Contemporary Perspectives on
English Language Teaching and Learning

Editör
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English

Verb = action

Present Tense:

speak ☑ learn

☑ study

BIDGE

BİDGE Yayınları

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PREFACE

English language education has never been a static field. Rather, it has continuously evolved in response to shifting social, academic, and technological realities. In recent decades, this evolution has accelerated, driven by the growing role of English in higher education, the increasing availability of large-scale linguistic data, and the rapid emergence of digital and artificial intelligence–based tools in teaching and learning. These developments have not only reshaped how English is used, learned, and taught, but have also challenged researchers and educators to rethink established assumptions and pedagogical practices. The present volume emerges from this dynamic context and aims to offer a multifaceted perspective on contemporary English language education by bringing together research that addresses language use, learner experience, linguistic patterns, and pedagogical innovation.

The first thematic strand of the book focuses on English-medium instruction (EMI) and the experiences of learners who are required to engage with academic content through English in non-native contexts. As universities across the world increasingly adopt EMI policies in the name of internationalization, competitiveness, and global visibility, students are often positioned at the intersection of disciplinary learning and second language use. This situation creates a complex learning environment in which linguistic, cognitive, and affective demands overlap. The chapter devoted to EMI in this volume foregrounds the student perspective by examining the challenges learners face and the coping strategies they develop in response. Rather than portraying EMI students as passive recipients of institutional policies, this contribution highlights their agency, adaptability, and strategic competence. In doing so, it reminds us that EMI is not merely a language policy issue, but a lived educational experience that directly shapes learners' academic engagement, confidence, and identity. This perspective is particularly important for understanding EMI beyond abstract debates, grounding it instead in the realities of classroom interaction and student effort.

The second thematic focus of the volume turns to language use itself, examined through a corpus-based and usage-oriented lens. By analysing grammatical patterns in large spoken corpora of British and American English, the relevant chapter demonstrates how subtle differences in form, meaning, and use emerge across varieties and contexts. Such analyses are not only of theoretical interest but also have important implications for how grammar is described, taught, and understood. The detailed exploration of get-passive constructions in spoken English, for instance, reveals that grammatical choices are deeply intertwined with speaker stance, affectedness, and interpersonal meaning. This usage-based approach challenges simplified or prescriptive accounts of grammar that often dominate teaching materials, and instead emphasises probability, variation, and contextual sensitivity. Within the broader scope of the book, this contribution provides a solid linguistic foundation, reminding readers that effective language education must be informed by how language is actually used by speakers in real communicative settings.

The third major theme addressed in this volume concerns the integration of educational technologies, particularly artificial intelligence–powered tools, into English language teaching, with a specific focus on vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary learning has long been recognised as a demanding and often demotivating aspect of second language development, especially when approached through traditional, decontextualised methods. The chapter on AI-supported vocabulary instruction responds directly to this challenge by combining insights from second language acquisition theory, cognitive psychology, and digital pedagogy. It moves beyond general advocacy of technology use and instead offers concrete examples of how adaptive systems, generative AI tools, and carefully designed prompts can support personalization, retention, and meaningful use of lexical items. Importantly, this contribution also addresses ethical considerations and teacher preparedness, acknowledging that technological innovation must be accompanied by critical awareness and pedagogical responsibility. In this sense, the chapter positions AI not as a replacement for the teacher, but as a powerful pedagogical assistant when used thoughtfully and purposefully.

Taken together, the chapters in this book reflect the complexity and diversity of contemporary English language education. While each contribution addresses a distinct domain—EMI experiences, corpus-based grammatical analysis, and AI-enhanced pedagogy—they are united by a shared concern for grounding theory in practice and for responding to real educational needs. The volume does not claim

to offer definitive answers to all the questions raised by current developments in the field. Rather, it seeks to open space for reflection, dialogue, and further research by bringing together complementary perspectives. It is our hope that this book will be of value to researchers, teacher educators, and practitioners who wish to better understand the changing landscape of English language education and to engage with it in informed, critical, and creative ways.

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İÇİNDEKİLER

CHAPTER 1

ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: STUDENT CHALLENGES AND COPING STRATEGIES

MİTHAT EKİNCİ[1]

ECEM EKİNCİ[2]

Introduction

English use in higher education is a growing trend, and the demand for English is rising due to the current developments in the world. According to Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2012), English has evolved into the preeminent foreign language used as a teaching medium at educational institutions worldwide. These universities adopt EMI to support internationalization, increase academic competitiveness, and improve students' access to global knowledge. In non-English-speaking contexts, however, learning academic content through English often creates additional demands for students. EMI programs primarily focus on teaching subject

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knowledge, which necessitates students' engagement with complex disciplinary material while concurrently using a foreign language. As a result, the students have to face various challenges in classroom ecosystems where English is utilized as the primary means of instruction. These challenges may be linguistic, pedagogical, or affective and may negatively influence their academic performance and classroom participation. Despite the existence of EMI-related challenges, these students are not totally vulnerable. They actively develop and employ a wide range of coping strategies to manage the demands of learning content through English.

Focusing on the related literature and existing research, the present chapter aims to provide a comprehensive overview of EMI-related challenges faced by students and the coping strategies they employ to address these difficulties.

EMI-Related Challenges Faced by EMI Students

English-medium instruction (EMI) has become widespread in higher education as universities seek to internationalize their programs and improve students' academic and professional competitiveness. Despite its perceived benefits, studying academic content through a foreign language presents significant challenges for many students. These challenges prevent EMI students from comprehending the disciplinary content, participating in classroom activities and maintaining social relationships with their friends and teachers. According to Yıldız, Soruç, and Griffiths (2017), functioning at an academic level can be challenging even for native language speakers. Therefore, it should not be considered surprising that individuals attempting to do so in a language that is not their first (L1) typically do not find it easy.

Figure 1. Challenges faced   by EMI Students
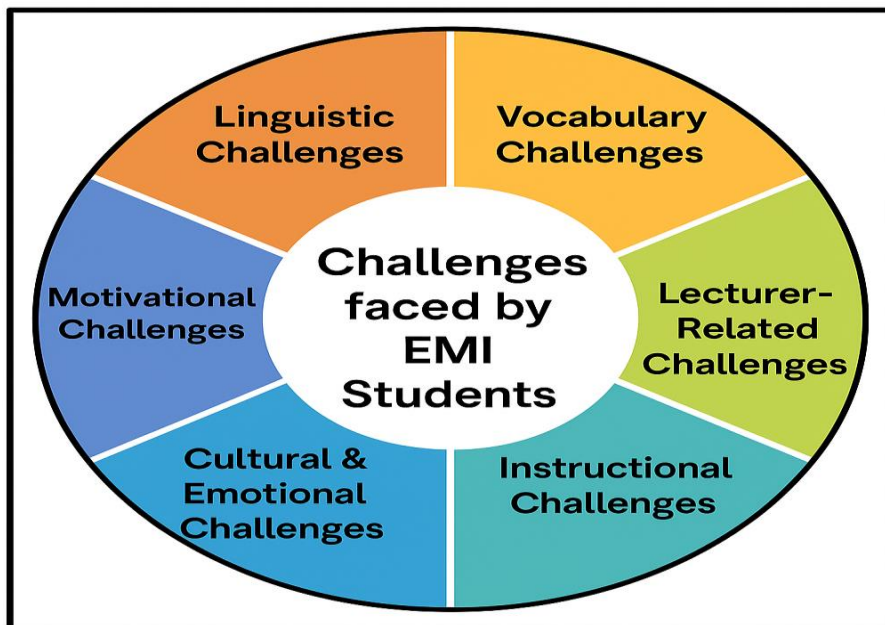
One of the most common challenges EMI students face is their limited language proficiency. Lemmer and Squelch (1993) stated that learners with incomplete proficiency in English have difficulty comprehending the disciplinary content presented in English in the EMI context. As a result, they struggle to follow the content and improve their academic knowledge. When lessons are given in a language unfamiliar to the students, they may have difficulty understanding the academic concepts and the meaning of the words (Cummins, 2007), which negatively influences content learning. As Zisanhi (2013) stated, many students with weak academic language ability have difficulty verbalizing and writing scientific concepts. Garcia and Otheguy (2020) asserted that EMI students had three proficiency challenges: restricted language skills, inadequate instructional methods, and insufficient resources to facilitate their learning. Similarly, Yeh (2014) stated that most EMI students encounter difficulties with specialised terminology and

subject comprehension owing to their restricted proficiency in the English language.

