of greetings, and whether the ability to greet appropriately increased their awareness of greetings as an integral part of communication.

CHAPTER 5: MAIN STUDY

5.1. Introduction

The main study focused on the awareness and production of various greeting routines in student life inside and outside of school. Knowledge of a variety of routines is essential for students' performance of greetings in various exchanges that they may have in day-to-day encounters. Kakiuchi (2005) observed that most students in Japan are only exposed to one or two possible routines in high school with no additional pragmatic information. Kakiuchi's research focused on the textbooks being used in Japanese High Schools throughout Japan and the language being taught through the lessons in those books. She found a great shortcoming in the variety of routines students were exposed to when compared with how greetings were practiced by NS of English (Kakiuchi, 2005). In response to such a lack of variety, this research project's main study bundled implicit, explicit, varied pragmatic instruction with awareness-raising tasks, and form-focused input in an effort to address the question. The main study, therefore, asked: What are the effects of pragmatic instruction combined with awareness-raising instruction and form-focused input instruction on the communicative competence in greetings of Japanese learners of English?

According to Kakiuchi's (2005) research of 60 NS greetings, NSs often increase their use of different greeting routines so that they can interact with various interlocutors in a pragmatically appropriate manner. This manner considers the "person's age and social status, intimacy, and the power relationship between the interlocutor and the context" (p. 66). For this reason, the main study focused on the

awareness and production of various greeting routines that can be used in two student life situations: student life at school and student life outside of school.

5.2. Methods

5.2.1. Participants

For the full study three intact speaking classes at a private university were used. One class was part of the control data and two classes served as the treatment groups. During the three-month period, 12 classes were held. An important characteristic for all students participating in the study was that they had limited experience communicating with native speakers.

Three separate classes with an average of 18 students in each were placed into three groups (n = 60; 34 males; 26 females). One group was used for control and two groups were used for treatment. Sixty students completed all three of the computer-based tests, pre-, post- and delayed posttest. Thirty-six students completed all five sections of the evaluation including the applied production test: 11 from the control, 12 from Treatment Group 1, and 13 from Treatment Group 2. The disparity in numbers between the computer tests and applied production test was due to the logistics of carrying out such a study over three months and technical concerns for collecting the data.

5.2.2. Procedures

The three of Ebsworth et al.'s (1996) varieties of greetings commonly used in American English used in this study were the *introductory greeting,* the *chat,* and *greeting on the run*. As noted previously, these greeting types present difficulties for Japanese EFL students because they fall outside the typical Japanese social context and have different sociolinguistic elements from those found in Japanese greetings.

[15]Analyzing data in interlanguage pragmatic studies has been the subject of much discussion and debate. Often, coding is based on the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). For this study, segmentation with the identification of head acts for the three greeting patterns made it possible to modify the requirements. Greeting head acts, the minimum unit of recognition as a greeting (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989), are comprised of a temporal context that represents either a time-free or time-bound interjection (Jibreen, 2010). Table 5.1 presents the head act strategies identified in the speech act of the three greetings described in this study.

Table 5.1. *Greeting Head Acts*

Greeting Strategy	**Time Bound**	**Time Free**
Introductory greeting	Good afternoon Good morning Good evening	My name is . . . I am . . . Nice to meet you.
Chat Greeting	Good afternoon Good morning Good evening	How's it going? How are you? What's up?
Greeting on the run	Good afternoon Good morning Good evening	Hey Hello

Coding following Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989), involved contextualizing the speech act, manipulating the external and internal contextual features, and adapt in the cultural transposition for American English. Modified

[15] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 135) This reproduced passage will continue to p. 59.

transcription methods in conversation analysis were used (Schegloff, 2007).[16]

5.2.3. Instructional Treatments

Students in all three groups had access to the website "English Central" (www.englishcentral.com), an online system for oral practice. Additionally, all students used one of two basic English conversation textbooks, *Touchstone 2 (1st Ed.)* (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sanford, 2005) and *English Firsthand Book 1 (Gold Edition)* (Helgesen, Brown, & Mandeville, 2004). Both of these books provided introductory lessons, which included opening patterns followed by basic conversation strategies and speech act patterns. For example, *Touchstone 2* addressed saying *no* in a friendly way, as well as such basic introductory questions as "Where are you from?" "Where do you live?" "What is your hobby?" and "What do you do in your free time?" Also, it introduced patterns for sharing information about the weather and past times.

English Firsthand Book 1 was used by the Control Group specifically because it does not address any particular pragmatic elements. *Touchstone 2* was used by both the implicit and explicit treatment groups, Treatment Group 1 and Treatment Group 2, respectively. The touchstone series has pragmatic elements throughout the book. For example, the first unit of *Touchstone 2*, "Making Friends" draws attention to aspects of the target speech act greetings and a conversation strategy that the students may gain awareness through implicit instruction. The term *conversation strategy* is used throughout this textbook to refer to basic strategies for participating in conversational acts.

[16] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

The primary study began with both the Control Group and the two Treatment Groups completing an introductory unit in the class textbook that addressed greetings with limited pragmatic instruction. The instructor of the control group taught the unit as written in the textbook with no additional emphasis so as to not draw attention to the focus of the study. After the initial introduction to the course, all the students were given a pretest to evaluate their understanding of greetings. Over the nine-week study period, both the treatment groups and control group covered three units in the textbook that addressed other speech acts, but they were only tested on greetings in the study. After nine weeks, there was an eight-week summer holiday. After the summer holiday, the students returned for the second semester. Most of the students did not have any contact with NSs during this time.

Table 5.2. *Instructional Treatment Schedule*

Group	**Week 3**	**Treatment Instruction Weeks 4-8**	**Review/Practice Weeks 9-12**	**Week 13**	**Week 21**
Treatment 1 (*Implicit*)	Pretest	3 weeks x 30 minutes = 1.5 hours	2 weeks x 30 minutes = 1.0 hours	Posttest/Applied Production Test	Delayed Posttest
Treatment 2 (*Explicit*)	Pretest	5 weeks x 30 minutes = 2.5 hours	4 weeks x 30 minutes = 2.0 hours	Posttest/Applied Production Test	Delayed Posttest
Control	Pretest			Posttest/Applied Production Test	Delayed Posttest

Table 5.2 illustrates the instructional treatment schedule. The instructional treatment of the two treatment groups, implicit (Treatment 1) and explicit (Treatment 2), lasted three weeks and five weeks respectively, at 30 minutes per session per week. The implicit group received 1.5 hours of implicit exposure to the greeting speech act in total. The explicit group received 2.5 hours of explicit instruction in total. However, review continued in practice for two weeks in the implicit groups

and four weeks in the explicit group in that the instructor followed up with some practice with the students for 30-minute sessions per week. He added an additional 1 hour of focused exposure in the form of role play practice for the implicit group; and he added 2 hours of focused exposure, including both role plays and awareness building tasks in the form of journals and CA analysis for the explicit group, which consisted of addressing such questions as "What did they say?" "How did they say it?" and "What did you understand them to mean?" This type of analysis was very straightforward for greetings and provided a total of 2.5 hours of instruction for the implicit group and a total of 4.5 hours including instruction and practice over nine weeks for the explicit group (see Table 5.2.).

All the directions were given in English with some Japanese translation of unfamiliar words for the explicit group serving as scaffolding for students who needed it. Each of the two treatment group classes had a lead instructor who taught all the sessions for that class. The researcher served as one instructor with the second instructor using limited pragmatic instructional methods. In fact, the instructor of the control group did not have any pragmatics training and was unaware of the instructional treatment focus and carried out the instruction with the textbook provided by the course.

The first lesson for the explicit treatment group (Treatment 1) was basic instruction on the terms used to observe pragmatic functions. This lesson included the concepts involved with determining role, distance, and imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987) within the context of performing not only greetings but other language functions. For example, the students were asked to explain how they might participate in a greeting with their elderly neighbor compared to their classmate. This

explicit instruction was supplemented with examples and listening input.

There were several types of awareness-raising tasks. The first task consisted of students being asked to collect examples of the target structure of greetings in their daily life. To do this, students kept a greeting journal for one week where they recorded examples of greetings. For example, they were asked to keep a record of who the participants were, where the greeting occurred, and what was said. They were also allowed to use a few examples they observed in English speaking movies or TV shows that they were able to access through the university library. The examples collected were discussed and analyzed for similarities and differences with the L1 and L2. Another awareness-raising task used was watching videos of greetings being performed on American TV shows. These shows were selected for the study and reflected situations that might be similar to students' experiences. This included meeting and greeting friends and teachers, as well as situations while shopping or moving around in their neighborhood. These examples were used to increase awareness of a variety of alternate routines available in everyday exchanges. Attention was drawn to the role of the participants, the relationship, and the imposition that may be present in each context. The students were also made aware of times when a greeting appeared inappropriate and how it was or could have been repaired by the speaker.

Using both the journal and TV show examples, additional words and phrases were taught that could be used to perform the greeting speech act and then practiced in role play activities. Additionally, the form-focused input tasks were presented in a structured role play where students were given a handout with a greeting routine and asked to use the additional words and phrases taught to practice exchanges with other

students in the class. This exercise was used to practice and reinforce each week's learning. Students also were asked to fill in discourse completion tasks, which are considered effectual assessment tools for determining retention of learned language patterns (Barron, 2003; Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Johnston, Kasper, & Ross, 1998; Kasper, 2000). For the discourse completion tasks, students were given a handout with three situations that required either opening a greeting routine or responding to a greeting by providing the second adjacent pair part. After each situation was completed, the students discussed their responses in class.

For the implicit pragmatic instruction group, lessons from the textbook covered aspects of the greeting routine and demonstrated situations with a variety of greeting patterns. A lesson describing how to start a conversation with someone new was presented followed by the introduction of form-focus and awareness raising tasks. No explicit instruction was included in relation to the concepts involved with determining role, distance, and imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Role plays were conducted with a variety of scenarios presented in the textbook, but no special attention was given to appropriate or inappropriate language use. The teacher did, however, give feedback on the performances.

One 90-minute class a week for 12 weeks was conducted for all classes. The pretest was given the second week of classes and the posttest, both computer based and applied production test, was given on the 11th class, after nine class sessions. The delayed posttest was given eight weeks after the posttest, when the students returned from summer break and started a new semester in late September (see Table. 5.2). This delayed test was administered because the students would have had very little English contact during the break, and there was a need to learn how much they

retained from earlier lessons. The computerized posttest was given nine weeks after the pretest, allowing 30 minute of treatment instruction a week for nine weeks totaling 4.5 hours of explicit pragmatic instruction. The implicit group received three hours of instruction in the target speech act by doing practice without any explicit instruction or awareness raising for the pragmatic elements of politeness and appropriateness.

The control group was given textbook based instruction with no pragmatic elements. Only the elements within the textbook were addressed. No pragmatic elements were described in the first chapter which addressed greetings entitled "First Time Meeting." Some form focus and listening exercises were accompanied by written vocabulary and grammar practice. Certain interrogation questions were introduced, including "Where are you from?" and "What is your hobby?" This presentation was without having explained any specific pragmatic knowledge or having practiced with any attention to the pragmatic elements. In sum, in the control group, the instructor did not pay any attention to pragmatic elements.

The implicit group was exposed to pragmatic elements of speech acts implicitly within the textbook which contained elements of pragmatic tasks within the lessons. The explicit group class given explicit pragmatic knowledge about the target speech act and performed exercises based on form focus, awareness raising, and task-based instruction in addition to the textbook lessons. The target speech act was addressed in both textbooks used by the three classes.

5.2.4. Measurements

This study used two assessment methods to evaluate the instructional methods used in the study: (1) a computer-based pretest, posttest, and delayed

posttest and (2) an applied production test.

The first method was a computer-based pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. The pretest was administered seven days before the instructional treatment began, the posttest was administered seven days after treatment, and the delayed posttest was administered eight weeks after the instruction was completed. Two versions of the test were used—one version for the pretest and the second version for the post and delayed posttest. Test learning effects were minimized given the length of time between the post- and delayed posttest.

The five parts of the computer-based testing instruments featured scenarios focused only on greetings with the three sociolinguistic variables of Power, Degree of Imposition, and Distance as introduced by Brown and Levinson (1987). These greetings scenarios were related to two contexts: student life at school and student life outside of school (Takimoto, 2009a) in keeping with the focus of the nine-week course of lessons.

The two versions (see Appendices B and C) of the test were developed by analyzing the responses and comments of more than 100 students over three years of a speech act course taught at the same university. The situations were counterbalanced so they would address similar target linguistic forms. The instructions for the tests were in English and Japanese. Each test was divided into five sections for a total of 10 questions. Four different types of questions were used. In Sections A and B, there were two types of DCT questions. Section C focused on pattern identifying test (PIT) questions. Section D consisted of AJT questions. These included input-based test sections, a DCT using structured language choices, structured discourse completion tests (SDCTs) to produce both greetings and

appropriate responses, a PIT to evaluate awareness of greeting routine patterns, and an AJT that focused attention on the appropriateness of greeting routines. There was also a video element that showed greeting situations with the second adjacent pair part missing. Students were asked to choose from four phrases that would be the most appropriate. Only one answer was possible. Section E was a video based evaluation where students were shown a short video (eight seconds) with the second part of the adjacent pair removed. The computer then displayed three possible choices for providing the second adjacent pair part. This LT followed Takimoto's assessment framework.

