DE GRUYTER
OPEN

DOI: 10.2478/rjes-2014-0032

WORDS USED IN THE CLASSROOM. A CONTRASTIVE LEXICAL ANALYSIS OF TWO INSTANCES OF ORAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract: *The paper looks at the oral exchanges between two teachers and their B2-C1 level students (Common European Framework of Reference) in a particular EFL classroom, from the perspective of the Cambridge examinations assessment standard for the category of "lexical resource". Since teachers are the role models in terms of language production in the classroom, this research focused on revealing lexical features which characterise the classroom discourse of two teachers of English and the impact this exposure has on their students' lexical production. This research is part of my doctoral research, which is a multifaceted analysis of authentic oral classroom exchanges in order to determine patterns and practices at the level of developing speaking skills in the EFL context.*
Keywords: *accuracy, idioms, lexical collocations, grammatical collocations, lexical resource, range*

1. The Bigger Picture

In the context of the widely spread English language examinations and the favoured teaching methodology of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) at the basis of the majority of textbooks used in the Romanian educational system, I have chosen to investigate the language teachers use and favour to be used in class in order to determine whether there is any relation between the language learners produce, and are expected to produce as advanced speakers of English, and the language teachers model in class. This paper focuses only on one linguistic aspect, namely lexical production, in order to take a closer look at both the teacher's and students' vocabulary in class. This unique focalisation was possible since, for my doctoral research I have focused on the different features which build the discourse of an advanced speaker of English, by closely following the assessment criteria for the speaking performance of candidates in the Cambridge examinations, namely: Lexical Resource, Grammatical Resource, Discourse Management, Pronunciation and Interaction (ESOL 2012:65).

Therefore, the starting point for my research was the profile the student participants in my research were aiming for, that of a C1 user of English – CAE level, or "good operational command of spoken English" (ESOL 2008:96); an exam for which the two teachers, whose lessons I have observed, were training their students. (Although the aim of the lesson was not the exam, they were building language skills with this exam in mind). In order for such a learner to obtain the highest score for vocabulary resource in a Cambridge examination s/he must "use a

range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar and unfamiliar topics" (ESOL 2012:66). In the Handbook for teachers preparing students for the Cambridge in Advanced English Exam these terms describing a C1 level of speaking performance are further defined as follows:

> ***Appropriacy of vocabulary*** [is] the use of words and phrases that fit the context of the given task. For example, in the utterance *I'm very sensible to noise*, the word sensible is inappropriate as the word should be *sensitive*. Another example would be *Today's big snow makes getting around the city difficult*. The phrase getting around is well suited to this situation. However, *big snow* is inappropriate as *big* and *snow* are not used together. *Heavy snow* would be appropriate.
> ***Flexibility*** [is] the ability of candidates to adapt the language they use in order to give emphasis, to differentiate according to the context, and to eliminate ambiguity. Examples of this would be reformulating and paraphrasing ideas.
> ***Range*** [is] the variety of words and grammatical forms a candidate uses. At higher levels, candidates will make increasing use of a greater variety of words, fixed phrases, collocations and grammatical forms. (ESOL 2012:67, emphasis in the original)

2. Research Methodology

2.1. Participants and Data Collection

My research is a qualitative analysis of data, which I have collected by means of direct classroom observation of lessons taught in a school in Romania; the lessons were recorded and then transcribed using the simplified transcription convention put forwards by Paul Ten Have (2007:215). Thus, the corpus consists of eight transcripts of lessons taught by two teachers of English, four lessons each, with an average of about 4,286 words/ transcript; the duration of most lessons being 45 minutes. The coding which follows the examples indicates the lines where the structure occurs and the lesson, for example, L40,41/A3 stands for line(s) 40,41 lesson Anne 3. The eight lessons focus on grammar and vocabulary, writing skills, and some speaking.