Another proficiency-related challenge faced by EMI students is their limited vocabulary. Phuong and Nguyen (2019) proposed that students' limited vocabulary contributes to their inability to fully absorb EMI instruction. As a result, students learning disciplinary content in English may find it challenging to comprehend and retain information from English-language lectures (Hellekjær, 2010). Another natural consequence of students' limited vocabulary proficiency is their difficulty understanding the EMI textbooks. As Al-Bakri (2013) stated, one of the most challenging issues for students is reading textbooks in English, as they lack sufficient vocabulary and academic expertise.

Lecturer-related challenges are another type of challenge faced by EMI students. As Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2013) stated, EMI lecturers do not provide adequate language resources and instruction for the students. In addition, even by linguistically trained instructors, language skills are hardly ever practiced in EMI classes. It is possible that content lecturers do not regard themselves as language teachers. However, they expect their students to have the linguistic skills needed to focus on content knowledge (Dearden, 2015). Another lecturer-related challenge faced by EMI students is the teacher-centered approach to lessons. Given and Prinsloo (2018) stated that lecturers generally employ teacher-centered, content-driven approaches rather than student-centered, interactive approaches in EMI settings. Wesche and Skehan (2002) identified that lecturers do not provide sufficient details about the target content during the lesson. They do not provide adequate learning time when English is the language of instruction. In addition, lecturers are generally passive during lessons and rely primarily on PowerPoint presentations as the primary source of knowledge. While professors explained slide after slide in detail, the students had

to sit quietly and listen to the lengthy lectures (Lee & Traynor, 2013). This reliance on PowerPoint slides creates monotonous lessons with no interaction. Learning without active participation and engagement does not help consolidate student knowledge and hinders learning experiences (Wesche & Skehan, 2002). Additionally, the EMI lecturers neglect group and pair-work activities. These interactive activities enhance learners' cognitive abilities and knowledge retention more efficiently than solitary tasks, as students engage in discussion, explanation, and negotiation of knowledge during group activities. (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). Despite the positive effects of group and pair work activities, EMI lecturers do not prefer to use them in the classroom. In addition, the lecturers' limited linguistic knowledge is another challenge for EMI students. Klaassen (2003) stated that 62% of students thought the English competence of their lecturers was unsatisfactory, as it was difficult to understand lecturers' English accents and they could not transfer their knowledge appropriately when speaking English. As a result, insufficient lecturer English proficiency and unclear accent use can hinder students' comprehension of course content and negatively affect the overall effectiveness of EMI instruction.

The cultural and emotional factors also create some challenges for EMI students. Nguyen and Tran (2022) stated that local EMI students lack confidence in their English communication skills. These students are less eager to collaborate or interact with international students outside the classroom. Besides, Kudo, Harada, Eguchi, Moriya and Suzuki (2017) discovered that students in EMI classrooms feel anxiety when speaking owing to their low English ability. Similarly, they are worried about how other students will perceive their English proficiency and whether or not their accents will be understood. Doiz et al. (2012) stated that EMI students rarely participate in lessons because they fear making mistakes while speaking English in front of their classmates. Also, they feel shy

when speaking and exchanging information in English. This fear-driven reluctance to speak often leads to limited classroom engagement and ultimately contributes to EMI students' academic underachievement.

EMI lecturers' frequent codeswitching between English and Turkish in class, low quality of the course materials, students' difficulty in understanding technical terms and vocabulary in English, the need to translate all the relevant material into students' native language, difficulty in taking notes because of the pace of the lecture and lack of learning motivation are among the other factors that create challenges for EMI students (Othman & Saat, 2009). Taken together, these interrelated challenges substantially increase students' cognitive load and limit their ability to follow lectures effectively in EMI contexts.

EMI Students' Coping Strategies

EMI students develop various strategies to address the EMI-related challenges they encounter in the classroom. These strategies are utilized to improve the quality of their retention of academic content. First of all, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) stated that EMI learners use cognitive and metacognitive strategies to address EMI-related difficulties. Soruç and Griffiths (2018) identified that EMI students develop various cognitive strategies, such as asking questions, visualizing and using prior experience. They also develop metacognitive strategies, such as taking notes, motivating the teacher, and actively participating in class discussions, to avoid hindrances that prevent them from focusing on the content taught in English.

EMI students also use translation as a strategy to cope with the challenges they encounter in the classroom. Soruç, Dinler and Griffiths (2018) stated that EMI students use translation strategies to enhance their learning and comprehension of academic content.

These EMI learners translate words and other language materials into their native language to better understand the course. Also, they think in their mother language and transfer it to English. Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) also state that EMI learners use translation to comprehend and retain content knowledge and to produce oral expressions in the classroom. Curle, Yüksel, Soruç and Altay (2020) consider L1 to be strategically indispensable in the EMI learning environment. In addition, Lin and Morrison (2010) demonstrated that EMI students with low English proficiency might benefit from L1 mediation, as it enables them to access more technical vocabulary in English and comprehend the academic and linguistic features of scientific discourse. Strategic and guided use of the mother tongue may facilitate comprehension, participation, and academic success in EMI classrooms, particularly for learners with lower English proficiency.

Another strategy type developed by the EMI students is referred to as language skill strategies. According to Oxford (1990), language skill strategies are defined as "specific actions undertaken by the learner to facilitate learning, enhance speed, increase enjoyment, promote self-direction, improve effectiveness, and ensure transferability to new contexts." EMI students listen to audio from the course materials and the internet, read extra articles and other written materials, write paragraphs and compositions and speak English with others to improve their content comprehension and English proficiency (Qasimnejad & Hemmati, 2014). Thanks to these language skill strategies, EMI students actively enhance their English proficiency and content understanding, which in turn supports their academic performance in EMI contexts.

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for EMI students who learn disciplinary content in English. Thus, they need to use strategies to cope with vocabulary-related challenges they encounter in EMI settings. Soruç and Griffiths (2018) identified that EMI

students use strategies such as guessing from context, employing paralanguage (for example, gestures) and using illustrations to manage vocabulary difficulties. Besides, EMI students improve their technical vocabulary knowledge, use printed and online dictionaries to look up the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary, and keep a notebook for the vocabulary and critical information taught in the classroom (Hong & Chi, 2008; Al Faraj, 2021). These vocabulary-focused strategies help EMI students overcome lexical difficulties and facilitate more effective comprehension of academic content.