The SDCTs had possible responses displayed with no output required. All possible choices were displayed in contrast to standard DCTs, where the participants were asked to produce language in written form appropriate to the situation. The latter types of test were considered output-based. By providing possible choices to complete the discourse, a limited range of linguistic forms were introduced. This type of testing allowed lower-level learners greater opportunity for expressing awareness of the target structures without burdening them with having to produce written examples, which may have been affected by time constraints or writing ability, which was not being tested.

In this study, all students were first given a computer-based pretest which included questions designed to evaluate general greeting practices, including the use of various expressions and their appropriateness in different contexts. As described earlier, this pretest was given three weeks into the first semester of classes. The posttest was administered nine weeks after the pretest, and its results offered a general comparison outline of the effectiveness of the teaching strategies applied to

the treatment group. A delayed posttest was applied nine weeks after the posttest to observe whether the awareness of the greeting strategies taught was retained. The total time of the test was conducted over 21 weeks.

5.2.4.1. Reliability and Validity

One hundred and seven students took the pretest and 82 took the posttest to establish validity and reliability. These students were taken from six intact English-speaking classes at the university.

There were five sections in each test for a total score of 56 points. Section A consisted of two questions valued at 5 points for each correct answer. Section B consisted of three questions valued at 5 points for each correct answer. Section C consisted of one problem that asked students to arrange phrases into a conversation. There was only one possible solution, and this was valued at 5 points. Section D consisted of three sample conversations and the students were asked to judge the appropriateness of the conversations on a scale of 1 to 7. Seven points were given for a correct answer with 6 points allotted for a second level judgment. Section E consisted of a video display with four possible answers to complete an adjacent pair part. There was only one possible solution, and this was valued at 5 points. These values are depicted in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3. *Test Sections and Scoring*

Section A	Section B	Section C	Section D	Section E	Total Score
2 Questions x 5=10	3 Questions x 5=15	1 Question x 5=5	3 Questions x 7=21	1 Question x 5=5	10 Questions 56

The pretest and posttest were evaluated using Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates for each section (see Table 5.4). The same questions used for the posttest were also used for the delayed posttest. The two versions of the test, pre- and post-, had the same section types and numbers of questions but with different questions of similar content and structure. Of the five sections, however, only three were calculated using this measurement because sections C and E only consisted of one question and thus did not adhere to the criteria for Cronbach's alpha. Yet, these questions were important to provide targeted data for evaluating pragmatic competence for the test as a whole. The internal consistency estimates for Sections A (0.74) and D (0.67) were demonstrated as statistically significant; however, Section B (0.33) was low in reliability because of one question that appeared problematic. Whereas it is possible to remove the question for future analysis, it was left in because it provided a balance to the other two questions in the section. The question may have been too easy compared to the other questions, but including it in the analysis balanced the possible difficulty of the other two questions within the range of statistical significance. The total score for both versions was within range of acceptable reliability.

Table 5.4. *Cronbach's Alpha*

	Total	**Section A**	**Section B**	**Section D**
Pretest n = 107	0.75	0.74	0.33	0.67
Posttest n = 83	0.75	0.52	0.40	0.72

To establish the validity of the testing model, the total number of students

that participated in the pretest was 107. This allowed a large sample for determining statistical significance of the testing instrument. Eighty-three of those students participated in the posttest.

The validity was tested using measurement equation modeling through AMOS, and a tested model of greeting pragmatic competence was created. Specifically, in the model, sections A through E have paths to the total, which indicates that scores in these five sections represent elements for understanding of greeting speech acts. According to these data, $\chi^2 = .105$, $d/f = 2$ proved a p-value = .94, which is considered not significant. This result indicated that this model can be adopted. RMR = .09 is close to 0, which indicated a good fit. GFI = .99 with the AGFI = .99 are both close to 1, which indicated this model is valid. This result shows that the test questions are structured in such a way as to allow the students' responses and subsequent scoring to demonstrate understanding of the greeting speech act.

5.3. Real-Life Assessment

A real-life (Bachman, 1990) assessment of a greeting situation was created as part of the overall study.[17]An effective real-life assessment has two main requirements. First, it requires an experience as close to real life as possible, in which greetings are genuinely necessary to avoid an impolite or socially uncomfortable experience. The value of using a real-life performance is that it creates a "situation in which proficiency is normally demonstrated" (Clark, 1975, p. 26). Second, it requires a method for measuring how the students manage the speech act. The challenge for

[17] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From pp. 131-132) This reproduced passage will continue to p. 71.

designing assessments of authentic speech acts is the difficulty of observing students in a naturally occurring setting. The assessment process must:

1. Prompt students to use a specific speech act in an original and responsive manner in a way which allows them to demonstrate both ability and intention (Searle, 1969).
2. Reliably enable a relevant speech act to occur so that assessment can take place (see Bella, 2014; Ishihara, 2003; Takimoto, 2009b, for problems encountered with assessing authentic apologies, compliments, and requests).
3. Provide students with situations where the speech act would normally occur and prompt the choice to play an appropriate role in the exchange.
4. Take place within the freestyle nature of conversation. Since choice is essential in polite and appropriate language use, the occasion for making choices needs to be intrinsically part of the test.

This part of the assessment process responded to the research question: Can an observable, yet naturally occurring, scenario be devised to demonstrate students' use of pragmatic knowledge?[18]

5.3.1. The Testing Scenario

[19]A controlled observation of a greeting situation was created in which students were paired. To ensure a focus on greetings between people who did not

[18] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

[19] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 133) This reproduced passage will continue to page 73.

know each other, non-acquainted students were paired. Since greetings occur in the first moments of an interaction, the engagement was short.

Two students were asked to enter a classroom with a short delay between them. A 13-year old female NS of American English was already seated in the classroom. This girl had recently arrived in Japan and was unaccustomed to Japanese styles of greeting, which allowed her to respond and interact as a typical US teenager. Although the girl was younger that the Japanese participants, her height and style of dress made her look like a peer to those Japanese university students. Participants were informed they would be recorded, but the recording device was hidden from view (following the style of Labov, 1972).

Unlike other studies (Ishihara, 2003; Takimoto, 2009a), the students received no preparation about either the context or the focus of the meeting. As is customary in American social practice, it was anticipated that when two people who did not know each other met, some greeting would occur, and that when the third person joined them, another greeting would follow. The American girl also received minimal instruction regarding language or method. She was asked to initiate a greeting only if no greeting was initiated by a participant after a delay of approximately five seconds.

It was hypothesized that when the first student entered the room and encountered a foreign girl who made eye contact, the pair would begin interacting with an *introductory greeting* or *chat greeting* (e.g., “How are you?” or “How’s it going?”). Likewise, an *introductory greeting* could be followed naturally by a *chat* pattern (e.g., “Where are you from?”). When the second student entered the room, it was possible that a *greeting on the run* with a fellow student would occur, leading to

the need to focus attention on the unique element of a foreign girl in the room. This attention might follow the *chat* pattern if the second student entered the conversation. However, given the natural setting, the second student also might have chosen to exchange an *introductory greeting* with the girl.

The scenario had several discrete actions that led to the potential for unplanned, natural greetings. The participants were gathered in a computer room where they were seated with headphones and a listening/speaking task, minimizing contact among them. The American girl was seated in a room across the hallway looking at an iPad. One participant was called to enter the room alone, while the facilitators made special efforts not to interact with that student. The accepted Japanese custom in this situation suggests the participant could either choose to greet the seated girl or to stand and wait for something to happen.

The girl was instructed to make eye contact with the entering participant but not to initiate the greeting unless there was silence for about five seconds in which circumstance her most common opening greeting was "Hello." After 30 seconds, they were joined by a third participant. It was hypothesized that at this point some greetings would occur. For example, a greeting might occur between the two Japanese students if no contact had been made with the American girl, or the second Japanese student might join the conversation already underway by greeting both parties. The entire scenario lasted a maximum of three minutes, after which the American girl ended the conversation and the participants returned to the computer room.[20]

[20] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

5.3.2. Assessment Rubric

[21]The audio-recorded greetings were assessed using a rubric that enabled researchers to record observations about the role and influence of context in individual greetings performances (see Figure 5.1).

Oral Performance					
	Descriptor (points)	**Descriptor (points)**	**Descriptor (points)**	**Descriptor (points)**	**Descriptor (points)**
Greeting Timing (Delay in response or initiation)	Silence (1)	Long delay (2)	Moderate delay (3)	Minimal delay (4)	No delay (5)
Language and Phrasing (appropriateness)	Inappropriate (1)	Deficient (2)	Adequate (3)	Good (4)	Very good (5)
Active Participation	Inadequate (1)	Deficient (2)	Adequate (3)	Good (4)	Very good (5)
Overall Impression	Poor (2)	Deficient (4)	Adequate (6)	Good (8)	Very good (10)

Total Score ___/25

Strategy used

	Initiation	Participation
Introductory greeting	☐	☐
Chat greeting	☐	☐
Greeting on the run	☐	☐

Figure 5.1. Assessment Rubric for Measuring Greetings in an Applied Performance Test.

The rubric was calibrated with colleagues who served as raters and revised to account for their experiences using it. The rubric tracked the greeting strategy used as well as four criteria for evaluation: greeting timing in terms of delay in response

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or initiation; appropriateness of language and phrasing; active participation; and the rater's overall impression. The criteria for the rubric were adapted from research in communicative language competence testing (Paltridge, 1992; Pillar, 2012; Swain, 1985), and they were used as prompts for the raters to assess numerically and by quality. Raters themselves were calibrated through a series of rubric norming sessions.[22]

The first criterion for the rubric was "Greeting Timing (Delay in Response or Initiation)," referred to as Element 1. Any delay in a response in communication suggests a lack of command of the language being used, but it also could represent a refusal to engage or an inability to make choices in greetings. For calibration, the raters participated in data sessions in which a general agreement on how long a delay would be awkward in the given scenario. It was determined that 5-8 seconds would be considered a long delay and might be interpreted as marked. This would most likely trigger the native speaker to open the conversation on her own with a greeting. An interesting variable in the rater pool was that one of the raters was British and automatically assessed the speech act with a negative politeness view. The other three were American: East coast, West coast, and Alaska. One might have different views of how long is too long, but the calibration exercises normed the raters and the scores were averaged to increase accuracy.

The second criterion was "Language and Phrasing," referred to as Element 2. Students were observed to learn whether they used the taught target language functions or made personal choices, either of which would suggest some degree of

[22] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

proficiency. This language and phrasing is defined in Table 5.1 as head acts.

The third criterion was "Active Participation," which related to the speaker's apparent intent and comprehensibility, referred to as Element 3. Intention itself is difficult to assess, so this criterion references whether the speaker spoke a friendly or a business-like greeting or was not proficient and demonstrated lack of awareness that a greeting should occur—any of which is suggestive of apparent intention. Comprehensibility references the apparent experience of the interlocutor regarding whether he or she could understand the speaker's apparent intention and respond in an appropriate manner.

The final criterion was simply an opportunity for observers to record an overall impression, referred to as Element 4. Its goal was to prompt observers to determine whether the conversation was marked in any way, leading to a successful greeting interaction or causing confusion or a breakdown in communication. The numerical assessment for this criterion was doubled, leading to a possible total of 25 points, which easily could be translated to a 100-point scale.

5.4. Instructional Goals

[23]The framework used to design the assessment process took Takahashi and Beebe's (1987) positive correlation hypothesis as its starting point, "predicting that second language proficiency is positively correlated with pragmatic transfer" (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 157). In developing this process, examples from

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recognized patterns of natural occurrences of the greeting speech act (Kakiuchi, 2005) and casual conversation (Ventola, 1979) were used. To this end, the choices made indicate appropriateness of the patterns used when participating in the speech act. Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross (1996) noted that awareness of relative social status, appropriateness, and politeness style can be observed in the performance of linguistic actions. The goal, therefore, was an applied performance test placing students in an actual or simulated setting where they would naturally engage in the task being assessed (Jones, 1985). The protocols were intended to prompt one or more of the three target structures of *introductory greeting, chat greeting,* and *greeting on the run*. This greetings interaction was accomplished by placing strangers in a room where the first natural interaction would be a greeting.[24] Using language and patterns observed in the pilot study the following flow chart was developed (see Figure 5.2).