The two teachers work in general with the same groups of students: one of them follows an integrated skills textbook, the other teaches a class focused on building specific skills (writing and vocabulary), and both teachers mentioned that helping students obtain a language certificate was one of their aims. The two participant teachers could be characterised as follows:

Anne	60+ years old, has been teaching English and French (within the same school) for more than 10 years Uses English even outside the class to talk to or respond to students' questions Is humorous and occasionally sarcastic Keeps to the lesson while also making numerous references to cultural and social realities Tends to provide longer explanations and often speaks rather fast
Tom	32-40 years old, teaches English in this school as a substitute teacher (less than 10 years' experience in teaching) Good pronunciation but sometimes theatrical (alternating high low pitch too often, stressing various words, using nasal sounds) Is rather humorous and occasionally sarcastic Generally keeps to the lesson, with very few remarks to expand the discussions to other topics Tends to provide short explanations and generally speaks at a normal speed

The student participants are in secondary school, grades 9 (Anne's group) and 12 (Tom's group), studying at a bilingual school in Romania, with an average of seven 45minute classes of English as a foreign language per week. Most of the students choose to obtain an English language certification before graduation, usually in grade 11, and the exam most of them choose to sit is the Cambridge Advanced English Language Exam (CAE). The students work in smaller groups based on their level of English; thus a 30 student class is usually split into two groups. The students' level of English ranges between B2 and C1, depending on the year of study, however, the groups are rather homogenous since admission to this school includes having passed a language test.

2.2. Working with the Data

In order to conduct a more detailed analysis of naturally occurring lexical structures, I have chosen to look comparatively at the language produced in two of the lessons, one lesson for each teacher, in order to reduce the data to a manageable size, but also because I intended to focus on lessons where greater interaction occurred (quantifiable in the number of teacher–student exchanges), irrespective of the topic of the lesson. Therefore, for the present study, I have selected Anne 3 – a lesson focused on building speaking skills, the students having prepared short presentations of a favourite period in history, and Tom 4 – a vocabulary lesson focused on acquiring idioms related to social types and new vocabulary on tools and equipment; Tom 4 was the lesson where the most natural conversation occurred. (For a more detailed explanation see Mureşan 2011).

3. Findings – Basic or Advanced Vocabulary

In reading the data for the lexical analysis of the two lesson transcripts I have used several filters which then led to an inventory of idioms, phrases and collocations. First of all, in the context of the ESOL assessment, I took into account the Cambridge descriptors for a successful C1 level speaker and the expectations regarding this higher candidate's lexical resource (ESOL 2012; Council of Europe 2009); therefore I have looked for lexical items which could be categorised as advanced level vocabulary. The rationale behind this move was to see if there was evidence of such vocabulary resource occurring in the teacher–student classroom exchanges while preparing for the test in question.

The first step in the lexical analysis of the two transcripts was to identify the lexical items which belong to advanced vocabulary; hence, a first filter was that of cross-referencing items against Academic English vocabulary Inventories, such as the one provided by the Exam English website (http://www.examenglish.com/vocabulary/academic_wordlist.html), or against the different academic vocabulary lists proposed by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Wehmeier 2000). This move helped reduce the corpus to lexis expected from a user with fully operational command of English. I have then discarded the category of "lesson vocabulary", produced either by the teachers or by the students, which consists of lexical units to be introduced in the new lesson, or occurring as part of checking the homework, therefore items which could be argued to constitute rehearsed speech (Mureşan 2011). The resulting data was then read to identify patterns and similarities and the following categories and sub categories of phraseological units emerged: set phrases or idiomatic expressions, lexical collocations, grammatical collocations and sayings – categories under which items were then grouped in a

lexical inventory. Zoltan Dörnyei refers to structures such as lexical phrases, idioms, conventionalized expressions, collocations, etc. as "formulaic language" (Dörnyei 2009:39).

The number of advanced level vocabulary units in this lexical inventory is not symmetrically distributed between the four categories of participants, that is, Anne, Tom and the students in each of their groups. Thus, in the case of Anne, I have identified about 83 units, for the students in her class about 61, whereas Tom has produced a number of 35 units and his students 30. The understanding of "unit" here is a lexical combination from one of the above mentioned phraseological categories, but also a string of individual lexical units, which belong to the same semantic field and are uttered within one turn, as this usage is indicative of lexical cohesion (ESOL 2012:67). This imbalance in the number of analysable lexical units can be explained by contrasting the very nature of the two lessons – presenting the historical period of one's choice versus vocabulary learning, but another possible explanation may lie in the teacher's personal characteristics, the type of classroom interaction and the roles the teacher assumes (from introducing the new lesson, error correction, expanding the conversation to other topics of interest, introducing cultural elements belonging to L2). Another significant quantitative difference was an imbalance in the number of turns, as both teachers had fewer turns than their students (Tom 224 turns, his students 270; Anne 155 and her students 180), although in terms of extent a greater number of turns is indicative of shorter turns (generally 1-5 words in Tom's case), while the longer teacher turns (Anne) also received longer student turns.