Social strategies are among the coping strategies employed by EMI students to face the EMI-related challenges they experience. These EMI students prepare for exams with their friends, study with other students to complete course assignments, and participate in pair and group work activities. In addition, they utilize strategies such as asking for the notes kept by their friends, asking for help from their classmates to understand the content better and receiving help from the students who have received the EMI lessons in previous years (Evans and Morrison, 2011; Wilkinson, 2015). By employing social strategies, EMI students mitigate EMI-related challenges through peer collaboration and shared academic support, which enhances their understanding of course content and learning effectiveness.

The other coping strategies used by EMI students include motivating themselves to learn academic content in English, connecting new information with existing knowledge, focusing on details, and using online resources to improve their content knowledge (Menéndez, Grande, Sánchez & Camacho-Miñano, 2018). These self-regulatory and cognitive strategies enable EMI students to maintain learning motivation and deepen their understanding of academic content in English.

Conclusion

This chapter aimed to provide a comprehensive picture of the problems students in English-Medium Instruction (EMI) settings face and how they cope with them. This research demonstrated that EMI students face significant linguistic, pedagogical, and emotional challenges, arising from inadequate English proficiency, insufficient academic vocabulary, lecturer-related complications, and increased anxiety coupled with diminished confidence in classroom engagement. Despite the availability of these ongoing challenges, the results clearly exhibit that EMI students actively use a variety of cognitive, metacognitive, linguistic, social, and self-regulatory strategies to help them improve their learning. These students try to overcome language barriers and improve their understanding of academic content by using translation, working on their language skills, focusing on vocabulary, collaborating with peers, and using motivational and cognitive regulation strategies.

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CHAPTER 2

THE ENGLISH *GET*-PASSIVES: EVIDENCE FROM SPOKEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN NATIONAL CORPUS

SİBEL AYBEK[1]

Introduction

Varying in both informal spoken and formal written English, distribution of some lexico-grammatical patterns bears different meanings when used in different contexts. As Hundt (2001) argues, there has been a rise in the use of get-passives in all genres which can be linked to the rise of get in a number of constructions, and only some of the grammaticalized uses of get are composed by get-passives. Being one of the key features of English grammar, get-passives is a core grammatical pattern embodying structural rules and variable contexts of meaning and use (Collins 1996). Collins (1996) uses *get*-passives as an umbrella term for constructions with get which is followed by a past participle. Collins (1996) has provided a quite useful description of the different distributions of large-scale get-passives and their occurrence in a corpus of 5.25 million words and classified get-passives into five types (Collins 1996, p. 44):

1. Central: He got arrested by the police.

2. Psychological: I got frustrated.

3. a. Reciprocal: We got engaged.

   b. Reflexive: We got dressed.

4. Adjectival: The girls got drunk.

5. Formulaic: a. He got stuck.

        b. I will get rid of it.

In the central get-passive, the agent is explicitly mentioned, and it can be substituted by active counterpart with a little difference in the meaning; (e.g. the police arrested him.) In psychological type, worry, frustrate, satisfy indicate a verbal and adjectival properties and could be modified as feel frustrated instead of got frustrated. The reciprocal and reflexive types in 3 have

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a typical instance of get-passive which has identical agent and patient. Also, an active equivalent may be as we dressed/we dressed ourselves. The adjectival in 4 has no active equivalent, and no agent by-phrase (*the girls got drunk by too much beer), and that's why, it cannot be called as passive any longer. Finally, the last construction turned out to become idiomatic, and passive status is also questionable. Among all these 5 types, the first central one is the most common one and those could be explicated with active counterparts.

The get-passive is used more in informal in both British and American English (Collins, 1996; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). In the COCA, about 400 million words, Kim (2012) found out that the most frequent get-passive usage is in spoken texts and then in fiction. He also concluded that the get-passives are preferred in spoken or informal registers by both American and British English.

As for the properties of the get-passives, it is found only with dynamic verbs, describing the action including non-stative verbs such as caught, paid, done, dressed, fired, tested, picked, thrown, killed, asked (Downing, 1996; Collins, 1996; Taranto, 2005). It is not natural to have the get-passive with a non-dynamic stative verb (Kim 2012, 442):

(6) a. It was/*got believed that the letter was a forgery.

   b. He is/*got feared by most of the staff.

Also, even though the get-passive is specifically used in adverse and negative situations, it is possible to describe a beneficial situation (Collins, 1996):

(7) a. He got promoted multiple times.

   b. The story got published and won some recognition.

In addition, the speaker's personal involvement or speaker's opinion are expressed with the get-passive whether the event has favorable or unfavorable consequences (Chappell, 1980; Sussex, 1982; Collins, 1996).

Likewise, in some of the instances, the agent in the sentence cannot be blamed for the events such as:

(8) a. John got killed by a big truck.

   b. John got eliminated from the list by his director.

The agents here may not be responsible for the events. As can be seen, various grammatical properties govern the uses of the get-passive constructions. Additionally, (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 161–162) express that "get-passives carry additional semantic information, typically connotations of adversity or benefit for the subject (she got promoted), and a notion of responsibility of the patient (in the sense of she got herself promoted)."

The present study examines the structures and patterns related to get-passives in informal spoken British English and American spoken English, presenting the distribution, diversity, and

semantic categories of these constructions in both corpora. In this regard, the current study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What is the distribution of get-passive constructions in the spoken compenent of British National Corpus (BNC2014) and the American National Corpus (ANC)?

2. What is the diversity of the verbs used in get-passive constructions in both corpora?

3. What are the semantic domains of the verbs used with get-passive constructions in both corpora?

Previous Studies of Get-passives

One of the earliest studies related to get-passives belongs to Hatcher (1949) who studied the get/be contrast in passive voice usage. He noted that "the co-occurrence of the get-passive with an explicitly stated human subject (or 'agent') was quite unlikely, though impersonal or depersonalized agents might occur (the term 'agent' is another term for the entity which acts in a clause) (Hatcher, 1949, p. 436)." So, get will be used to indicate only for fortunate, or unfortunate consequences for the subject. Similarly, Hatcher's statements relate to what Lakoff (1971) claims which focuses more on speaker attitude and the relationship between grammatical subject of the clause and the logical subject. Lakoff (1971), relating the role of fortunate and unfortunate events in the use of get-passives discussion, explains how "the get-passive is frequently used to reject the attitude of the speaker toward the events described in the sentence: whether he feels they are good or bad, or reject well or poorly on him or the superficial subject of the sentence (for whom he thus expresses implicit sympathy) (p. 154)."

Another study addressing the issue of agency is Granger's (1983) corpus-based investigation of the be + past participle construction in spoken English, based on a 160,000-word sample from the Survey of English Usage. Within this dataset, she identified only ten instances of the get-passive, nine of which were completely agentless, while just one contained an explicit, indefinite and non-human agent. This extremely low rate of overt agency in get-passives mirrors her broader finding that the vast majority of spoken passives (around 80–90%) are agentless, and supports the view that passive constructions in spontaneous speech are typically used to foreground the affected subject while backgrounding or suppressing the agent. In line with later summaries of her work, Granger also suggests that the few agentful passives that do occur tend to have a focalising function, retaining the by-phrase only when the agent is particularly salient or contrastive in the discourse.