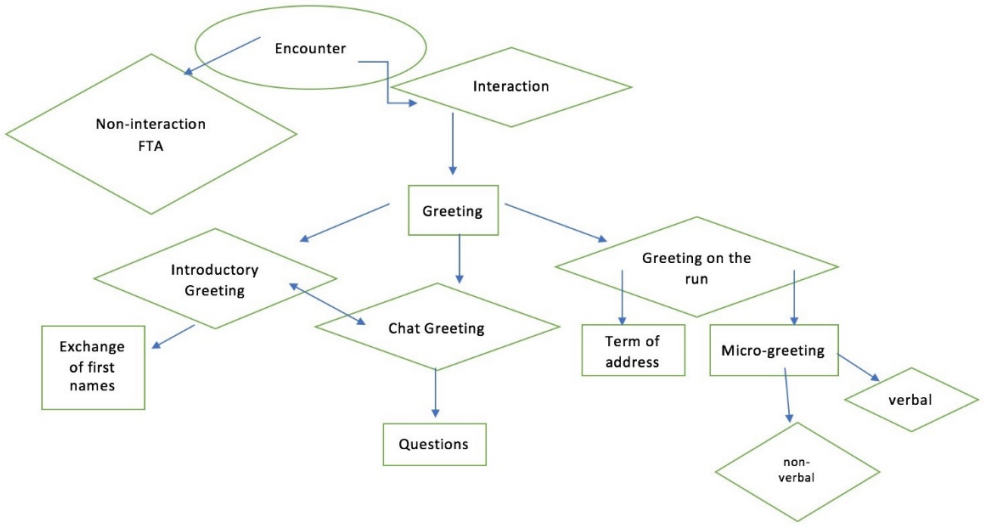

Figure 5.2. A Model for Applied Performance Greeting (Source: Original).

[24] This is the end of the cited passage from the journal article.

The model of the applied performance greeting as shown in Figure 5.2 demonstrates the process that a participant can use in order to participate in the greeting speech act within the applied production test. This process begins at the encounter where interlocutors need to make a choice about whether they will interact with other participants or not. If they choose to participate, the typical first speech act in this interaction is usually a greeting. Although there are other speech acts that can be chosen, if the applied production test was properly designed the greeting would be the most likely choice. As Bialystok (1993) indicated, participation in a speech act is all about making choices. The next choice depends on the context interlocutors recognize within the situation; they would have one of three choices that were taught: the *introductory greeting*, the *chat greeting*, or the *greeting on the run*. Each of these choices lead to additional speech act choices from exchanging first names to asking questions, considering terms of address, or performing micro-greetings. Such choices form the greeting speech acts that were observed in the Applied Production test.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS

6.1. Summary of Main Study Research Design

To examine the effectiveness of explicit and implicit greeting instructions in this main study, computer-based pretests, posttests, and delayed tests as well as a test of applied productive oral performance were conducted. The computer-based tests were conducted using the Glexa system, an integrated computer system made available to students at the private university's internal computer system. This system was specially designed to allow video-based testing. This unique ability allowed the test taker to watch a video that is paused at a pre-determined time during which questions would be displayed. This ability was an essential part of choice of this system for this study.

Fifty-one subjects completed all five sections of the computer based test, deleting outliers. Analysis of this data was conducted using repeated-measures ANOVA to compare and analyze the variables apparent in the three groups.

A test of applied productive oral performance was conducted immediately after the posttest. A custom-designed real-life assessment process was used in a university setting in Japan. The results of a rubric developed for the study were evaluated with four raters for accuracy. These raters were calibrated to represent the most accurate representation of a performance of the targeted speech act. Only 36 students completed all five sections of the computer test and had usable data from the Applied Production test: 11 from the control, 12 from the implicit pragmatic instruction group, and 13 from the explicit treatment group. This group of 36 students served as the main study data for the applied production test analysis. After this evaluation, some extracts from the oral performance were examined to determine

specific examples that indicated the results of oral performance test. In this chapter, after the variables in this study are clarified, the results of computer-based tests and tests of applied productive oral performance will be presented. Then, the discourse analysis will be presented to exemplify findings in the productive oral performance test.

6.1.1. Variables

In this section, independent variables and dependent variables in this study are described. Then, variables that may influence the results of this study are identified. This section also clarifies the limitation of this study in interpreting the research results.

The independent variables for this study are the difference in educational treatment such as implicit instruction, explicit instruction, and the control group with no pragmatic instruction on computer-based and applied-production testing. These differences have played an important role in the development of this study. Many native language users discover effective strategies for communication by utilizing the implicit instruction to bring attention to these differences and then making adjustments to their own patterns of use. On the other hand, through explicit instruction students are shown examples and the differences are overtly explained.

The intended dependent variables in this study were awareness of the greeting speech act measured in the computer-based tests and greeting skills measured in applied oral performance tests. These variables may also be influenced by the learner's language proficiency and exposure to the target language. Possible influences of these two factors are identified as limitations of this study. As to proficiency, the students who participated in the study were given a type of

placement test to place them in one of the six levels in the program, but this test was not standardized or verified. Moreover, the placement test did not test speaking ability. As a result, many students with high levels of communicative competence were placed in lower classes. The TOEIC and placement test scores for the students in this study ranged from 480 – 520. For this reason, students with some experience performing greetings with native speakers may have shown a greater ability to perform more competently and recognize appropriate patterns for use in the testing over students with little or no experience.

Regarding non-school-based exposure to the target language, only two students were found to have any exposure more than a short vacation in a country that used the target language. This small number indicated that the effect of non-school-based exposure to the target language could not be determined from this study.

6.1.2. Pre-, Post-, and Delayed Post Tests

6.1.2.1. Computer-Based AJT, DCT, PIT and LT

Sixty complete, usable data sets including pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest data emerged from the collection process. These data sets were in no way manipulated or selected to enhance results and the researcher believes that the final data sets represent a fair random sampling of the group total.

The results showed that Treatment Group 2 with explicit instruction performed only moderately better than the other two groups, Control Group and Treatment Group 1, which used implicit instruction. The Treatment Group 2 did not retain the positive effects of the treatment between the posttest and delayed posttest

Takimoto's studies showed a greater difference between the pragmatic treatments and the control group (2009a).

The result of Levene's test for covariance indicated no significance (p=.190), which means that covariance of the three groups can be assumed. Treatment 1 with the mean score of 25.6 (SD=9.4), Treatment 2 with a mean score of 27.6 (SD=6.9), and Control Group with the mean score of 27.8 (SD=10.2) did not have statistically significant differences (t-value= .669, df=49, p= .407). This result showed that all three groups were relatively similar at the pretest. These results allowed for a t-test to be conducted.

The t-test results for the three groups' (Control Group, Treatment Group 1, and Treatment Group 2) in the pretest were statistically non-significant (*t*=203, *df*=58, *p*=0.25), indicating that the three groups were tested at a similar level of understanding of the speech act of greetings. In order to delete outliers from the samples, cases over 46.8 (mean score + 1 standard deviation) and those under 10.1 (mean score – 1 standard deviation) in the pretest were eliminated as demonstrated in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. *Descriptive Statistics for Each Group Deleting Outliers*

Test (Total score)	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pretest (56)	Control	27.88	10.25	17
	Treatment 1 (Implicit)	25.63	9.45	11
	Treatment 2 (Explicit)	27.60	6.95	23
	Total	27.27	8.57	51
Posttest (56)	Control	27.64	11.49	17
	Treatment 1 (Implicit)	25.27	12.43	11
	Treatment 2 (Explicit)	34.91	11.15	23
	Total	30.41	12.07	51
Delayed posttest (56)	Control	26.11	6.42	17
	Treatment 1 (Implicit)	25.81	6.64	11
	Treatment 2 (Explicit)	31.47	8.34	23
	Total	28.47	7.76	51

Extreme outliers were deleted with the understanding that those who scored in the low range may have suffered from technical difficulties or did not understand the questions; they were deleted at the highest level because students who scored perfect or near-perfect scores may have had other exposure to greeting practices. The test questions were not complicated or particularly marked, and some basic understanding would greatly improve results. Eight cases with the score of 51 and 56, two standard deviations, as well as one with the score of 5, one standard deviation, were eliminated from the samples. As a result, 11 cases were taken from Treatment Group 1; 23 cases were taken from Treatment Group 2, which combined

the two explicit treatment groups; and 17 cases were taken from the Control Group. Together, these cases created a set of (N=51).

Results of Box's M test of equality of covariance and Mauchly's test of Sphericity were non-significant, and the data satisfied the requirements for repeated measures ANOVA. Results of the test of within-subject effects indicated that neither the main effect of time (F=2.02, df=2, n.s.) nor the interaction between time and group (F=1.98, df=2, n.s.) were observed.

Using these three groups, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. The groups (Control Group, Treatment Group 1, and Treatment Group 2) were the between-subject variable and time (pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) which was the inter-subject variable.

The Control Group showed a mean score transition: 27.8(SD=10.25) for the pretest, 27.6 (SD= 11.49) for posttest, and 26.1 (SD= 6.42) for delayed posttest. Treatment Group 1's mean score indicated a transition of 25.6 (SD=9.45) for pretest, 25.2 (SD=12.43) for posttest, and 25.8 (SD= 6.64) for delayed posttest, and Treatment Group 2's mean score indicated a transition of 27.6 (SD=6.95) for pretest, 34.9 (SD=11.15) for posttest, and 31.4 (SD= 8.34) for delayed posttest (see Table 6.1.)

In the study, time's main effect and interaction between time and group were not recognized. Consequently, for this category the findings were inconclusive that the explicit teaching of the greeting speech act improved learners' pragmatic competence.

Since neither the time's main effect nor the interaction between time and group were recognized, further analysis regarding these factors did not seem

necessary; however, to see a potential tendency, a post-hoc analysis was performed using Bonferoni's method. In the pretest, there was no significant difference between the treatment groups and control group. However, in the posttest, the difference between the Control Group and Treatment Group 2 (explicit group) was significant ($p= .002$) at the level of $\alpha= .01$, and in the delayed posttest, it was significant ($p= .042$) at the level of $\alpha= .05$. Between the Control Group and Treatment Group 1 (implicit group), there was no significant difference. Nonetheless, the results of the test of between-subject effects indicated that the main effect of the group was significant ($F=3.59$, $df=2$, n.s.). Thus, according to the data set, the Treatment Group 2 performed slightly better than the Control Group and Treatment Group 1 in these tests.

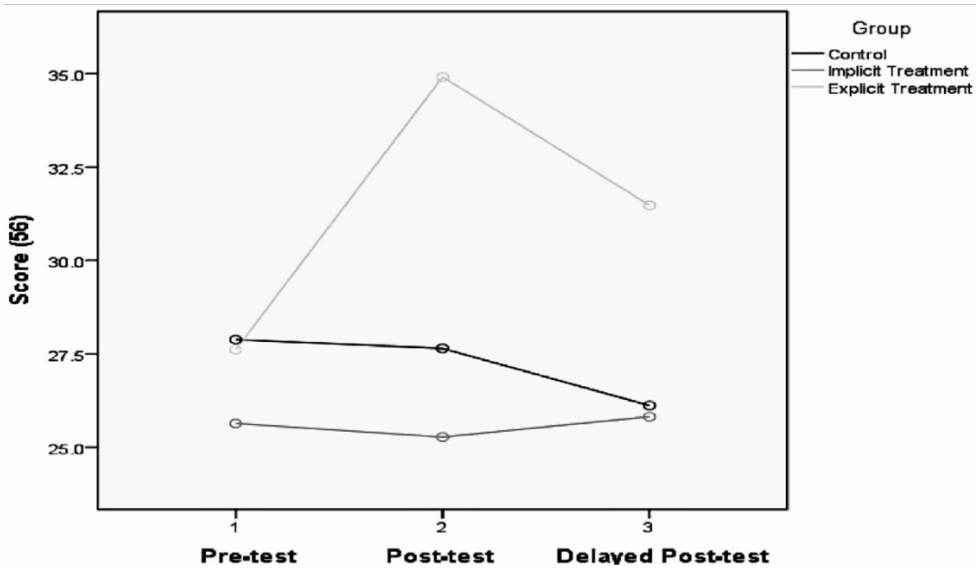

Figure 6.1. (Graph) Transitions of Computer Test Scores.

The results of the repeated-measures ANOVA show only a slight increase between pretest and posttest for the Control and Explicit groups, and no significant difference

between the Control and Implicit groups. The top line, representing the Explicit treatment group, is 7 points above the Control group from pretest to post test.

6.1.3. Test of Applied Productive Oral Performance

The part of the study conducted immediately after the posttest used a custom-designed real-life assessment process in a university setting in Japan. Because many different combinations of greetings were possible, a wide variety were observed and recorded. Table 6.2 shows frequencies of strategies across the three groups: C (Control), T1 (Implicit Instruction), and T2 (Explicit Instruction).

Table 6.2. *Frequencies of Strategies (Raw Numbers)*

Greeting Type	C Frequency	T1 Frequency	T2 Frequency
Introductory Greeting	11	12	13
Chat Greeting	4	5	10
Greeting on the Run	1	5	7
N = 36	n = 11	n = 12	n = 13

[25]Only 12% (n = 4) of the 36 participants initiated a greeting whereas the remaining 88% (n = 32) participated in but did not initiate any greetings. The choice of whether to initiate was created by the interaction scenario, but students were expected to participate in some way. Fulfilling this expectation demonstrated their

[25] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From pp. 135-136) This reproduced passage will continue to p. 88.

awareness of the context, which enabled them to demonstrate communicative competence.