One of the largest emerging categories from the selected lexical units of the teacher–student classroom conversation was that of *collocations*, words which tend to "keep company with each other" (Halliday and Yallop 2007:15), or, according to Pungă (2011:103), "words that co-occur in a language in a way that sounds natural to a native speaker", and which contract meaning relations with the co-occurring words (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:131). Irrespective of the description of linguists, the English speaker's ability to use them is essential to reclaim the status of competent or advanced user, since mastery of the language also implies usage of more complex vocabulary, including structures such as collocations (ESOL 2012:67).

In the present research the greatest occurrence of collocations was found in Anne's discourse (25 items) and that of her students (30 items), although admittedly these include both accurate and inaccurate collocations, this matter being further discussed in section four of the paper. Since the emerging category of collocations comprised a rather diverse set of word combinations, there appeared the need for further classification; a subdivision of this group was necessary and the adopted view followed the Benson, Benson and Ilson's (2010) classification put forward in the *BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English,* who distinguish between lexical and grammatical collocations. The Bensons and Ilson propose the following distinction between different multi-word structures:

> [T]hese recurrent, semi-fixed combinations, or *collocations*, can be divided into two groups: *grammatical collocations* and *lexical collocations*. Grammatical collocations consist of a dominant word – noun, adjective/participle, verb – and a preposition or a grammatical construction. Lexical collocations, on the other hand, do not have a dominant word; they have structures such as the following: verb + noun, adjective + noun, noun + verb, noun + noun, adverb + adjective, adverb + verb. (Benson, Benson and Ilson 2010: xiii)

In the case of grammatical collocations the authors of the *BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* describe eight major classes, referred to as G1, G2, G3, G4, G5, G6, G7 and G8; the last type (G8) consisting of eighteen verb patterns, ranging from A to S (Benson, Benson and Ilson 2010:xix-xxx). It must be mentioned that not all linguists agree with the Bensons and Ilson

classification, and that lexical inventories, such as the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* qualifies structures which include prepositions differently; for example, verb + preposition constructions, such as "rely on" (L40,41/A3), are considered phrasal verbs.

The findings of the present research reveal that the classroom oral discourse is rather complex and different patterns of lexical collocations are easily identifiable (as can be seen in Table 1 below). The most numerous collocations were identified in Anne's classroom discourse and that of her students, Tom and his students only using a limited number of collocations. The most productive collocation patterns were verb + noun and adjective + noun, while the most infrequent types of collocations used in classroom exchanges were noun + noun (with only two examples from the oral discourse of Anne's students) and adverb + adjective collocations (two examples in Anne's discourse).

Collocation type	Anne	Anne's students	Tom	Tom's students
Vb+ n	Speak nonsense (L11/A3), Stepped over the border (L12/A3), Utter remarkable things (L14/A3), Use the proper structure (L32/A3), (history) is in a *constant process* of being rewritten (L89/A3), have fun (L105/A3), Establish a timeline (L115/A3), Develop a bit (the argument) (L176/A3), (was) destroying autonomies (L261, 262/A3) Take a detour … (L288/A3), stop over for a century (L288/A3), Relax, charge batteries (L289/A3), Read interpretations (L337/A3)	Travel in time (L24,25/A3) Build the atomic bomb (L59/A3), Build weapons (L129/A3), Made fire (L179/A3), Cultivated the land (L180/A3), Ruled over the land (L201/A3), Won their immortality (L228,229/A3), Survive without technology… from PCs to radio, music, games (L244, 245/A3), Make me a hero (L311/A3), Lead their lives (L325, 326/A3) Be a witness at the birth, life death and resurrection of Christ (L367,368/A3)	Make up a sentence ... (L136/T4), Writing with chalk (L168/T4) Attends all grand festivities and occasions (L222/T4), Mend the road (L369/T4)	Derives from the man's dream (L84/T4), Get the party started (L95/T4) Lost his job … moved in with his parents (L117/T4), Spoils your mood (L152/T4), Accepts special treatment (L262/T4)
Adj+n	(history) is in a *constant process* of being rewritten (L89/A3), Traumatic experience (L370/A3), Extended prison (L439/A3), Reasonable argumentation (L452/A3), Heavy artillery (L127/A3), common sense (L334/A3), Convoluted things (L338/A3), idyllic period (L432/A3)	specific period (L278/A3), One of my greatest curiosities (L286/A3), Original dress (L392/A3), Special charm (L375/A3)	Such a good mood (L157/T4), grand festivities and occasions (L222/T4)	Posh car (L203/T4)
N+vb	*(history) is* in a constant process of *being rewritten* (L89/A3), rheumatism transmitted through (L16/A3), humanity evolved (L132/A3), Idyllic period (L432/A3)	Knights fighting on horseback (L162/A3) something good will follow (L291/A3)		
N+n		Atomic bomb (L59/A3), time machine (L111/A3) Battle dancing (L164/A3), the end of the world (L314/A3)	Theme song (L94/T4) Go on to the (L114/A3), At the height of fashion (L199, 200/T4), Be bound to do (L237/A3)	
Adv + adj	Dramatically important (L13/A3), completely void of events (L264/A3)			Special treatment (L262/T4)
Adv + vb	Start with the beginning chronologically (L116/A3), live very naturally (L243/A3),	People were treated the same (L410/A3)		