In terms of contexts in which get-passives are used, many studies have shown that the majority of *get*-passives are linked to adversative contexts. Carter and McCarthy (1999) refer to these contexts as "a state of affairs that is signaled contextually by the conversational participants as unfortunate, undesirable, or at least problematic (p. 49)." In their corpus, while nearly 90% of get-passives are adversative, not more than 5% have beneficial meanings. They also found out that speakers mark agency and involvement of participants by using different get structures and a number of passive alternatives are not used on purpose "seeing the grammar as offering the speaker

different perspectives and positions from which to report events; such perspectives not only influence the information-structure of messages but also the interpersonal interpretation of speaker stance and attitude, and the degree of perceived formality (Carter & McCarthy, 1999, p. 48)."

Within the same line of reasoning, Collins (1996) found out 67% adversative and 23% beneficial get-passives usages in his mixed spoken and written corpus. Likewise, Francis et al. (1996, p. 58-59) also stated that "something unpleasant is happening" and unfortunate events, or events perceived as unfavorable for the agent, such as get arrested, killed, sued, burgled, criticized, beaten, intimidated, penalized, etc. (Hatcher 1949; Chappell 1980). Lastly, Biber et al. (1999, p. 481) summarized get-passives as selecting verbs that have "negative connotations, conveying that the action of the verb is difficult or to the disadvantage of the subject, for instance, get pinched, struck by lightning, run over etc."

The get-passive is used more in informal language in both British and American English (Collins, 1996; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Similarly, Kim (2012) carried out a corpus-based linguistic analysis of the *get*-passive structure in English, in COCA and COHA, and also observed that the get-passive is most frequently used in spoken texts and then in fiction, but least frequently used in academic texts. Kim (2012) also found out that the most frequent verbs in the get-passive in the COCA and COHA include caught, paid, done, hit, fired, arrested.

This study examines the distributional patterns of get-passives by adopting Carter and McCarthy's (1999) categorization as its analytical framework, which distinguishes between several structurally and functionally distinct subtypes of the construction. Building on this model, the analysis not only identifies how frequently each subtype occurs in the British National Corpus (BNC2014 - henceforth) Spoken Component (Love et al., 2017) and Open American National Corpus (ANC - henceforth) Second Release (Reppen, Ide & Suderman, 2005), but also investigates the lexico-semantic diversity of the verbs that participate in these patterns. Particular attention is paid to the semantic domains and event types associated with the verbs such as adversative, neutral, and beneficial meanings and to how these meanings cluster across different constructional types. In doing so, the study provides a more fine-grained account of how British and American speakers exploit the get-passive to encode affectedness, stance, and degrees of involvement, revealing important cross-varietal similarities and differences in the lexico-grammatical behaviour of the construction.

Methodology

Get-passives and related forms

For the purpose of the study, Carter and McCarthy's (1999) range of structural configurations of get-passives which has been provided in the second table has been used in the current study.

Table 1. Range of structural configurations of get-passive and their passive alternatives

Type	Example	Alternative(s)
a	He got killed trying to save some other man.	*He was killed* trying to save some other man.

b	You see, if ever you get yourself locked out	You see, if ever *you are locked out*
c	Rian got his nipple pierced and it was so gross.	i *Rian had his nipple pierced* and it was so gross. ii *Rian nipple was pierced* and it was so gross.
d	She got me to do a job for her, fencing.	*She had me (to) do a job for her*, fencing.
e	The tape seems to have got stuck.	i *The tape seems to have become stuck.* ii *The tape seems to be stuck.*
f	Right we've got to get you kitted out	i Right we've got to *have you kitted out* ii Right we've got to *kit you out*

Adapted from Carter & McCarthy (1999, p. 48).

It is quite difficult to limit the *get*-passive structure to only one structural configuration and the structure, in fact, has a variety of forms with closely related meanings (Carter & McCarthy 1999, p. 46-47):

a) X get V-en (by Z) (where X is patient)

(1) S1 He got killed trying to save some other man. [SM05312]

b) X get reflexive pronoun V-en (where X is patient but with overtones of agency)

(2) S1 You see, if ever you get yourself locked out . . . I showed her how to get in. [90083001]

c) X get Y V-en (where X is patient and indirect agent)

(3) S1 Rian got his nipple pierced and it was so gross. [90064002]

d) X get Y V-inf (where X is indirect agent and beneficiary)

(4) S1 She got me to do a job for her, fencing. [90083001]

e) X get adjectival past participle (where X is patient)

(5) S1 The tape seems to have got stuck. [80261001]

f) X get Y adjectival past participle (where X is agent, either direct or indirect)

(6) S1 Right we've got to get you kitted out cos you can't go in like that. [80261001]

According to Carter & McCarthy (1999), type (a) is close to the unmarked passive with be. Secondly, type (b) seems to mean an `acting in a way that will make something happen to you' involving the subject very directly with responsibility. Type (c) has the meaning of `arranging for/ordering someone else to do something for you'. Similarly, type (d) is similar with the exception that the agent is specified. On the other hand, type (e) is somewhat ambiguous to the role played

by the grammatical subject. *Have* can replace *get* in many dialects without any marked change in meaning. And lastly, type (f) involves a change of state rather than an agent-motivated event.

A number of different get-constructions with related meanings are connected in various ways with `canonical' be-passives. However, the aim of the present paper is not to compare get-passive constructions with their *-be* counterparts, but rather to present the distribution, diversity and semantic categories of *get*-passive constructions in both BNC and American spoken corpora.

Corpora

In the current study, the spoken parts of British National Corpus (BNC2014) Spoken Component (Love et al., 2017) and Open American National Corpus (ANC) Second Release (Reppen, Ide & Suderman, 2005) have been used as the primary data sources for this study. Despite differences in recording mode (face-to-face vs. telephone), both corpora are balanced and linguistically annotated using standardized encoding schemes (e.g., XML/XCES and POS tagging), ensuring comparability in lexical-grammatical analysis. Using these two datasets allows for a cross-varietal exploration of spoken English across British and American contexts, focusing on structural and lexical features rather than purely sociolinguistic variation. A detailed breakdown of the corpora is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 2: The two corpora used in the study: BNC2014 and OANC

Corpus	BNC2014	Open American National Corpus (ANC)
Language	British English	American English
Source	transcriptions of unscripted informal and spoken language collected in different contexts	transcriptions of unscripted informal and spoken language collected in different contexts
Register	Spoken	Spoken
Time	2012-2016	1990-present
Speech Type	Spontaneous, informal, conversational	face-to-face interactions, telephone conversations, and planned speeches
Size: tokens	11,832,933	3,224,388