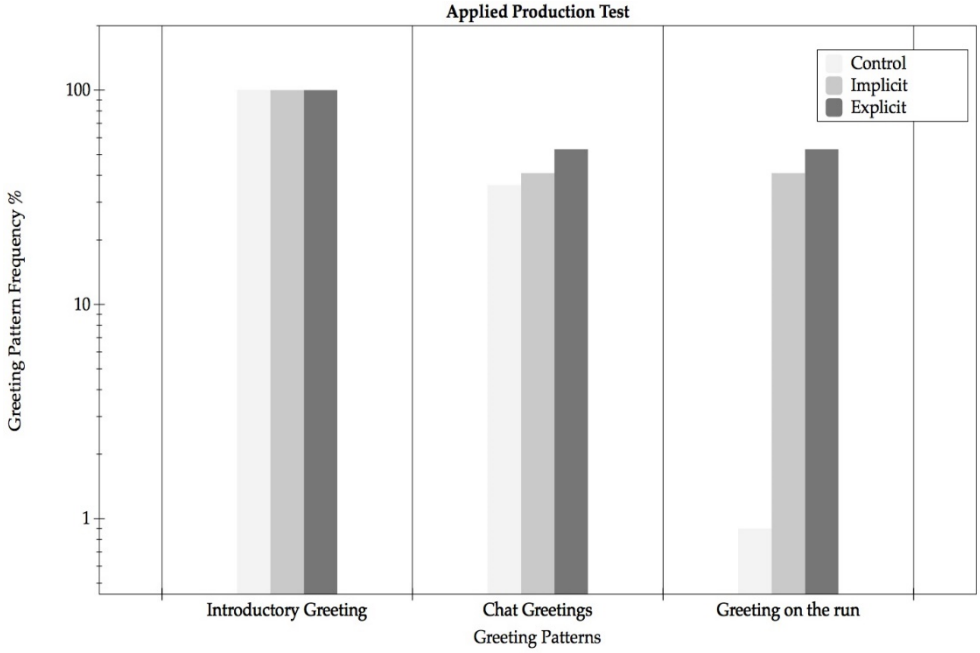

Figure 6.2. Greeting Pattern Frequency in Percentages.

Figure 6.2 illustrates that all three greeting types were used although not in equal proportions. All 36 participants used *introductory greeting* patterns. This basic strategy was expected because of the attention formal *introductory greeting*s are given in High School English: they included using both the first and last names. While 94% (n = 34) used the expression "Nice to meet you," only 6% (n = 2) completed the adjacent pair part with "Nice to meet you, too." In lower scoring exchanges, participants typically remained silent until the native speaker initiated the conversation. *Chat greetings* were second most common, and these have notably

been part of the recent CLT curriculum in high school. *Greetings on the run* were lowest in frequency and are not addressed in the high school CLT curriculum.[26]

It was observed, however, that both treatment groups made better use of the target structures introduced in the treatment sessions. This finding was not necessarily demonstrated in the computer tests, and it does demonstrate some effect from both the implicit and explicit treatments. The largest effect seems to be on the *greeting on the run* pattern which while not something that transfers from L1 both treatments groups performed better in these areas although the actual numbers are not significant due to the small study groups.

Even though the data did not support the hypothesis that pragmatic instruction, both implicit and explicit, would better affect the students' abilities to perform greeting in a real-life scenario, it was evident that all the students used communication strategies when placed in the performance test and that all the students were able to make a successful greeting even though they were not necessarily similar to native speaker norms. Figure 6.3 shows the distribution of scores across all the categories in the rubric. A score of 60 represented a passable demonstration of the greeting speech act as allowed by the raters. This passable score meant that the student could perform a greeting that was both appropriate and acceptable within the context of the applied production test as determined by the rubric.

[26] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

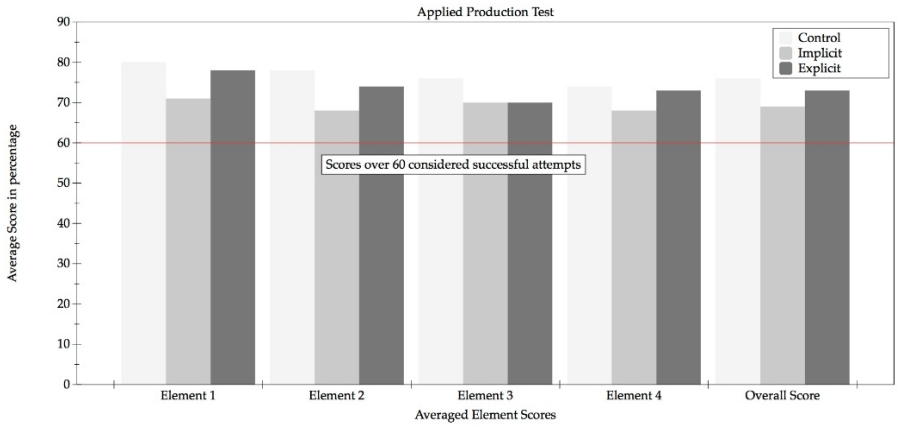

Figure 6.3. Distribution of Scores for the Applied Production Test.

6.2. Discussion

6.2.1. Computer-Based Test

In this study, there were three simultaneous types of instructional method applied to the Treatment Group 2, the explicit group, to improve their pragmatic competence levels: explicit pragmatic instruction, awareness-raising tasks, and input-based instructional methods. For Treatment Group 1, the implicit group, two types of pragmatic instruction were applied; the awareness raising task was up to the students to observe, but the input-based instruction was applied and practiced. The impact of the instruction was measured by two versions of a test with questions developed to evaluate pragmatic competence by observing the student's ability to recognize patterns and phrases and to demonstrate awareness of pragmatic context. Test results indicated that Treatment Group 2 showed some improvement from the pretest to the posttest. However, Treatment Group 1 did not appear to show any improvement. This difference might be attributed to an effect of the students' level or an effect of the instructors' attention to the implicit exercises available in the textbook. It was expected that the two treatment groups, both explicit and implicit instruction, would

have a greater effect that the Control Group, but this was not shown in data as demonstrated in Figure 6.3; the Control Group scored higher in the four elements described.

There are two possible explanations for the gain attained by experimental instructional methods. One reason could be that the instructional methods were effective in conveying meaning to the students in the treatment group, helping them to process the input in such a way that allowed them to recognize the patterns and phrases introduced. Upon recognizing these patterns and phrases, they could respond effectively within the testing structure. The other reason could be that the treatment group spent a longer period of time working with more intensive attention on pragmatic elements within the nine weeks of instruction and that this extended exposure and practice caused the improvement. It has been shown in other studies on improving pragmatic awareness (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Kasper, 2000) that the length of exposure to the target language is a key factor in this development. In addition, practicing the target form such that the student uses the target structure in some way has been shown to improve performance in assessment tests. In either case, little significance was observed among the three groups in the computer-based test. It appears that the two treatments did not show any significant effect in the students' performance on the computer test. The explicit treatment group showed a small increase between the pretesting and posttesting, but these few points of difference cannot be considered significant.

Although the delayed posttest showed little improvement in Treatment Group 1, Treatment Group 2 attained a higher significant gain, and that gain decreased at a smaller scale than for the Control Group. However, these gains were small, and the

researcher does not believe they were significant enough to prove an effect. These differences could be attributed to the variables of time, instructional method, and individual focus; the results do not indicate that the experimental instructional methods made statistically significant differences.

This change seems small compared to Takimoto's main effect from pretest to posttest (see figure 6.4). He said of his study (2009a), that gains from the pre-tests to the post-tests and the follow-up tests were made: "$F (3, 56) = 127.12, p = .000$; $F (3, 56) = 178.42, p = .000$" (p. 1036). Positive effects were also observed for the three treatments: "$F (2, 42) = .58, p = .566$" (p. 1036). He concluded that the effects of instruction "were greater on the post-test and the follow-up test than on the pre-test. Furthermore, the interaction shows the relative superiority of the three treatment groups over the control group with no crossovers between the three treatment groups and the control group after the treatments" (p. 1036).

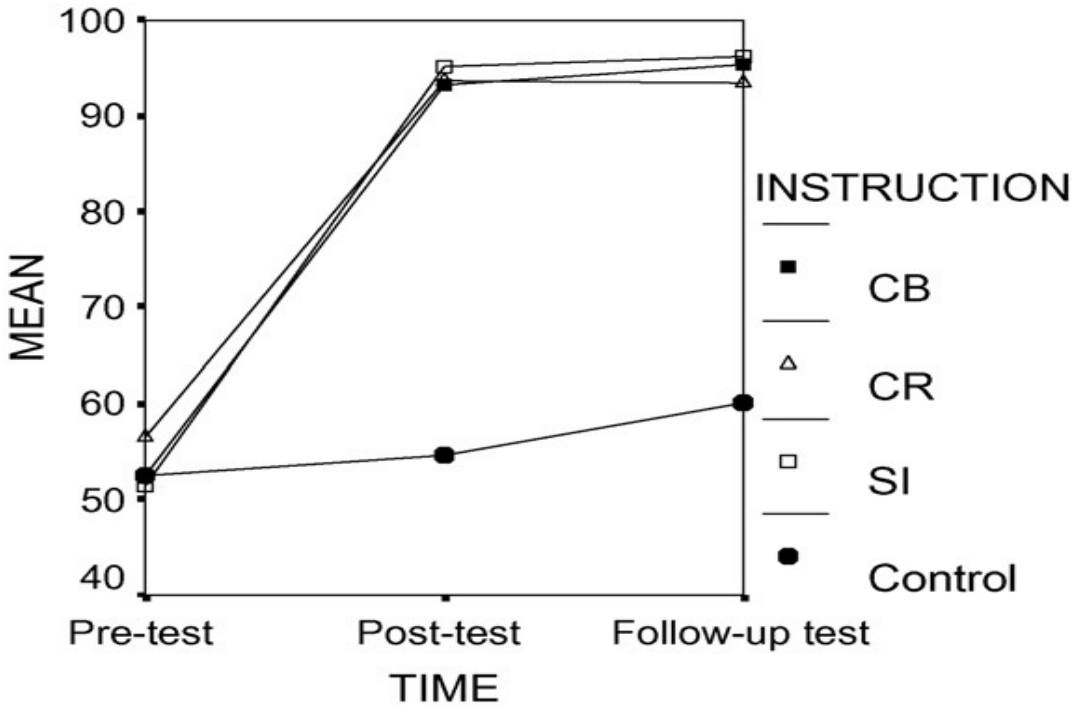

Figure 6.4. Interaction plot for DCT. Note. CB = comprehension-based instruction; CR = consciousness-raising instruction; SI = structured input instruction. Reprinted from Takimoto, M. Exploring the effects of input-based treatment and test on the development of learners' pragmatic proficiency. *Journal of Pragmatics* 41 (2009a) p. 1037. Copyright 2017 by Elsevier. Reprinted with permission.

Takimoto's (2009a) results showed a much greater increase between the control and treatment groups. Therefore, the results from my study do not demonstrate the same effectiveness of the explicit teaching of the greeting speech act because of unknown variables related to the time of the treatment period (see Figure 6.2).

As stated earlier as a possible driving point of this research, these results support the idea that discrete point testing is not an effective way to assess a student's ability to demonstrate their communicative competence, in this case, with greetings (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

When compared with Takimoto's (2009a) findings, the results suggest that

the methods used in this study show potential as valid forms of assessment for pragmatic instruction in the Japanese language classroom. The results from the applied production test provided additional data that may support some effect of the treatments, but the results did not demonstrate any significance.

6.2.2. Test of Applied Productive Oral Performance

[27]The findings from applied productive oral performance indicate that most of the participants possessed an ability to participate appropriately when placed in a situation that required the target function of greetings with an unknown native American-English speaker. In particular, students demonstrated proficiency in initiating exchanges using an *introductory greeting* but less awareness of when and/or how to use the *chat* and *greeting on the run patterns,* which were explicit parts of instruction. These findings suggest that the applied performance test offered a genuine context for eliciting student greetings, and the rubric appeared to be sufficient for numerically scoring discrete elements of the greeting.[28] The following examples are coded (see Appendix F) with standard conversation analysis symbols (Schegloff, 2007).

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[27] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 138)

[28] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

[29]Raters observed close to three seconds of hesitation before participants opened the conversation (see Figure 6.5). Figure 6.5 illustrates the time delay in full seconds and emphasizes hesitation within the language used. Even though the language used is common within the framework of the speech act, the long pauses make it seem inauthentic and uncertain. The act of hesitation or immediacy of greeting was important to demonstrating whether the student had the ability to participate with some awareness of this *introductory greeting* pattern. As an element of testing, increased hesitation received a lower score.