	(lead their life) properly (L341/A3)			

Furthermore, the data reveals that a small number of *grammatical collocations* are used by the two teachers and their students. A number of patterns identified by the authors of the *BBI Combinatory Dictionary* are evident in the investigated classroom discourse; the grammatical collocations which occurred in the two lessons correspond to the following patterns: G1 (noun + preposition), G4 (Preposition + noun), G5 (adjective + preposition), G8 pattern D (transitive verbs with specific prepositions followed by objects) (Benson, Benson and Ilson 2010: xix-xxx).

Type of grammatical collocation	**Anne**	**Anne's students**	**Tom**	**Tom's students**
G1		*Predictions about* the end of the world (L314/A3)		
G4	People *in confusion* (L39/A3), *On horseback* (L221/A3)	*on horseback* (L162/A3)		*By* his *appearance* (L171/T4)
G5		Get them *acquainted with* … (L291/A3)		
G8	*Rely on* the other group… (L40,41/A3), *Check on* you (L92/A3), Have been *dealt with* in communist prisons (L95/A3), *Came across* (L137/A3), Somebody was after power (L261, 262/A3), *stop over* for a century (L288/A3), End up with that many wives (L297/A3)	Couldn't *decide on* a specific period (L278/A3), When dinosaurs *were about* (L279/A3), *Bring back* (Michelangelo) (L290/A3), The state would have *provided with* one (L408/A3)	*Remind* me *of* myself (L11/T4) *Bickers about* something (L31/T4), Is very much into the party (L100/T4) *Revolves around* football (L506/T4)	

Another important category of lexical structures was that of *set phrases or idiomatic expressions*, that is a "type of multiword lexeme", a fixed lexical unit, a phrase "the meaning of which cannot be predicted from the individual meanings of the morphemes it comprises" (Jackson and Zé Amvela 2007:77). According to the CEFR's relevant qualitative factors for reception, a C1 listener should have "a good command of a broad lexical repertoire. Good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms" (Council of Europe 2009:143). Thus at the level of understanding, a C1 level student should be able to recognise and probably attempt to use such structures. Celce-Murcia (2007:47, 48) underlines that the ability to use idioms helps establish formulaic competence in the revised communicative competence model she proposes. Zoltan Dörnyei argues that "competent speakers of a language are in command of thousands (if not tens of thousands) of language chunks and use them as basic building blocks in their speech and writing" and continues by adding that "formulaic language competence is directly linked to automatized, fluent language production" (Dörnyei 2009:40).

The findings revealed that the occurrence of such "frozen" lexical structures was rather limited, Anne using the largest number of idiomatic expressions ("Let you know" (L12/A3), "[first round is] On me" (L48/A3), "For sure" (L243/A3), "If nothing else [wars]" (L258/A3), "Make up your mind" (L298/A3), "Far from this" (L447/A3)). Generally, these idioms could be placed at rather the less opaque end of the continuum mentioned by Cruse (1986:39) and are easily understood by the users. Furthermore, it must be remarked that Anne is the only one to use another type of multiword unit, sayings, which are paralleled here by famous quotes from literature; these frozen structures occur very naturally in the classroom conversation and their usage is usually justified by a humorous intent. Thus, when talking about time travelling a student mentions that he would travel to the future to see "if the prediction [about the end of the world] is true. Teacher: If we *perish by fire or by ice.* Yes? This is a poem written by this err American poet – Robert Frost, who says: should we perish by ice or by fire" (L321-324/A3). Next, talking about the communist period, the teacher responds to a student's comment with: "But you know according to the famous book everybody was equal, but *some people were MORE equal* (laughter). You have to know the book or at least the CARTOON. Yes. *Animal Farm*" (L421,422/A3). Since both references are well known and, in this sense, inseparability of the constituent elements is their main characteristic, we can mention these quotes alongside the usage of proverbs. Anne does make use of one proverb in class – "it was curiosity which killed the cat" (L446/A3), which she mentions in her response to a student's positive comments and remarks about the communist period in Romania. Since proverbs "allow for little variation and are therefore perceived as readymade units of language" (Pungă 2010:127), they belong to the category of multiword units.