The Spoken British National Corpus 2014 (Spoken BNC2014) is a large-scale collection of contemporary spoken British English designed to represent informal, everyday communication across the United Kingdom. Compiled between 2012 and 2016, it consists of approximately 11.8 million words transcribed from 1,251 audio recordings involving 668 speakers (Love et al., 2017). The corpus exclusively contains spontaneous, informal, face-to-face conversations among family members, friends, and acquaintances, thereby focusing on

naturalistic, non-institutional speech rather than formal or task-oriented discourse. All recordings were collected through public participation, with volunteers recording their own conversations using mobile devices, which were then orthographically transcribed and anonymized for research use. Unlike the earlier BNC1994, which also included context-governed registers such as meetings and interviews, the Spoken BNC2014 deliberately limits its scope to casual, everyday spoken English, making it particularly suitable for studies examining conversational lexis, discourse features, and contemporary usage patterns (Love et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the spoken component of the Open American National Corpus (ANC), which is a freely available subset of the ANC project (Reppen et al., 2005), represents approximately ten percent of the total corpus, amounting to about 10 million words. It was designed to capture a range of spoken registers in American English, from informal conversational exchanges to more structured communicative events such as meetings and planned speeches (Reppen et al., 2005). The First Release of the ANC (2003) included spoken data, compiled from three major sources: the Switchboard Corpus (2,320 telephone dialogues, 3,056,062 words), the CallHome Corpus (24 phone conversations, 50,494 words), and the Charlotte Narrative and Conversation Corpus (95 oral narratives, 117,832 words), totaling 3,224,388 words. These sub-corpora together provide a representative sample of spontaneous, naturally occurring American spoken English across diverse social and regional contexts. In terms of content, the spoken section encompasses face-to-face interactions, telephone conversations, and planned speeches, enabling analysis of linguistic variation across both informal and semi-formal discourse settings. The texts were processed and encoded according to the XML Corpus Encoding Standard (XCES) and tagged with multiple part-of-speech taggers (Biber, CLAWS, and Penn Treebank), ensuring compatibility with other large corpora such as the BNC. The spoken OANC thus serves as a complementary American counterpart to the spoken British National Corpus, offering valuable material for studies on register variation, conversational features, and cross-varietal English comparison (Reppen et al., 2005).

SketchEngine

All corpus analyses were conducted using SketchEngine (Kilgarriff et al., 2014), an advanced corpus query and analysis platform that allows for automated extraction of linguistic patterns from large text datasets. Both the Spoken BNC2014 (Love et al., 2017) and the ANC, representing contemporary British and American spoken English respectively, were accessed through SketchEngine's web interface. The platform's integrated tools including the Concordance, Word Sketch, Collocation, and Frequency List functions were used to identify and compare *get*-passives across the two corpora. Queries were run using the Corpus Query Language (CQL) to extract the constructions (get + past participle structures), ensuring precision and replicability. *Get*-passives have been extracted by using the following corpus query patterns for each category of the *get*-passives structures:

    a. [lemma="get"][tag="RB"]?[tag="V.*N|V.*D"]

    b. [lemma="get"][lemma = ".*self"]? [tag="V.*N|V.*D"]

c. [lemma="get"] [tag="PP"][tag="N.*"]? [tag="V.*N|V.*D"]
d. [lemma="get"][tag="PP"][tag="to"][tag="V.*"]
e. [lemma="have"][[lemma="get"][tag="V.*N|V.*D"]
f. [lemma="get"][word="to"][word="get"][tag="PP"][tag="VVN"]

Get-passives patterns have been extracted from the Sketch Engine using the CQL above. SketchEngine's built-in metadata filters were also employed to control for variables such as register, speaker demographic information (age, gender, region), and spoken vs. written mode, particularly within the BNC2014 dataset.

Procedure

After extracting the structures from SketchEngine, all *get* lemma forms have been considered. The extracted lists were manually examined to exclude irrelevant, recurrent and meaningless structures. Upon computing the frequency information for both corpora, data were normalized for corpus size differences, and outputs were exported as CSV files for further statistical analysis in Excel.

After finding out the frequencies of respective *get*-passive categories by using SketchEngine, diversity of the most frequent verbs in these patterns has been revealed from both corpora. In order to specify both the diversity and the numbers of the verbs used in the structures, the AntConc 3.2 retrieval software has been used. The frequencies of the verbs found in each category for these corpora have been statistically compared by calculating the log-likelihood values. The statistical significance between the overuse and underuse of the verbs in both corpora has been calculated. Afterwards, semantic domains of the most frequent verbs used in both corpora have been revealed using Rayson's (2008) Wmatrix software.

Findings

In order to answer our first research question, *get*-passive constructions have been extracted from the corpora using SketchEngine. The distribution of *get*-passive constructions in in both corpora is as follows:

Table 3. The distribution of *get*-passive constructions in BNC2014 and ANC

Type	Pattern	BNC (*f*)	Ame (*f*)
a	X get V-en (by Z) (where X is patient)	5354	4771
b	X get reflexive pronoun V-en (where X is patient but with overtones of agency)	28	21
c	X get Y V-en (where X is patient and indirect agent)	983	643
d	X get Y V-inf (where X is indirect agent and beneficiary)	276	301

e	X get adjectival past participle (where X is patient)	3	63
	Total	6644	5799

As can be seen from the table, 6644 *get*-passive constructions have been observed BNC spoken corpus in total. Type (a) which is the central type seems to have the highest frequency with 5354 instances in the whole data. Type (c) appears to be the second common get-passive type with 983 frequency. And then, type (d) is the third common get-passive type with 276 instances. Only 28 instances have been observed of the type (b). Lastly, both type (e) and type (f) have solely 3 instances in each category.

As for the American spoken corpus, 5799 instances of *get*-passive constructions are observed in total. Type (a) has the highest frequency among all with 4771 instances. While second most common type (c) has 643 instances of get-passives, type (d) has 301 instances. 63 instances of get-passives belong to the type (e). And type (b) has a frequency of 21. Lastly, type (f) has only 2 instances in the whole data.

When compared with the BNC spoken corpus, the first 3 common get-passive constructions follow the same pattern in both corpora. However, type (b) is the fourth most common one in BNC, and American corpus has type (e) as the fourth common one with 63 instances while BNC corpus has only 3 instances.

Table 4 represents the log-likelihood results of all the types of get-passive constructions between two corpora.

Table 4. Log-Likelihood results of all types of get-passive constructions

Types	BNC (*f*)	Ame (*f*)	Log-likelihood	Significance	
a	5354	4771	1163.53	**0.000** ***	+
b	28	21	8.84	**0.003** **	+
c	983	643	392.51	**0.000** ***	+
d	276	301	32.53	**0.000** ***	+
e	3	63	38.35	**0.000** ***	-
f	3	2	1.16	**0.281**	+

+ indicates more frequency in BNC corpus
- indicates more frequency in American corpus

As seen in table 4, in all categories except type f, the use of get-passive constructions is used more in a statistically significant manner. Type (b) frequencies in both corpora might seem close to each other but as the corpus sizes are normalized in log-likelihood calculations, it is evident that this type of construction is used more in BNC corpus.

In order to find answer to the second research question, the most frequent verbs used in each construction have been analyzed to reveal the diversity of the verbs used in *get*-passive constructions in both corpora. The findings from this analysis are presented below. In the following sections, we will present the distribution of verbs in these constructions respectively.

a. Type-a Constructions (X get V-en (by Z) (where X is patient):

The first type of the get-passive constructions is where X gets V-en (by Z) (where X is patient). While 5354 instances have been observed in type (a) constructions in 10-million-word BNC2014, American corpus has 5799 instances in total. We found 17 verbs which are commonly used in both corpora based on f: 30 cut-off point in terms of frequency. These most common verbs found in both corpora are may be found in the table 5 below. The log-likelihood of the common verbs in both corpora are represented along with their log-likelihood values in table 5 below.