01 S1	(3.1)/ Hello.
02 NS	He↑llo↓. (2.1)
03 NS	Hi my name is (FN).
04 S1	Ah, (0.2) [my] name is (.) (FN).(LN)=
	=>nice to meet you<
05 NS	Nice to meet you too. (3.2)

Key: NS = native speaker, S1 = the first non-native speaker to enter the room.

Figure 6.5. Introductory Greeting.

Because all the participants either initiated or participated in the introductory exchange, the *chat* greeting was not as prevalent in the data. A *chat* exchange can be seen in Figure 6.6. The first adjacency pair part involved a repair pattern at line 02 in which "Hi" was replaced with "Halo." A second repair at line 09 occurred with an attempt to change the question formation, yet the mistake of using "what" instead of

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"where" occurred. Neither of these repairs affected the flow of the conversation. In addition to the basic patterns from high school, some students used alternate patterns, such as "How are you?" One key point of the assessment was the increase in adjacency pair types included in *chat* type greetings. Some longer pauses within the framework of the greeting may indicate direction choice at line 09, but they did not affect the overall flow. It should also be noted that a *chat* greeting when used by native speakers can have a longer exchange and allows an exchange of information, which can be seen in Figure 6.6.

01 NS	(1.5) Hello.
02 S1	(1.0) Halo. (( ))
	(.5) >Hi↑<
03 NS	Oh hi.
04 NS	My name is (First name)
05 S1	ahh. And my name is (First name)(Last name)
06 NS	Yeah↑, nice to meet you.
07 S1	Nice to meet you. (..) Um oh how are↑ you↓
08 NS	Good, how about you.
09 S1	I'm pretty good. (6.0) But to are you, what are you from?
10 NS	I':m from Maryland. It's in Ame:rica near Washington: DC.
11 S1	Yeah.
12 NS	Yeah, what abo:ut you↑
13 S1	Me
14 NS	Yeah.
15 S1	I am from (()).

Figure 6.6. Introductory Greeting Followed by a *Chat* Pattern.

In terms of natural American-English greetings, the *chat* pattern was the most natural as indicated by the raters, as shown in Figure 6.7. Walking into a room in which another person sits should produce a simple greeting that acknowledges the other person and some form of approach pattern as described by (Ventola, 1979). In

this case, as Figure 6.7 demonstrates, two students introduced a pattern consisting of the phrase "What's up?" followed by the exchange of information.

01 S2 Hi.
02 NS Hi.
03 S2 What's up? (…)
04 NS Not much.(...) what about you?
05 S2 (hhh) fine.
06 NS My name is (First name)., what's your name?
07 S2 My name is (First name) (Last name).
08 NS Nice meeting you.

Figure 6.7. Chat Greeting Followed by an *Introductory Pattern*.

An interesting occurrence, as shown in Figure 6.8, occurred regarding silence when faced with an unknown context for greetings. This example illustrates S1's *greeting on the run* attempt.

01 S2 .hhh (1.8)
02 S1 ahh (.) My name is, >(FN)<
03 S2 Oh↓ (3.6)

Figure 6.8. Greeting on the Run.

Whereas a DCT would not be able to determine how a student might respond in that situation, this lifelike applied performance test enabled the instructor to consider why and how a response may have occurred. Both observation and later review of the rubric scorings revealed that few students were aware of the *greeting on the run*. The first student of the pair (S1) shown in Figure 6.7 went so far as to introduce himself when the second student entered, but he was met with "Oh" as a response from S2 instead of an attempt to complete the second part of the adjacent

pair type. This failure to receive an appropriate greeting response did not affect the flow of the conversation, but it was noticed by all the raters; consequently, S2 was marked down from 4 to 3 in the overall impression section.[30]

A further examination of the data demonstrated certain aspects of the patterns used that provided the raters with a better understanding of the ability of the students to participate effectively in the exchanges. Looking at two more exchanges can provide a better framework for developing a pedagogy to improve performance and understanding of the greeting speech act and could be applied to other speech acts. What makes a good exchange as scored by the raters is explained in the following analysis. This analysis also helps to consider what might be part of effective pedagogy for instruction in greetings. This issue is further explained in detail in Chapter 7.

To further analyze the conversations produced in the study, Figures 6.9 and 6.10 below provide two example exchanges. The first exchange was rated as poor by the raters. The second exchange was rated as high, or extremely good, by the raters. As explained earlier, nearly all the students demonstrated adequate performance ratings and were marked as having an ability to perform adequate greetings in the applied performance part of the testing.

Schegloff (2007) and others (Psathas, 1995; Sacks, 1984) have indicated pragmatics research data must be naturally occurring. The applied production test was developed for this study in an attempt to create a situation where a naturally occurring exchange would happen. However, in the strictest sense of conversational

[30] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

analysis, these exchanges would be considered experimental and would not fulfill that requirement. Nonetheless, CA still provides an organized and approachable method for analyzing these exchanges. A CA format provides some insight toward understanding how the students were processing this exchange. Therefore, first using Schegloff's (1996) elements described in Chapter 3, two exchanges are provided for review.

In the following analyses, the students are identified by F1, F2, M1, M2 to indicate the gender and order the students enter the room. "F" is for female and "M" is for male. All the students were JNNS. The American-English native speaker was female as described earlier and indicated by NS in the transcript. These analyses consider only the speech act of greeting and how the participants negotiated this act.

The first exchange, shown in Figure 6.9, was scored rather low by the raters. (F1 = 11 and F2=15). F1 was a student in the Control Group while F2 was a student in Treatment Group 2 that received explicit instruction in greetings.

Exchange 1

01 NS [Hello](2.0) Hi my name is ((First name)).
02 F1 [()] (2.0) ...My name is ((First name)) ((Last name)).
03 NS Oh nice to meet you.
04 F1 Nice to meet you too.
05 NS (3.0) It's really warm outside; do you like the warm weather or not so much?
06 F1 (3.0) hhhh. Yes.
07 NS You like it? Yeah me too.
07 F1 (5.0) Do you like Japanese food?
09 NS Yeah, I do. What's your favorite ... umm, type of food?
10 F1 (3.0) ()
11 NS What was that (2.0) Um, What would you recommend(.) Japanese food (.) what's your favorite?
12 F1 hhhh. (2.0)
13 NS So what are your hobbies? (.), What are you interested in?
14 F1 (7.0) hhhh. ()
15 NS What was that?
16 F1 .hhhh () (2.3)
17 NS I got bad h:earing. Do you h:ave any pets? ...or an:imals that you like? ((Second student enters)) (.) He↑llo.
18 F2 Hello.
19 NS Hi, my name is ((First name)) (0.5) w:hat's your name?
20 F2 My name is ((First name))((Last name)).
21 NS Nice to meet you.
22 F2 Nice to meet you.
23 NS Do you two know each other?
24 F2 (.) Yes.
25 NS Are you friends or just in the same class?
26 F2 (0.5)...()I ta:lk her (0.8) yes:terday.

Figure 6.9. Exchange 1 (F1=Control, F2=Treatment [Explicit] NS= Native Speaker).

Regarding the first element in Schegloff's (1996) method of analysis (what actions or action are being accomplished), the action was a greeting. Further analysis would need to account for the student entering a room and finding another person present, possibly a peer, but someone unknown to them. In most cultures, when one enters a room and finds someone present, one strategy would be to formulate a greeting. Once a greeting is completed, then it is possible to engage in small, relatively meaningless talk that further acquaints the interlocutors. Certain phrases and a few sequences were established as being part of a normal exchange of this

type, which provided the raters some points to look for while they were reviewing the exchanges. This, in addition to the rater's ability to determine effectiveness and appropriateness, were part of the overall analysis to provide a score.

In this first exchange, the first student received a low score with the second student receiving a marginally higher score. Regarding Schegloff's (1996) second element of grounding the speech act in the reality of the participants, F1 did not provide the NS with a greeting, or at least it was not audible to the recording equipment, as shown in Lines 1-2. The NS greeted F1 instead. F1 responded to the greeting from the NS with an exchange of names providing both a first name and last name (Line 2). This pattern was a common choice by many students even when the NS only gave her first name. Observations suggest that it may be a common habit of Japanese people to give both a first name and last name. It is, however, curious because in a Japanese greeting scenario, one would say the last name first followed by the first name. This practice may show that giving both names is a strategy to provide the interlocutor with enough information to identify the individual on a role sheet. This practice may be a useful independent variable for greetings testing.

In Line 3, the NS used a response token "Oh" and continued with the, "Nice to meet you" "nice to meet you" adjacency pair parts pattern, which was the most common pattern used throughout the study. In line 4, the NS waited, apparently to allow the student (F1) to initiate the next adjacency pair part; when three seconds passed, she took the turn. In line 5, she made a statement about the weather, followed by a question. The student seemed surprised by the question but managed to complete the adjacency pair part. The NS then tried to further talk about the weather with restating agreement about the heat in line 7. In line 8, F1 asked a question about

food. In line 9, the NS responded and followed up with another question. At this point, the participants were engaged in a small talk condition and moved away from the greeting. The NS continued with this topic but received no response. After two more turns as shown in lines 10-12, the NS changed the topic to hobbies. This is a common topic in small talk exchanges. The NS asked questions, but lines 13-17 were met with silence from F1. In line 17, F2 entered the room. NS initiated a greeting, "Hello." F2 completed the first adjacency pair part with "Hello." In line 19, the NS opened a second adjacency pair with another greeting, "Hi," and an exchange of names. While the NS offered only her first name, F2 responded with her first and last name. Lines 21-22 show the second adjacency pair type with the "nice to meet you" pattern.

In lines 23-26, the NS attempted to set up F1 and F2 for the greeting-on-the-run exchange. The students acknowledged their relationship but failed to greet each other in an obvious manner. It is possible that a micro-greeting occurred through their body language, but such data are not available in the audio recording.

In assessment, the raters recognized the problem as such: F1 failed to provide the second adjacency pair part for a number of the exchanges. This failure did not provide the NS with the information necessary to make turn-taking choices. F1 did provide an *introductory greeting* pattern, and I sense from knowing the student that if the student listened to this exchange, he might express that he either was uncomfortable or inexperienced in carrying out this type of exchange. The register for this type of exchange should be more casual considering the age and situation. Indeed, the formal nature of the *introductory greeting* pattern used by both F1 and F2 could be marked as inappropriate. Exposing the students to video of more casual

exchanges, allowing them to practice the forms with different students, and discussing the choices available to them in discourse completion tasks likely would help to improve performance.

Further instruction involves practice of various choices of patterns and what effect they may have on the hearer. This method has been demonstrated to improve communicative competence at a faster rate and improve retention on computer-based tests (Ishihara, 2003; Takimoto, 2009b).

Exchange 2

01	NS	(2.0) [He↑llo↓.
02	M1	(.) [Hello↓ (5.0) Hi↑, my name is ((First Name)) ((Last Name)).
03	NS	Oh, my name:'s((First name)), nice to meet you.
04	M1	Nice to meet you. (0.5) It's very hot today.
05	NS	Ye:ah it is.
06	M1	hhh. I wore black t-shirt so I'm very very hot.
07	NS	Yeah, I had to change at first (.) I was (.), they told me not sure what the weather's like. So I had like long sleeves on and I took () aside. Nope, this isn't right. (.) ((Second student enters)) [He↑llo, my name is ((First name)), what's your name?
08	M2	[Hello, My name is ((First Name)) ((Last Name)).
09	NS	Nice to meet you.
10	M2	Nice to meet you, too.
11	NS	Do yo:u (.) know each other?
12	M2	No.
13	M1	>No, no, no.<
14	NS	Well, I guess you are m:eeting now.
15	M1	(3.) Wh:ere are you fr:om?
16	NS	I am from Maryland. It's a state. umm, near Washington DC, [in America.
17	M2	[Oh.
18	NS	Yeah.

Figure 6.10. Exchange 2 (M1= Treatment [Implicit] M2=Treatment [Implicit] NS= Native Speaker).

In the second exchange (see Figure 6.10), students received high scores by all the raters. M1 was from Treatment Group 1 and M2 was from Treatment Group 2.

While the data collected did not show that the treatment groups as complete groups scored overall higher than the control group, this analysis suggests useful information for developing a pedagogical approach to speech act instruction, which will be discussed in Chapter 7.

In line 1-2, both the NS and M1 began the exchange with "hello." This exchange served as the first adjacency pair part completed. M1 took the next turn to introduce himself using both his first and last name in line 2. In line 3, the NS offered her first name along and followed this information by using the "nice to meet you" pattern. M1 completed the second adjacent pair part with "nice to meet you" as well and followed this statement with a *chat greeting* pattern describing the weather in line 4. This provided a second adjacency pair type. This placement of the *chat greeting* following the introduction was only observed a few times in the study suggesting that this pattern was not learned within the treatment instruction. This type of greeting pattern is often used by native speakers, so either the few students who used the pattern had experience with this type of encounter or they were able to understand the context for choosing it. In line 5, the NS completed the adjacency pair part with agreement. The turn taking in this exchange was uniform with one speaker taking one turn, followed by the other speaker's turn; they always completed the adjacency pair part by answering a question. This complexity was missing in the first exchange. In line 7, the NS took a long turn describing her clothing choice for the day with respect to the weather. During this long turn, M2 entered. The NS shifted her attention to M2 and provided the first adjacency pair part for M2 with "Hello, my name is ((First name)). What's your name?" M2 completed the adjacency pair part by providing both first and last name. Lines 9-10 show the second adjacency pair

with “nice to meet you” exchanged. In lines 11-14, the NS attempted to encourage a *greeting on the run* between M1 and M2. They did not perform this greeting. By M1’s response of “No, no, no,” it seems that no micro-greeting occurred either. The conversation moved on to small talk from line 15 with M1 taking the turn and asking, “Where are you from?”