Usage of idioms and set phrases by the other participants was very limited, thus the findings reveal one example in the case of Anne's students – "in its own little way" (L281/A3) – , two examples in Tom's classroom discourse – "so on and so forth" (L101/T4) and "you know" (L153/T4) –, and finally Tom's students produced "a fly on the wall" (L46/T4) and "by the power invested in me" (L171/T4). In Tom's case, the idiomatic expressions function as conversation fillers, which serve to gain and keep attention on the speaker by signaling that some sort of clarification is going to follow. The students' usage of the phrases here is not indicative of having a certain level of communicational competence, but it is rather linked to language acquisition, functioning as a means of validating acquired vocabulary; the students are reminded of a phrase stored in their passive vocabulary and then they decide to use it, to validate its accuracy.

So far the analysis has focused on usage of complex English vocabulary rather than basic vocabulary and in doing so the ESOL speaking assessment criteria for lexical resource have helped to distinguish the multi-word-unit categories, however, a discussion about the lexical complexity of the teacher–student oral exchanges would not be complete without considering the category of *related vocabulary*. Although it does not fall under the assessment criteria for lexical resource, but it is described in more detail under discourse management, usage of related vocabulary is a very important lexical dimension of discourse coherence and cohesion. Related vocabulary refers to usage of several "items from the same lexical set *e.g., train, station, platform, carriage*; or *study, learn, revise*" (ESOL 2012:67), that is words from the same semantic field or words from the same synonymic series.

The present research reveals that the highest occurrence of such lexical strings is found again in Anne's classroom discourse and that of her students – as can be seen in Table 3 below. The tendency of using related vocabulary or synonyms seems to be the strongest when providing explanations, correcting factual inaccuracies, asking for or providing clarifications or introducing

new vocabulary. Although Tom's lesson focuses on lexical acquisition, Tom relies more on examples elicited from the students and then validates or invalidates the accuracy of their usage and hence only rarely resorts to providing longer explanations; but when he does, he, too, makes use of related vocabulary.

	Anne	**Anne's students**	**Tom**	**Tom's students**
Related vocabulary	Take a detour … stop over for a century (L288/A3) Techno … house music … beats … gracefully (L385/A3) Revolutions… not a good time to be around … bloody (L394, 395/A3) Twilight ….love stories with vampires … tasty … delicious …so much blood (L400 - 402/A3) Get ripe … ripeness … good climate (L424/A3)	tournaments … Knights (L160-162/A3) Made fire …kill mammoths …cultivated the land L179,180/A3) Knights … round table … Noblemen … Minstrels (L200 - 204/A3) No pollution… no cars …. No technology … everything natural (L153/A3) Chores … Household (L376- 377/A3) Not much technology in the household …. No fridges … only iceboxes (L377 – 380/A3)	Impress the ladies … womanizer … Sexist (60- L89/T4) Like an old tv … chatterboxes …like two old women …(L138/T4) In boxing … assistants get off the ring (L516/T4)	Lost his job … moved in with his parents (L117/T4) Thinks he is better than anyone …thinks everything is beneath him (L258,265/T4)
Synonymic series	Relax, charge batteries (L289/A3), Part of their job … part of their role to entertain (L206/A3)	Balls and masquerades (L389, 390/A3) People were kind of equal …. Had almost the same amount of money (L405, 406/A3)	arrogant… pretentious (L268/T4)	Wants to impress … Seduce (L57-59/T4)