Table 5. The log-likelihood of the common most frequent verbs in type (a)

Common Verbs	BNC (*f*)	Ame (*f*)	Log-likelihood	Significance		
get paid	452	281	194.95	**0.000**	***	+
get used	242	233	42.80	**0.000**	***	+
get involved	131	272	2.44	**0.118**		-
get lost	128	96	40.40	**0.000**	***	+
get married	159	204	8.81	**0.003**	**	+
get done	93	194	1.84	**0.175**		-
get stuck	117	62	62.44	**0.000**	***	+
get caught	82	139	0.07	**0.784**		+
get started	31	168	41.89	**0.000**	***	-
get bored	79	45	38.48	**0.000**	***	+
get killed	72	67	13.99	**0.000**	***	+
get dressed	64	81	3.83	**0.050**		+
get divorced	35	30	9.72	**0.002**	**	+
get hit	52	45	12.13	**0.000**	***	+
get confused	55	30	32.08	**0.000**	***	+
get taken	35	30	9.72	**0.002**	**	+
get stressed	34	37	4.04	**0.044**	*	+

+indicates more frequency in BNC corpus
- indicates more frequency in American corpus

According to the table, cases of get paid, get stuck, get used, get lost, get confused, get picked, and get bored are statistically significant and more frequent in BNC spoken corpus. There seems to be solely one verb get started which is more frequent in American corpus. Additionally, British speakers seem to use the verb pay in their contexts way more than American speakers do. Stuck follows the case of pay and is used majorly by British speakers. Likewise, use and lose are other two verbs that are frequently used by British speakers. Some examples of these instances follow:

> *(1) I'd tell him get lost*
> *(2) yeah he got picked up this morning S0690*
> *(3) There, there's one about someone got divorced, um, uh, one of the partners.*
> *(4) and then mum sort of says she'll get odd one she gets stuck on and usually*
> *(5) and I was just like oh it'll be you so I'll just get sorted and*
> *(6) what individuals can do other than like I said get involved through a group or an organization.*

As for the verbs used in type (a) constructions particularly appear in both BNC2014 and American corpora are listed below:

Table 6. Types of verbs used in type (a) constructions in both Corpora

Types in BNC2014	*f*	Types in American Spoken	*f*
get told	70	get hurt	70
get pissed	64	get engaged	53
get changed	61	get tested	41
get fed	59	get moved	33
get sent	58	get fired	32
get given	56	get elected	32

| get left | 48 | get thrown | 32 |
| get kicked | 44 | get called | 31 |

As the table shows, the comparison of verb types occurring in *get*-passives across Spoken BNC2014 and the American spoken corpus reveals clear cross-varietal preferences in how affectedness is encoded. British English shows higher frequencies of *get* + verbs tied to everyday interpersonal interactions (e.g., *get told, get changed, get fed*), reflecting the construction's tendency to highlight social dynamics and subjective experience. In contrast, American English favors verbs associated with event-driven or institutional contexts (e.g., *get hurt, get engaged, get fired*), suggesting a greater orientation toward externally measurable changes of state. Overall, these patterns indicate that while both varieties use *get*-passives to foreground the experiencer, British English leans toward interpersonal and domestic contexts, whereas American English more often encodes formal events and significant life transitions. Some of the instances of these examples from both corpora may be seen below:

(7) I was getting really pissed off because I was doing most of the cleaning.
(8) When she''s getting changed.
(9) one of those things you don't feel ill you just get told you've got cancer you don't really
(10) I sometimes read Kerrangs that got given to me.

Considering the adversity of the most frequent 30 verbs in BNC corpus in type (a) category, 16 of them are adversative while 14 are neutral or beneficiary in their context. Likewise, in American corpus, 13 of 25 verbs are used in adversative manners.

b. Type (b) Constructions (X gets a reflexive pronoun V-en (where X is patient but with overtones of agency):

The second type of the get-passive constructions is when X gets a reflexive pronoun and V-en (where X is patient but with overtones of agency). While BNC spoken corpus has 28 instances of reflexive get-passives, 21 instances have been observed in total in American corpus. The verbs used in type (b) constructions in these corpora are not common. The verbs used in BNC corpus are as follows:

Table 7. Types of verbs used in type (b) constructions in both Corpora

Types in BNC2014	f	Types in American Spoken	f
get myself sorted	10	get yourself settled	2
get myself started	2	get himself shot	1
get yourself dressed	1	get yourself positioned	1
get yourself washed	1	get myself spayed	1
get yourself lynched	1	get myself involved	1
get himself whaled	1	get myself burned	1
get yourself geared	1	get himself hurt	1
get himself lost	1	get yourself validated	1
get himself arrested	1	get himself tossed	1

get yourself changed	1	get yourself tired	1
get himself qualified	1	get yourself dug	1
get himself worked	1	get myself worked	1
get yourself excited	1	get myself overwhelmed	1
get yourself involved	1	get myself motivated	1
get ourselves organised	1	get myself approved	1
get themselves covered	1	get itself straightened	1

Among the verbs used, *sort* has the highest frequency with 10 instances in total, whereas the other verbs have been observed only once. A closer look at the verbs reveals that BNC speakers employ this construction to describe a wide range of self-directed or self-affected actions, including *get yourself washed*, *get himself qualified*, *get yourself changed*, *get ourselves organised*, and *get themselves covered*. Many of these verbs semantically relate to personal management, bodily actions, self-preparation, emotional readiness, or personal improvement, which aligns with the interpretation of the subject having subtle agency or involvement, even while functioning syntactically as a patient.

In contrast, the American corpus displays far fewer shared lexical items with the BNC. Only three verbs, *involve*, *work*, and *cover*, appear in both datasets, pointing to minimal lexical overlap between the two varieties. This suggests that, although the construction is grammatically possible in both dialects, British English employs it in a more idiomatic and pragmatically diverse manner, while American English uses it more sparingly and in more predictable semantic contexts.

c. Type (c) Constructions (X get Y V-en (where X is patient and indirect agent)):

Another type of *get*-passive constructions is when X get Y and V-en (where X is patient and indirect agent). This type is the second most common construction in both corpora. BNC spoken corpus has 983 instances whereas 643 have been found out in American corpus. Cut-off point for both corpora was *f*: 3. Of all the most frequent verbs used in both corpora, only 6 of them appear to be common, which are get it done, get you started, get it fixed, get them involved, get it made, get it hooked.

The log-likelihood calculations of the common verbs in both corpora are represented in table 8 below.

Table 8. The log-likelihood of the common most frequent verbs in type (c) constructions

Type C Common Verbs	BNC (*f*)	Ame (*f*)	Log-likelihood	Significance	
do	126	137	15.02	**0.000** ***	+
start	20	37	0.03	**0.859**	-
fix	13	42	4.03	**0.045** *	-
involve	10	17	0.01	**0.930**	+
make	8	5	3.42	**0.064**	+
hook	3	6	0.03	**0.856**	-

+ indicates more frequency in BNC corpus
indicates more frequency in American corpus

Among the most frequent common verbs, *do* appears to have the most significant which have been used much more frequent in BNC corpus. Some examples may be seen below:

(11) he's got gotta get it done

(12) get it paid for in no time really

(3) when it's smoking, and you have to get it fixed el pronto

(14) it's a good idea to get them involved in city and community activities and, you know.

In Type (c) constructions, the two corpora again exhibit distinct lexical preferences, with relatively little overlap between the verbs most frequently used in each dataset. The verbs that occur in the BNC Spoken corpus but not in the American data include *get it sorted* (f: 36), *get me organised* (f: 7), *get him covered* (f: 7), *get us had* (f: 5), *get them pierced* (f: 4), *get it planned* (f: 4), *get it cleaned* (f: 3), *get it recorded* (f: 3), and *get it paid* (f: 3). Among these, *get it sorted* overwhelmingly dominates the construction, appearing 36 times, which indicates a strong British idiomatic preference for using this construction in contexts relating to task completion, problem resolution, and personal organisation. The next most frequent verbs—*organise* and *cover*—appear far less frequently, yet still more prominently in the BNC than in the American data.