It appears that M1 and M2 may have had exposure to meeting and greeting native speakers either within the treatment or in their own experience. For the purposes of this study, it might have been useful to use a questionnaire to find out which students had interacted previously with native English speakers in a casual situation and which students had had no contact.

[31]Participants’ comments about their experiences with greetings collected in a posttest questionnaire (see Appendix E) included such self-deprecating but also insightful remarks as “I think don’t be shy” and “I learned that if I greet someone, I should speak clearly.” They also revealed deeper learning. One student indicated that pragmatic speech is more than words alone: “The most important things I have learned this year about greetings is smile. Good pronounsation *[sic]* and good talking are important, but smile makes people happy, and people can talk confortable *[sic]*. So, I think smile is very important.” Perhaps most interesting were the comments that directly referred to the conversation opportunity with the native speaker. One participant showed remarkable self-understanding about his experience, suggesting

[31] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2017). The assessment process as real-life performance: Rethinking assessment of pragmatic instruction in the Japanese EFL classroom. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 129-140. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 138).

that it had made an impact on him: “I never met a foreigner. I was worried my English wasn’t good. I didn’t talk so much.” Another student clearly found the experience instructive about his need to be an active part of the interchange: “I didn’t know what to say to the other student.” A third participant indicated pleasure and a desire for more interaction in the conversational opportunity: “I wanted more time. It was too short.” These comments suggest that the conversational arrangement among the native speaker and two participants did more than test their pragmatic competence in greetings; it also taught them something about the challenges and opportunities of genuine greetings contexts and gave them a previously unknown metacognitive awareness about greetings.[32]

[32] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

CHAPTER 7: GENERAL DISCUSSION

7.1. Methodological Implications

Improved test scores are one thing, but the ability to demonstrate a better understanding in a real-life situation is a more authentic test of language competence. This research study attempted to demonstrate that a population of students could be taught how to use and understand greetings, an important speech act in every culture. Although more research is needed, greetings—one of the universal speech acts—appear to receive the least attention (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 2000; Krashen, 1985). Additional research with assessments that engage more refined methods of analysis is needed to achieve and demonstrate teaching methods that demonstrably enhance pragmatic awareness of greetings.

[33]The Japanese exchange students whom I chaperoned in Canada in 2013 may have appeared awkward or even rude by their responses to their host families' welcomes; however, what appeared to be inappropriate behavior actually was response illiteracy. Giving EFL students the skills they need to understand language cues from the moment they meet someone in another culture can help them create a lasting relationship, as well as to avert difficult situations with potentially negative results.[34]

In this study, the real-life applied performance test and its accompanying rubric worked well for assessing greetings because they are naturally occurring and

[33] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2016). The pragmatics of greetings: Teaching speech acts in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 54*(1), 2–11. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 11)

[34] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

important interactional tools for communication. It may work similarly well for informal and frequent assessment of pragmatic language acts regardless of whether they are spontaneously produced for the teacher in the classroom setting or in a more controlled but equally natural response scenario such as the one described here. When instructors create lifelike situations deliberately and repeatedly, and when they require students to make choices frequently in real-life contexts, students' language uses can become more appropriate and effortless, possibly due to metacognitive awareness; all these may lead to the fluency and communicative competence that teachers seek for their students.

The development of the applied performance test engaging a real-life pragmatic speech setting reported here represents a necessary first step toward developing additional lifelike performance measurement tools for pragmatic instruction. The logical next step is to quantify the results of the assessment by examining the words used by individual students and comparing how students performed. Such data would offer researchers valuable information about how pragmatic knowledge is gained and how its use fits the rules and conditions presented. Additionally, this work would provide researchers with useful real-life setting protocols for studying the effects of pragmatic instruction in other contexts.

7.2. Overview of Studies

7.2.1. Pilot Study

The pilot study both helped to identify weaknesses in the testing situation and provided target language that was used in the main study. The micro-greeting phenomenon was identified and isolated as a functional variable. Also, due to the

technical logistics of the scenario created for the pilot study, variables and limitations were addressed.

7.2.2. Main Study

As Bardovi-Harlig (2001) indicated, students that receive high discrete test scores do not necessarily demonstrate pragmatic competence and, to that end, they may lack high communicative skill competence. Discrete tests were developed for this study to see whether and how students could learn pragmatic competence that could be shown through their communicative skills.

The results of the pretest and posttest had a small increase with Treatment Group 2, but this increase could have been a result of familiarity with the technology or testing tool because this researcher was the instructor for that group. The number difference was only seven points and, therefore, not significant. This result and that of the non-significant computer-based test suggested a need for additional examination with the applied production test, which assessed the effects of implicit and explicit pragmatic instruction. The strongest group overall in the applied production test was the Control Group, in which all the students provided adequate greetings overall. This surprising result might be attributed to individual level or experience. For example, I was not able to control for students who had studied abroad. I did not learn whether any of the students from the full data set went abroad during the summer break between the post and delayed posttesting. While the data did show a small increase in use of the target structures, *chat greeting*, and *greeting on the run* by Treatment Groups 1 and 2, the fact that the Control Group was rated the highest deserves additional study and consideration.

The quantitative data provided some evidence of increasing student competence in greetings, at least by written test standards where numbers unambiguously suggest results. However, the data from the applied production test produced language to analyze, which clearly is crucial for language studies research. Such data could undergo a variety of different analyses to include word frequency or time lapse. A new study that removes some of the individual variables among students might lead to clearer data. Selecting students based on previous experience with native American-English speaker conversations also might help to reconsider the value of this approach and to analyze the data.

Regarding a need for additional and varied testing to establish some communicative competence, this dissertation study's testing showed that students who receive mid- to low-scores on DCTs compared to students of similar experience and levels can perform adequately in a real-life applied production testing scenario. This ability to perform certainly may assist the students in understanding how they may do in their future English-speaking life; it may also spur them to seek additional opportunities to learn and practice such speech acts as greetings.

The overall study data was inconclusive in that Treatment Groups 1 and 2 in the applied production test did not score higher than the Control Group. However, the tools appear to have tested the subjects with a real-life performance. The question remains regarding what is needed to teach greetings. This question is addressed in the next section regarding effective instruction.

7.3. Effective Instruction

7.3.1. Pedagogical Implications: Teaching Greeting Pragmatics

[35]According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), "The chief goal of instruction in pragmatics is to raise learner's pragmatic awareness and give them choices about their interactions in the target language" (p. 38). It may not seem obvious to language learners how native speakers navigate through these choices. Indeed, even though instructors cannot teach students how to act in every given context, they must provide students with a number of choices in a variety of contexts to enable them to develop a bank of potentially useful options. The typical L2 classroom may provide too few examples of this extremely important phase of communication. As a remedy, instructors can assess the types of situations students encounter and give them a variety of examples within each situation. With some knowledge of the most useful greeting routines and the variety of greetings one might encounter, students can begin to make their own choices and create their own greetings routines, moving them closer to communicative competence in the target language. The goal is to provide input and an environment for interpreting the communicative act (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Although providing more than one or two greeting options may seem like a lot of work, most students will encounter only a few contexts and will not need an unlimited greetings vocabulary such as that experienced in native speakers' lives.[36]

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[35] This passage is cited directly from my article, Zeff, B. (2016). The pragmatics of greetings: Teaching speech acts in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 54*(1), 2–11. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From pp. 3-4)

[36] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

As a result of conducting this study, I was able to isolate some effective practices for teaching greetings in the EFL classroom. I suggest the following four awareness-raising tasks to use in the EFL classroom. These tasks are ideal for students who have had very limited experience communicating with native speakers.

7.3.1.1. Task 1: Keeping a Journal

[37]Journaling is an effective method for self-reflection in language acquisition (DuFon, 1999). Asking students to keep a journal of the greetings they experience in both their own and the target language brings awareness to the function. Classroom instruction on greetings with awareness-raising questions that draw attention to the key points of the greeting speech act allows students to reflect on their own experience and knowledge. Three primary questions in a greeting journal could be:

1. Who are some of the people you greet on a typical day?
2. What expressions do you use when you greet these people?
3. Why do you greet some people differently from others?

These questions prompt students to discuss the kinds of greetings they have experienced with native American-English speakers and with speakers of their own language. Ask students to (1) observe the many differences in the way one greets in an authentic exchange and (2) compare them with the phrases and routines they have learned from their English textbooks while considering how to apply this comparison to experiences a college-level student might encounter. Thinking of situations in

[37] This passage is cited directly with some edits from my article, Zeff, B. (2016). The pragmatics of greetings: Teaching speech acts in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 54*(1), 2–11. It is reproduced here under agreement with the publisher. (From p. 4-10) This reproduced passage will continue to p. 120.

which they would use greetings helps students gain awareness of patterns and routines available to them and what is communicated by their use.

In the instructions for this first activity, students are asked to observe and address in their journals the following three items (based on suggestions made by Brown & Levinson, 1987) daily for one week:

1. **The "role" of two speakers who greet each other.** Is one in a position of power or is each of equal status? (Students may need examples of power versus equality status to imagine their roles concretely.)
2. **The relationship of the two participants.** Are they close friends or merely acquaintances?
3. **The imposition of the act.** Where does it occur? Are there any temporal limits or spatial constraints (e.g., busy hallway, open sidewalk, subway) on the exchange?

Students would be required to record this information along with the words that are said and the observed accompanying facial expressions or body language. Over the period of one week, students would share one of their observations during each class session. This exercise is one of language in use, and through this work, the pragmatics of language is laid out for comment and discussion. Two or three examples per student over the week are sufficient for this task.

An example of a journal entry might be the following:

[date]

Two teachers meet in the hallway. Equal roles.

They seem to be friends but not close.

They are waiting for the elevator. The area in front of the elevator is small.

Hey Jim, how's it going?

Good. How was your weekend?

Great. Did you read that email from the Dean?

Yes. I will come to your office later to talk about it.

OK. See you later.

A key part of this task is the accompanying class discussion, in which instructors ask students such questions as "How could the greeting be done differently?" or "What might create awkwardness or cause problems with this type of greeting?"

7.3.1.2. Task 2: Observing and Documenting Greetings on TV Shows

Television shows reveal many possible scenarios for greeting situations. One TV series that addresses exchanges that reflect what the Japanese students may find difficult is the American high school drama *The OC*, which aired on network television from 2003 to 2007, and follows the life of an economically disadvantaged boy who is taken in by a family living in the affluent Southern California suburb of Orange County (or OC, for short). This series is used to discuss the following types of conversations: intimate greetings within families (such as one might have during a homestay experience), conversations with peers (such as one might have with

another student or when making a new friend), and serious interactions (such as one might have with a person of authority, as in a job interview).

As an in-class activity, showing parts of an episode, stopping occasionally to discuss the interaction, can be effective when focusing on key points. As an example of understanding inappropriate language usage, or the effect of a response, the discussion of a scene by examining the character's responses can be an effective way to improve awareness (Zeff, 2016). This type of awareness is often difficult to address and should be specific to the target group of students.

Addressing what is inferred from the way something is said versus merely translating the words and grammar of the sentences makes this type of analysis more pragmatic. Studies have shown that EFL students without the chance to experience the culture firsthand tend to focus on the grammar and vocabulary and are not aware of the way language is used (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Observing and documenting a speech act in a TV show brings culturally relevant experience into the classroom.

Comedies often provide examples of people using language awkwardly. Students can witness how greetings do not always go well even for native speakers and that the inappropriateness is expressed with facial expression and tone, not just word choice. Looking at aspects such as intonation, stress, and facial expressions in communication is new to many students but essential for language competence.

Another topic that works well for classroom lessons is the physical touching involved in greetings. In none of the exchanges recorded for this dissertation study did any student attempt to shake hands or touch the NS in any way. Handshaking in the applied performance test would have been appropriate. In many American TV

shows, one finds examples of hugging, kissing, and handshaking. Students see how physical touching in greetings changes based on relationships and situations; one character may be greeted with a hug and another may receive a handshake. Variety TV, such as talk shows or shows where the host interviews a guest, is a useful source for demonstrating variations in the physical nature of greetings. The host might hug some guests and shake hands with others. For this topic, the discussion can focus on the levels of intimacy of the physical action and what this says about a relationship. Other topics for discussion could be whether a handshake rather than a hug could be a practical decision; for example, the person being greeted might be rather tall and a hug around the neck would be difficult. It is particularly insightful when students volunteer what was wrong or different from what was expected.