4. Lexical Accuracy or Fluency

Although a number of lexical errors occurred in the two lessons under observation, error treatment was consistent with the adopted current CLT approach and fluency is generally preferred over accuracy. As Richards (2006) points out in his overview of teaching methodologies, a set of guidelines and principles are presently followed by the teachers in order to develop communicative competence, one of which is the view that "language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language, and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning, the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently" (Richards 2006:23). In addition, we must also consider another important principle of current CLT, namely that "second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication" (Richards 2006:22). The implication is therefore that many of the errors produced by the students are ignored and only some of the inaccuracies are corrected. Thus, inaccurate use of lexical units and structures (lexical collocations or different patterns of grammatical collocations involving prepositions) produced by Anne's students were ignored so that fluency would not be affected. Lexical inaccuracies, such as in following examples, either passed unnoticed, or were deliberately ignored by the teacher: "milkmen would come in every morning and *give* milk" (L379, 380/A3) – confusion between *bring milk* and *give milk*; "*restrictions to* food" (L409/A3) – instead of *rationalization of food*; "knights *from* the round table" (L200/A3) – rather than *of the round table*; "many discoveries *from* Leonardo da Vinci" (L170/A3) – instead of *by*; "after *doing* this mission" (L313/A3) – instead of *going on/ carrying out a mission*; "lead their lives *as good as* we can" (L325, 326/A3) – instead of the adverb *lead their lives as well as they can*. However,

inaccurate lexical units, which generally occurred towards the end of one's turn or during shorter turns were corrected by the teacher and on one occasion by another student. Thus, "*humans evolated*" (L130/A3) was corrected with "humanity evolved" (L132/A3), "tourniers" (L160/A3) with "tournaments" (L161/A3), "cave men *invented* fire" (L177/A3) with "invented or discovered?" (L178/A3), "noblemen and noble woman" (L202/A3) with "noble women" (L203), "went *by on by err horse on horse*" (L221/A3) with "on horseback" L221/A3), and "leader *of destroyment*" (L336/A3) was corrected by another student with "destruction" (L336/A3).

There were no detectable lexical errors in the discourse of Tom's students, but the two teachers themselves have used some collocations which can be arguably considered accurate in standard English language. Anne's "die *out* of boredom" (L250/A3), "*do* a kind of apprenticeship" (L350/A3), "happy to have *inhabited* such a period" (L433/A3) and Tom's "*make up* an example" (L136/T4) cannot be found in standard English dictionaries (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Oxford Collocations* 2002) or reliable English language databases (such as the British National Corpus). However, "do an apprenticeship" and "make up an example" can be found on the internet to occur in quotes from books written in English.

5. Topic variation

The last element to be considered in the analysis of the two pieces of classroom discourse from the perspective of the lexical resource component in speaking assessment is the ability to "use a wide range of vocabulary to give and exchange views on *familiar and unfamiliar topics*" (ESOL 2012:65, my emphasis). From this point of view, Anne's discourse is more complex than Tom's, as she makes reference to very different social realities during the lesson. Anne expands the discussions to aspects of the real life that students did not consider when deciding to present a certain period in history; thus, over a few turns, topics vary from the communist regime to the danger of not making up one's mind, predictions about the end of the world, Nostradamus, the Spartans, oldies but goldies, music, *Vampire Diaries* (film), concentration camps and *Animal Farm*. Admittedly, the very nature of her lesson created a favourable context for these shifts in conversation, but we have to mention that Anne refers to aspects of social reality, cultural elements, literature and other fields, as the other observed lessons were conducted in an identical manner.

6. Conclusions

As my investigation of the lexical dimension of English language usage in the EFL classroom from the perspective of the ESOL speaking examination requirements has shown, there is evidence of complex vocabulary usage in the case of one teacher (Anne) and there is also evidence of more lexically complex language used by the students in her class. Conversely, Tom's oral classroom discourse can be characterized as rather succinct, displaying a limited range of complex lexical structures. The students in Tom's class use very few complex structures in contrast with Anne's students, who attempt to use new lexical structures even at the expense of accuracy.

I admit that teacher input or lexical model may not be the only explanation for this response; 12th grade students (Tom's group) are typically more apathetic, less responsive, and usually do not volunteer to participate in class. The teaching approach may also trigger different responses on the student's part, yet there are enough similarities in this respect between the two teachers in order to expect similar student output.

Although I agree with Dörnyei (2009:36) in that "mere exposure to L2 input accompanied by communicative practice is not sufficient" and that explicit learning procedures are needed to "push learners beyond communicatively effective language towards target-like second language ability", I argue that a difference in the quality of the teacher input is reflected in a corresponding student output.

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