Example concordance lines from the BNC demonstrate this pattern:

(15) *we got it passed and stuff and like like write about stuff like*

(16) *Since we only get one extended constructed response which I kept at 5 points to*

These examples illustrate that British speakers frequently use Type (c) constructions in collaborative, organisational, and problem-solving contexts, reinforcing the pragmatic association of get-constructions with achieving resolution or progress.

In contrast, the American corpus reveals a different set of verbs unique to this construction type, such as *get it passed* (f: 9), *get it straightened* (f: 8), *get one extended* (f: 7), *get it set* (f: 7), *get it reported* (f: 6), *get it finished* (f: 6), *get it checked* (f: 6), *get one called* (f: 6), *get them used* (f: 5), and *get them confused* (f: 5). These verbs suggest that American speakers employ the construction more often in contexts involving administrative processes, procedural steps, or the achievement of externally required outcomes, rather than the more personal or organisational scenarios found in the BNC.

The data reveal that although both dialects utilise Type (c) get-constructions, the British pattern is dominated by a highly conventionalised, idiomatic expression ("get it sorted"), whereas the American pattern is more evenly distributed across verbs linked to formal procedures, task completion, and reporting or checking processes. This highlights how each variety associates the construction with different pragmatic domains and demonstrates the role of dialect-specific routines in shaping the lexical realisation of the get-passive.

d. Type (d) Constructions (X get Y V-inf (where X is indirect agent and beneficiary)):

The other type of the get-passive constructions is where X get Y and V-inf (where X is indirect agent and beneficiary). While 276 instances have been observed in type (a) constructions in 10-million-word BNC spoken corpus, 18-million-word American spoken corpus has 301 instances in total. 20 most frequent verbs have been chosen to compare the two corpora. Out of 20 instances, 10 of the verbs are common in this category in both corpora. Some of the most frequent verbs that are common in both corpora include structures such as *get him to do, get him to come, get him to say, get him to go, get them to take*.

The log-likelihood of the common verbs in both corpora are represented in table 9 below.

Table 9. The log-likelihood of the common most frequent verbs in type (d)

Type D Common Verbs	BNC (*f*)	Ame (*f*)	Log-likelihood	Significance		
to do	39	28	13.33	**0.000**	***	+
to go	19	13	7.06	**0.008**	**	+
to say	10	10	1.58	**0.209**		+
to work	10	7	3.57	**0.059**		+
to change	3	10	1.04	**0.307**		-
to be	4	14	1.65	**0.199**		-
to sign	6	8	0.26	**0.609**		+
to put	3	5	0.01	**0.940**		+
to come	17	27	0.11	**0.740**		+

to take	6	8	0.26	**0.609**	+

+ indicates more frequency in BNC corpus   -
indicates more frequency in American corpus

As may be seen from the table, among the most frequent common verbs, *do, go* and *work* appear to be the most significant ones compared to the other verbs. The verbs, *do* and *go,* are more frequently used in BNC corpus in comparison to the American corpus. Only two of the verbs, namely *change* and *be*, have been more frequently used in American corpus than BNC corpus. Examples could be seen below:

(17) But they tried to get me to do that.
(18) uh, good, good women who, uh, would often, uh, get them to come to the house.
(19) And every time I try to get her to say anything in English.
(20) And some of them it's hard to get them to go so but in general any of the fairly

In Type (d) constructions, the two corpora show distinct lexical preferences, with several verbs appearing exclusively in one variety but not the other. The BNC Spoken corpus exhibits a wider range of verbs uniquely associated with this construction, including *send* (f: 7), *get* (f: 9), *fill* (f: 3), *look* (f: 4), *dig* (f: 2), *write* (f: 4), *stay* (f: 4), and *pay* (f: 4). Among these, *get* stands out as the most frequent verb, followed by *send*, suggesting that British speakers favour this construction particularly in contexts involving movement, communication, or the completion of personal tasks.

Conversely, the American spoken corpus displays a different lexical profile, with verbs such as *meet* (f: 8), *agree* (f: 7), *skip* (f: 4), *fit* (f: 5), *eat* (f: 6), *make* (f: 4), *represent* (f: 4), *reflect* (f: 4), and *leap* (f: 4) appearing exclusively in this dataset. These verbs suggest that American speakers employ Type (d) get-constructions in contexts related to social interaction, decision-making, physical movement, and cognitive or representational processes, which differs markedly from the British pattern.

Taken together, these differences indicate that although both varieties permit the Type (d) construction, each dialect associates it with a different set of semantic domains. British English favours verbs linked to actions carried out on one's behalf or personal tasks, while American English more frequently associates this construction with interpersonal, cognitive, or action-oriented verbs. This divergence highlights the extent to which lexical choice within the get-construction is shaped by dialect-specific pragmatic routines and cultural conceptualisations of agency and involvement.

Below are some the examples provided:

(21) want to get a newer one with a couple of gears on it get Matthew to get one for you at the base
(22) about the wallpaper and decorating, and I'll get him to get that out.

(23) and I'll get them to send some more tapes.
(24) to talk on the telephone, and then to try to get them to meet together, and

e. Type (e) Constructions (where X is agent, either direct or indirect)):

Type (e) constructions consist of patterns in which *X gets Y* in an adjectival past participle form, where X functions as an agentive subject—either directly or indirectly. A striking asymmetry emerges between the two corpora: while the American spoken corpus contains 63 instances, the BNC Spoken corpus includes only 3 examples of this construction. The tokens attested in the BNC are *got minced*, *got involved*, and *got filled*, each occurring only once:

(25) "and I support the Boks but they'd got minced by Japan…"
(26) "the year when I was going out with… I'd got involved."
(27) "I've got filled all the holes at home from our little visitors."

These three instances demonstrate that British speakers rarely use the adjectival get-construction to convey agentive involvement. The verbs *mince*, *involve*, and *fill* appear only once each, suggesting that this construction type is not productive in British English and does not form part of a recognisable or entrenched grammatical pattern.

In contrast, the American corpus shows substantially greater variety and productivity, with 63 occurrences featuring verbs such as *get used* (f: 7), *get abstracted* (f: 4), *get satisfied* (f: 4), *get done* (f: 4), *get left* (f: 3), *get engaged* (f: 3), *get smacked* (f: 3), *get budgeted* (f: 2), as well as several low-frequency verbs such as *get lost*, *get divorced*, *get bumped*, *get steamed*, *get set*, *get made*, and *get stuck*. These verbs span diverse semantic fields—including social status changes (e.g., *get engaged*, *get divorced*), completion of tasks (*get done*, *get set*), emotional or cognitive states (*get satisfied*, *get abstracted*), and unexpected or externally caused physical actions (*get smacked*, *get bumped*). Some of the examples of these instances follow:

(28) I've gotten used to it.
(29) kind of thing like the earthquake, and I have gotten stuck on a lot of this.
(30) Well, we already have got engaged

This wide lexical range suggests that American English speakers use Type (e) get-constructions as a productive grammatical resource for expressing states that result from prior events, often with a mild agentive nuance or an implicit involvement of the subject. The data also aligns with the broader tendency for American English to prefer gotten-based participial forms in expressing resultant states and completive meanings, which has no direct counterpart in British English usage.