7.3.1.3. Task 3: Using Discourse Completion Tasks

A discourse completion task is a form-focused task that gives students an opportunity to record language reviewed in a contextual format. By reviewing language in context, it will help students become of aware of the choices available to them. Providing the students with situations that they may experience is possible and referable. In designing an applied performance testing scenario, it is important to include patterns and phrases that can be used for the test. It can be used for more than merely focusing attention on a given speech act or event, merely teaching for the test. A typical discourse completion task will name actors and a situation that a student considers to fill in or select language that is appropriate for the interaction. One exercise to use can have two parts. First, provide students discourse completion tasks with five greeting contexts and ask them to work in groups to decide the most appropriate language to use in each given context. Then, choose one scenario and ask

students to respond as quickly as possible with a written answer. Here are five sample scenarios for greetings:

1. You are a student of XYZ University. You are back in your hometown during winter vacation. In the supermarket, by chance you see a teacher of yours from high school. Provide an appropriate greeting.
2. Your good friend has been studying abroad in the United States. You decide to meet her at the airport when she returns home. You have not seen her for a year. She comes out of the gate. Provide an appropriate greeting.
3. You and a friend are walking down the hallway at your school. Your English teacher enters the hallway and says hello. Provide an appropriate greeting.
4. You are working in an office. One day, an important person comes to your office to have a meeting with your boss. The person makes eye contact with you. Provide an appropriate greeting.
5. You are walking downtown on your way to meet a friend at a coffee shop. You are late. As you turn a corner, you come face-to-face with an older woman who is your neighbor. She has lived in your neighborhood for many years and is friends with your mother. Provide an appropriate greeting.

Making this lesson a competition works well to engage students and reinforce the purpose of the activity. The first group to finish is given the highest score regardless of the content. This teaching strategy rewards quick response and choice rather than contemplation, given the need for relative speed in actual language use.

In any speech act, making a choice is half the battle. When each group is finished, a representative can write the group's answers on the board. Once a few appropriate and polite greeting patterns are established, the students can perform role plays using the target language.

7.3.1.4. Task 4: Participating in Role Plays and Mingles

7.3.1.4.1. Role Plays

Once students understand the greeting as a speech act, focusing instruction on role-playing activities that challenge them to consider how they would respond in situations with verbal interaction is important. This verbal activity complements and supports the written DCT. Referring to Scenario 1, described above, for the DCTs where the student unexpectedly sees a former teacher. This time, when students are told to provide an appropriate greeting, they are asked to do the following:

1. Greet ("Hello, Mr. Smith.")
2. Give context ("My name is [First Name and Last Name]. I am your student from XYZ High School.")
3. Share information ("I haven't seen you since graduation.")

As a result of this practice, students become aware of the difficulty if the teacher fails to recognize or remember the student, which creates a face-threatening act (Brown & Levinson, 1987). A popular variation of this lesson is a turn-about scenario where the student plays the teacher who runs into a former student. In this case, the student who plays the teacher is asked to:

1. Greet ("Hello, [First Name or Mr. Last Name].")
2. Show concern ("How have you been?" / "Did you find a job?" / "Are you going to college?")

3. Ask questions ("What have you been doing since you graduated?")

Through the practice over time, encouraging students to make decisions more quickly helps them to reflect on what it means to participate in the actual speech act.

To make the activity self-reflective, asking students to role-play the situation first in their native language and then in English provides perspective by revealing differences between the conversations in terms of both language and customary practices. Discussing these differences draws attention to phrases and actions that are important to the appropriate performance of the act.

7.3.1.4.2. Mingles

Another awareness-raising task is an information exchange, sometimes called a *mingle* (Borzova, 2014), which is a type of open role play. More specifically, this activity is a "form-focused" (Kasper & Rose, 2001) mingle, or one that emphasizes particular language structures (Ellis 2001). Emphasizing the target language structures in use allows the students to practice the timing and gestures of the speech act in real time practice (Ellis 2001).

There are many ways to choreograph this activity. One option is to ask the students to line up in two rows facing each other. The students then are instructed to have a conversation with the person directly across from them, creating a pair. Then, at a designated time or point in the interaction, one row is asked to move down to establish new pairs and the activity repeats. Another format is to ask the students form concentric circles. Using a structured rotating pairs sequence encourages the mingling aspect of this activity.

To help students practice switching from casual to more formal greetings, such simple activities as distributing a VIP badge to random students within a group

and instructing them to wear the badge signifies a change in social status for the role play. This exercise effectively generates more varied conversations, a scenario that this dissertation study's data reveals to be necessary.[38]

7.3.2. Discussion

[39]Success in delivering greetings can be taught and assessed in a classroom setting, but the real test comes from future unscripted interactions with the students and their performance of greetings as they pass teachers in the hallway and how they interact in unexpected situations in the real world. Teaching and assessing greetings and other speech acts is unique because the only way to know whether a student truly understands and has pragmatic competency is to see him or her use the speech act in an unplanned, unprepared context. In the exchanges presented in Chapter 5, it is easy to see how this type of instruction can be used to focus attention on the speech act as well as to give the student experience to help with timing and confidence in performing with a given scenario.

For greetings, a practical way to prepare students for what happens outside the classroom environment is through pragmatic instruction. Such instruction should become a regular part of language study classes regardless of the native and target languages. Quite simply, the stakes are high when greetings may result in lasting impressions. Students who receive explicit instructions through the awareness-

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[38] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

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raising tasks described in this chapter may develop an enhanced ability to participate appropriately and increase their chances of communication success.[40]

[40] This is the end of the passage cited from the journal article.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1. Limitations

The research study described in this dissertation had a number of limitations. First, it is challenging to find an appropriate interlocutor to interact with the students in the applied production test. Gender, age, and time spent in the country to ensure authentic interaction that reflects what the students might encounter in the target culture are factors. This study's use of a teenage American girl seemed to work relatively well given that she was not shy with the students. However, it is possible that the students might have responded differently to a male interlocutor of the same or somewhat older age.

Another limitation was the textbook material. Most programs require instructors to teach set material. To make this material devoid of any possibility to acquire implicit awareness of a task is difficult to control. This may have been the case with the Control Group demonstrating adequate performance in the applied performance test. For clearer results, it might have been useful to focus the applied performance test on more unique patterns that students might not have been exposed to in their textbooks to see whether those patterns were learned. Subsequent investigation into how such patterns had been learned also would have been useful.

Other, perhaps more important, limitations of the study regarded the size of the cohort under study. The speaking program at the University at that time consisted of 114 students divided into 6 classes averaging 15 to 20 students each. The original plan was to use all the students in the study data. I was able to gather data from 111 students for the pretest, which adequately served to establish validity of that test. The

posttest, which occurred nine weeks after the pretest, was also successful; however, because of logistical and technical problems, only 81 data sets were collected.

The applied production test proved the most challenging in both logistics and data collecting. The applied production test was carried out over two days. The first day, data for three classes consisting of 50 students was collected. On the first day of the applied production test, two students entered the room and the American girl entered afterward. This structure did not produce the required results, nor did it allow for the production of the head acts that were being targeted. It was soon discovered that the scenario projected for the test was not appropriate for eliciting the language required, which strongly suggested the need for a pilot test of this applied production scenario.

The data were collected anyway, but it could not be used for this study. On the second day, the appropriate structure was created by having the American girl be in the room before the students entered. This adjustment produced the required results and allowed for the head acts to be produced. These three classes were used to collect the data used in the main study. Due to logistics and technical problems, 26 data sets from 51 students worth of data were collected. On further compiling of the data, 36 samples were audible and reflected the goals of the study.

Overall, 60 students completed both the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest due to time factors with the pretest in April, followed by the posttest in July and the delayed posttest in September. Sixty full sets of computer test data were collected, and 36 samples of applied production test data were collected. Data from a larger pool of students for the applied production test would have been better for the qualitative part of the study. For future attempts of a study of this size, these

limitations could be controlled for by having more researchers in the administrative role to guarantee the proper collection of the data. With more administrative assistance, it might have been possible to control for students' absences and the logistical problems of the various parts of the test over the months for treatment.

This study was not only an investigation into effective teaching practices for improving communicative competence and, to that end, pragmatic instruction, but the real-life assessment test attempted to make gains against the limiting factor of the paradox that arises when we teach speech acts (Edmonson, 1985); that is, when one teaches something, it ceases to be authentic language usage and necessarily becomes a lesson.

One goal of this research study was to determine whether students who received pragmatic instruction, either implicit or explicit training, would perform better in testing, in whatever form, then students with no training. The results of this study were inconclusive. Certain variables, such as length of treatment and time period for testing, must be considered. The validity and reliability of the applied production test as an assessment instrument needs to be better confirmed. In addition, implicit learning is often hard to gauge. Longitudinal studies are necessary to see whether the students could retain and even improve techniques in performing greetings. Greetings can be a challenge for native speakers as well. Given a myriad of choices, knowing what to say and to whom can be overwhelming. This study was able to gather some data to help address some of these concerns, but more research is necessary.

There were concerns about the uneven numbers in the three groups used. Future testing done with a more even distribution of participants would possibly

result in better quantitative analysis results.

8.2. Further Research

By looking at the fields of communication, media, and tourism, it is easy to see how this research study may apply. This research in applied acquisitional pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Jung, 2002) demonstrated a clear contribution to language and communication studies in its use of video for the creation of the instructional and assessment methods; media beyond text-based teaching and assessment are necessary to help EFL students learn pragmatic uses of speech acts. Certainly, in the hospitality field and its industry, the prevalent use of greetings requires that EFL speakers have a wide proficiency and flexibility for greeting customers in appropriate ways.

Additional research into how to provide effective instruction and authentic assessment is necessary to improve how teachers can introduce, practice, and assess pragmatics in the EFL classroom setting. One particular area for additional research is to consider how to use audio files and their transcriptions, as well as video files that reveal body language (and, possibly micro-greetings), in pragmatics studies. Such research might usefully both audio and video a series of interactions, ask different raters to assign scores based on either the audio transcript or watching a video, and then compare what the raters experienced in interpreting and assessing the interactions.

8.3. Conclusion

Providing pragmatics knowledge and practice for EFL students helps to prepare them to make new friends, build new relationships, be effective employees, and be safe and secure in the English-speaking world. In this research study, I

proposed to demonstrate effective ways to enhance students' awareness of pragmatic rules related to American-English greeting routines. To determine the effectiveness of the pragmatics instruction, I used both implicit and explicit instruction in addition to standard textbook instruction. I developed discrete form tests that required students to exhibit the skills and information they had been taught. I also used an applied production test using a real-life scenario to learn whether the students could perform greetings spontaneously with a native American-English speaker in an appropriate manner. Even though the computer-based testing scores were inconclusive, the applied production test provided data that showed that many of the students could perform a greeting in an appropriate manner. From a survey conducted with native English teachers throughout Japan, being able to greet Japanese non-native speakers seemed to be an area for improvement. In this dissertation study, I sought to develop an instructional and assessment method geared to enhancing such learning in the EFL classroom in Japan.

An objective of this study was to develop real-life tests for the EFL classroom to give students the chance to demonstrate their ability to perform a greeting appropriately. The test described in this study could be applied to other classroom practices of pragmatic language acts and to studies of student language communicative competence. Additionally, such pragmatic instruction can be further used with other Asian students who may be challenged with similar or other discrete pragmatic speech acts.

Moreover, these assessments were not only used as a means for assessing ability but also as a part of the process for instruction, providing feedback to the students, and continuing education in the communicative aspect of language

education. By doing so, these tests sought to address the idea Barraja-Rohan (2000) expressed: “If what we teach is real life, then the students will be able to transfer that knowledge into the real world” (p. 68).

This study also identified and described the micro-greeting as both a verbal and physical phenomenon that potentially affected the felicity conditions of the greetings I was investigating. It may also affect the ability of students to participate effectively in the greeting speech act because of necessary rules that differ in its practice in American and Japanese greetings. Further investigation into this phenomenon is necessary to understand the implications it has in greeting practices in various social settings and cultures.

This study isolated one speech act, the greeting between JNNS and American-English NS, and investigated it. The study led to considering certain problems Japanese learners of English might have with this speech act. Certainly, the speech act of greetings is very important to good communication. Although some students gain this knowledge throughout their education in Japan and some do not, it is important from an educational perspective to point out the differences a given culture can have with any speech act. Education in the appropriate and competent use of speech acts are an important part of L2 educational goals.

Finally, I end with Wittgenstein’s (1958) words from his book Philosophical Investigations, Aphorism 489, where this journey began and whose question drove my research: “Ask yourself: On what occasion, for what purpose, do we say this? What kind of actions accompanies these words? (Think of a greeting.) In what scenes will they be used; and what for?” (p. 137).

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APPENDIX A:

Survey 2016: English Greeting Practices in Japan

English Greeting Practices in Japan

This is a short survey about your experience with using English greetings in Japan. This survey will provide data for a dissertation toward pragmatics. In this survey, the word "natural" means speech that demonstrates communicative competence and understanding of the social context. Communicative competence includes appropriateness in communication, as in saying the right thing in a given context, and politeness, as in saying it in the right way. I appreciate your taking the time to do this survey.

1. **In your experience as an EFL instructor in Japan, when your Japanese friends or work colleagues greet you in English, does it sound natural?**

   _____Yes. No problem.

   _____The greetings basically are fine, but they are not something I would hear in my country.

   _____Sometimes the greetings are not what I am expecting.

   _____I do not consider them natural.

   _____Other: Please provide an example of such a greeting here._____

2. **In your experience as an EFL instructor in Japan, do your own English greetings to Japanese friends or work colleagues typically receive natural responses?**

   _____Yes. No problem.

   _____The greetings basically are fine, but they are not something I would hear in my country.

   _____Sometimes the greetings are not what I am expecting.

   _____I do not consider them natural.

   _____Other: Please provide an example of such a greeting here._____

3. **In your experience as an EFL instructor in Japan, do your Japanese students typically greet you using English in natural ways?**

   _____Yes. No problem.

   _____The greetings basically are fine, but they are not something I would hear in my country.

   _____Sometimes the greetings are not what I am expecting.

   _____I do not consider them natural.

   _____Other: Please provide an example of such a greeting here._____

4. **In your experience as an EFL instructor in Japan, do your own English greetings to Japanese students typically receive natural responses?**

   _____Yes. No problem.

   _____The greetings basically are fine, but they are not something I would hear in my country.

   _____Sometimes the greetings are not what I am expecting.

   _____I do not consider them natural.

   _____Other: Please provide an example of such a greeting here._____

5. **In your experience living in Japan, have Japanese speakers who are unknown to you greeted you in English? If yes, did it sound natural? (If no, leave blank.)**

   _____Yes. No problem.

   _____The greetings basically are fine, but they are not something I would hear in my country.

   _____Sometimes the greetings are not what I am expecting.

   _____I do not consider them natural.

   _____Other: Please provide an example of such a greeting here.

6. **I am an EFL teacher of English in Japan from:**

_____Japan

_____America

_____Canada

_____England

_____Australia

_____Another country (Name the country here) _____

7. **My native language is:**

_____English

_____Other (please specify)

8. **What is your gender?**

_____Female

_____Male

9. **How old are you?**

_____18-23

_____24-35

_____36-45

_____Over 45

APPENDIX B:

Greetings Quiz: Pretest

A) Please select the answer(s) you think is (are) appropriate.

1. What phrase(s) can you use to respond to the following greeting? (You can choose up to 4): "How's it going?"

    a. Great.

    b. I'm fine, thank you. And you?

    c. What's up?

    d. Terrible.

2. What is the first thing you can say to someone the first time you meet them? (You can choose up to 4):

    a. Where are you from?

    b. Nice to meet you.

    c. What do you do?

    d. Hello. My name is _____.

B) Read the situation. Select the best answer.

3. You meet your professor in front of the elevator. You can say . . .

    a. Hey, Bill.

    b. Good afternoon, Professor.

    c. Hi.

4. You are in your English class. A new student sits down next to you. You can say . . .

   a. Where are you from?

   b. Do you like English?

   c. Hi, my name is Jim.

d. You are a worker and you are sitting at your desk. A new co-worker comes into the office. Your boss brings the new co-worker over to your desk. Your boss says: "Hey Ken, this is Miki Tanaka. She will be working with us from today." You stand up and can say . . .

   a. Nice to meet you.

   b. I'm Ken Takawa.

   c. Where are you from?

C) Arrangement

6. Arrange the following phrases to make a conversation, 1-5. One phrase is not used.

   _____ Great. And you?

   _____ Good afternoon

   _____ How's it going?

   _____ Good afternoon

   _____ Pretty good, thank you.

   _____ Nice to meet you.

D) Rate the following conversations from 1 to 7, 1 for least appropriate and 7 for most appropriate. (以下の会話文を読んで、それらの会話が状況に適したものであるか、適している度合いを1から7 (7が最も適している)からえらびなさい**.)**

7. Two people are standing on a train platform in Tokyo. One is Japanese (J). The other is non-Japanese (NJ). The train platform is not crowded.

   J) Hello. Nice to meet you. I am Kimura.

   NJ) Hello, Kimura.

   J) Where are you from?

   NJ) California.

   J) I know California. I went to San Francisco.

   NJ) Oh really. That's great.

   J) Yes.

   (The train comes and the conversation ends.)

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Three people are at the airport waiting at the arrival gate. They are Japanese (J). A fourth person, a non-Japanese (NJ), comes out the gate and joins them.

J1) Hi, Rebecca! Welcome to Japan.

NJ) Thanks, Yumiko. It's nice to finally meet you.

J1) Yes. It's nice to meet you, too. Rebecca, these are my parents.

J2 + J3) How do you do, Rebecca?

NJ) How do you do Mr. and Mrs. Suzuki?

J1) How was your flight?

NJ) It was good. I am very tired. It took 10 hours!

(They walk together toward the parking area.)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Two co-workers pass by each other in the hallway of their office. It is the first time they meet that day. One is Japanese (J). The other is non-Japanese (NJ).

NJ) Good morning, Keiko.

J) How's it going, Matt?

(They do not stop and continue in opposite directions)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX C:

Greeting Quiz: Posttest and Delayed Posttest

A) Please select the answer(s) you think is (are) appropriate.

1. What phrase(s) can you use to respond to the following greeting? (You can choose up to 4): "Good afternoon."
    a. I'm fine, thank you. And you?
    b. Good afternoon.
    c. What's good about it?
    d. What's up?
2. What is the first thing you can say to someone the first time you meet them? (You can choose up to 4):
    a. How's it going?
    b. Good morning.
    c. Where are you from?
    d. Nice to meet you.

B) Read the situation. Select the best answer.

3. You meet a friend in front of the elevator. You can say . . .
    a. Hey, Takeshi.
    b. Good afternoon, Takeshi.
    c. (Say nothing.)

4. You are walking down the hallway of your school. You see your professor. It is 9:00 AM. You can say . . .
    a. Good morning.
    b. Hey.
    c. Hello.
5. You are at a homestay in an English-speaking country. You return from school to your homestay house. You enter the house and see your host-mother with a person you have never met in the living room sitting on a sofa and chatting. Your host-mother calls you over and says: "Hey Ken, this is my old friend Betty. She is visiting from Florida and stopped by to say hello." You walk over and say . . .
    a. Great to meet you.
    b. I'm Ken Takawa.
    c. Where are you from?

C) Rearrange the following phrases to make a conversation. One phrase is not used.

6. How long have you been waiting?

_____ Beautiful day, isn't it?

_____ Yes. It is.

_____ Good morning.

_____ About 10 minutes.

_____ Talk to you later.

_____ Good morning.

D) Rate the following conversations from 1 to 7, 1 for least appropriate and 7 for most appropriate. (以下の会話文を読んで、それらの会話が状況に適したものであるか、適している度合いを1から7 (7が最も適している)からえらびなさい**.)**

7. Two people are standing on a train platform in Tokyo. One is Japanese. The other is not Japanese. The train platform is not crowded. One is Japanese (J). The other is non-Japanese (NJ).

    J) Excuse me, may I ask you a question?

    NJ) Sure.

    J) Where are you from

    NJ) California.

    J) I know California. I went to San Francisco.

    NJ) Oh really. That's great.

    J) Yes.

    (The train comes and the conversation ends.)

    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Two people are at the airport waiting at the arrival gate. They are Japanese. A third person, a non-Japanese, comes out the gate and joins them. Two are Japanese (J). The other is non-Japanese (NJ).

    NJ) I'm Rebecca! You must be Yumiko.

    J1) Nice to meet you. My name is Yumiko.

    NJ) Good to meet you too.

    J1) How was your flight?

    NJ) It was good. I am very tired. It took 10 hours!

    (They walk together toward the parking area.)

    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Two co-workers pass by each other in the hallway of their office. It is the first time they meet that day. One is Japanese (J). The other is non-Japanese (NJ).

    NJ) Hey, Keiko.

    J) Hi, Matt.

    (They do not stop and continue in opposite directions)

    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX D:

Questionnaire Pilot Study, 2011

Question 1:

1. Did you think your greeting to your classmate was natural and appropriate?

   Less 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 More

2. Did you think your greeting to the Native Speaker was natural and appropriate?

   Less 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 More

Question 2: When you greeted the other speakers, did you consider who they were, how old they were, your relationship with them, etc.?

Not at all. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Very much

Question 3: Do you think that Western greetings are different from greetings in your own language?

Not really 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Yes, very different

Question 4: How much do you feel you have learned about greetings in this Communications class?

Not a lot 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 A lot

Question 5: Do you think you are better at greeting people in English than you were at the beginning of this Communications class?

Not really 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Yes, a lot more

Question 6: How important are greetings to good communication?

Not important 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Very important

Question 7: In this Communications class, has your interest in studying English increased?

Not really 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Yes, a lot more

Question 8: Comment on your Speaking course this year. Please write as much as you can.

Question 9: Write about the most important things you have learned this year about greetings.

Question 10- Ranking:

Please rank the following greetings from the one that you prefer most (1) to the one you prefer the least (9):

Hey. How are you?
What's up?
How's it going?
Nice to meet you
What is your name?
Good morning
Hello
Hi

APPENDIX E:

Questionnaire Main Study 2013

Question 1

a. Did you think your greeting to your classmate was natural and appropriate?

less 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 more

b. Did you think your greeting to the young American girl was natural and appropriate?

less 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 more

Question 2

When you greeted the other speakers, did you consider who they were, how old they were, your relationship with them, etc.?

not at all. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 very much

Question 3

Do you think that Western greetings are different from greetings in your own language?

Not really. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 Yes, very different

Question 4

How much do you feel you have learned about greetings in this Communications class?

Not a lot. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 A lot

Question 5

Do you think you are better at greeting people in English than you were at the beginning of this Communications class?

Not really. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 Yes, a lot more

Question 6

How important are greetings to good communication?

Not important. 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 Very Important

Question 7

In this Communications class, has your interest in studying English increased?

Not really 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5– 6 Yes, a lot more

Question 8

Comment on your Speaking course this year. Please write as much as you can.

Question 9

Write about the most important things you have learned this year about greetings.

Question 10: Ranking

Please rank the following greetings from the one that you prefer most (1) to the one you prefer the least (9):

Hey. How are you?
What's up?
How's it going?
Nice to meet you
What is your name?
Good morning
Hello
Hi

APPENDIX F:

Transcription Symbols

http://www.esourceresearch.org/eSourceBook/ConversationAnalysis/10TranscriptionSymbols/tabid/5 31/Default.aspx

Conversation Analysis

10. Transcription Symbols

Symbol	Example	Explanation
[	C2: quite a [while Mo: [yeah	Left brackets indicate the point at which a current speaker's talk is overlapped by another's talk.
]	C2: and i thought] Mo: you said]	Right brackets indicate the point at which two overlapping utterances end.
=	W: that I'm aware of = C: =Yes. Would you confirm that?	Equal signs, one at the end of a line and one at the beginning, indicate no gap between the two lines.
(0.4)	Yes (0.2) yeah	Numbers in parentheses indicate elapsed time in silence in tenths of a second.
(.)	to get (.) treatment	A dot in parentheses indicates a tiny gap, probably no more than one-tenth of a second.
_____	What's up?	Underscoring indicates some form of stress via pitch and/or amplitude.
::	O:kay?	Colons indicate prolongation of the immediately-prior sound. The length of the row of colons indicates the length of the prolongation.
WORD	I've got ENOUGH TO WORRY ABOUT	Capitals, except at the beginnings of lines, indicate especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding talk.
.hhhh	I feel that (0.2) .hhh	A row of h's prefixed by a dot indicates an inbreath; without a dot, an outbreath. The length of the row of h's indicates the length of the in- or outbreath.
( )	future risks and ( ) and life ( )	Empty parentheses indicate the transcriber's inability to hear what was said.
(word)	Would you see (there) anything positive	Parenthesized words are possible hearings.
(( ))	confirm that ((continues))	Double parentheses contain author's descriptions rather than transcriptions.
-	talking about- uh	A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cutoff or self interruption, often done with a glottal or dental stop.
°	C2: and then° I remember	The degree sign indicates that the talk following it was markedly quiet or soft.
_: or :	C2: In the gy:m?	If the letter(s) preceeding a colon is underlined, it indicates the pitch turning downwards.
><	>we were just<	"Greater than" and "less than" carrots in this order indicate that the talk between them is rushed or compressed.
<>	>	"Less than" and "greater than" carrots in this order indicate that the talk between them is markedly slow.
↓ or ↑	↓are you↓	The up and down arrows mark sharp rises or falls in pitch or may mark a whole shift or resetting of the pitch.
#	# it was in the	Indicates a rasping or 'creaky' voice quality.
£	£ it was so	Indicates the speaker is smiling while speaking.