Taken together, the findings indicate that Type (e) constructions are highly productive and semantically flexible in American English, whereas in the BNC they appear exceptionally rare and non-lexicalised. This stark contrast highlights a significant dialectal divergence in how the get-construction is extended into adjectival participial domains across the two varieties.

f. Type (f) Contructions (X gets an adjectival past participle (where X is patient)):

The last construction in get-passives is where X gets an adjectival past participle (where X is patient). This is the least frequent category in both corpora. While solely 3 instances have been observed in type (f) constructions in the BNC corpus, The final type of get-passive constructions consists of patterns in which *X gets an adjectival past participle*, where the subject X functions as a patient. This is the least frequent constructional category in both corpora. In the BNC Spoken corpus, only three instances were identified: *got to get it looked*, *got to get it done*, and *got to get them sorted*, each attested once. Examples are shown below:

(31) *"you know I've got to get it looked everywhere but…"*
(32) *"we've got to get them sorted out soon"*

Similarly, the American spoken corpus, despite its larger size (18 million words), contains only two instances of Type (f), both of which involve the verb phrase *got to get it done*:

(33) *"I've got to get it done."*
(34) *"You know I've been able to have a more like got to get it done instead of like…"*

Interestingly, the only overlapping expression between the two corpora is *got to get it done*, which appears once in the BNC and twice in the American corpus. This shared token suggests that while the construction is extremely rare overall, the two dialects occasionally converge on similar formulaic expressions, particularly in contexts emphasizing urgency, necessity, or task completion.

Overall, the extremely low frequency in both corpora indicates that Type (f) constructions are not a productive or entrenched pattern in either variety of English. Their rarity and limited lexical range suggest that they function as fixed or semi-formulaic expressions rather than as a robust grammatical option within the get-passive system.

Semantic Domains of *Get*-Passives

In order to answer our last question, UCREL semantic tag sets have been used with Wmatrix (Rayson 2008). Semantic domains of the verbs used in the BNC spoken corpus may be seen in table 10.

Table 10. Semantic domains of the verbs used in the constructions in BNC and American spoken corpus

Semantic domains in BNC	Frequency	Semantic domain in Ame	Frequency
Getting and possession	1064	Getting and possession	1138
Change	223	Modify, change	541
Cause & Effect/Connection	212	Cause & Effect/Connection	225

Putting, pulling, pushing, transporting	111	Putting, pulling, pushing, transporting	115
General actions / making	88	General actions / making	112
Moving, coming and going	71	Moving, coming and going	56
Understanding	47	Speech acts	44
Violent/Angry	37	General appearance and physical properties	40
Paper documents and writing	33	Understanding	37
Speech acts	32	Violent/Angry	36
Giving	28	Inclusion	34
Damaging and destroying	26	Constraint	33
Speech: Communicative	23	Paper documents and writing	33
Using	19	Change	32
Time: Beginning	18	Speech: Communicative	28
Constraint	17	Law and order	25
Cleaning and personal care	17	Damaging and destroying	24
		Helping	24

As can be seen from the table 12, getting and possession appears to be the most frequent domain among all. Change is the second most common domain. Cause & effect/connection follows change. Verbs related to transporting such as putting, pulling, pushing, and transporting is another frequent domain. The semantic-domain distribution of *get*-related constructions reveals both considerable overlap and notable divergences between the BNC Spoken and American spoken corpora. In both datasets, "Getting and possession" overwhelmingly dominates, indicating that core meanings associated with acquisition and possession are stable across varieties. Similarly, domains such as "Cause & Effect/Connection," "Putting, pulling, pushing, transporting," and "General actions/making" appear with comparable frequencies, suggesting parallel functional uses of *get* in physical actions, causation, and general activity contexts. However, the American corpus displays much broader semantic productivity, with notably higher frequencies in categories such as "Modify/change," "General actions/making," and "Speech acts," and with additional semantic fields—such as "Helping," "Disease," "Law and order," "Business: Selling," and "Worry", appearing only in the American data. These patterns indicate that American English extends the semantic range of *get* into more procedural, administrative, cognitive, and affective domains, reflecting a greater reliance on *get* in expressing resultative states, institutional processes, and interpersonal interaction. By contrast, the BNC displays more localized peaks in domains such as "Moving, coming and going" and "Cleaning and personal care," consistent with the British preference for idiomatic and routine expressions such as *get going* or *get cleaned up*. Overall, although both corpora share a common semantic core, the American corpus demonstrates a

significantly wider and more diversified distribution, while the BNC reflects a more idiomatically concentrated and semantically conservative use of *get*-based constructions.

Figure 1. The Venn Diagram for the Semantic Domains of *Get*-passives
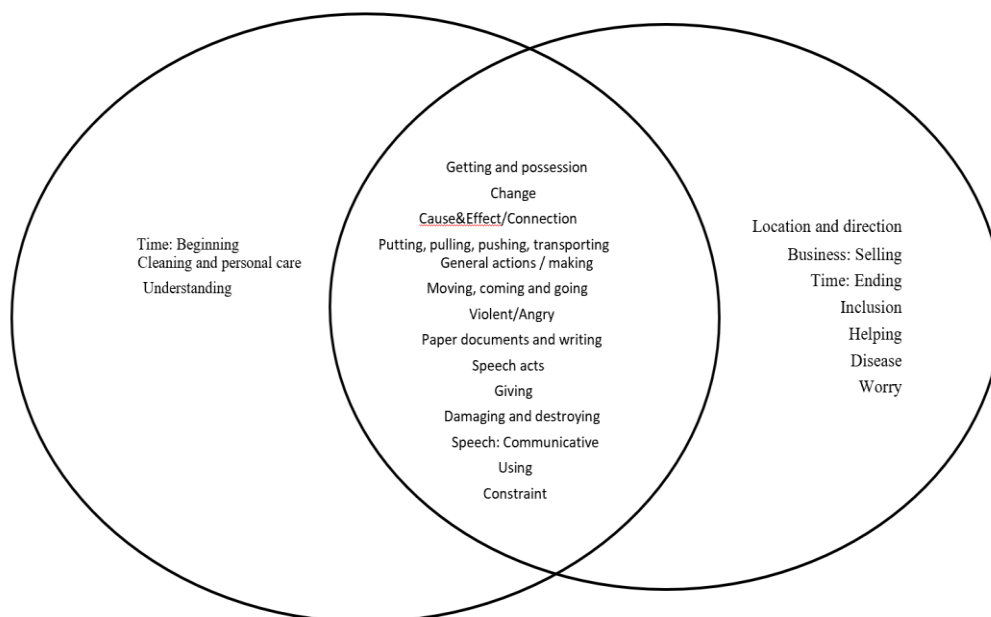
The Venn diagram illustrates the extent to which the semantic distribution of *get*-related constructions overlaps across the BNC Spoken and American spoken corpora while also highlighting the distinctive domains unique to each variety. The central shared area contains the broadest range of semantic fields, including "Getting and possession," "Change," "Cause & Effect/Connection," "General actions/making," "Moving, coming and going," and several others, indicating that both dialects rely on *get* for a wide core set of meanings related to physical action, causation, communication, and general activity. These shared domains suggest a stable semantic core for *get* across English varieties. However, each dialect also displays unique extensions: the BNC includes domains such as "Time: Beginning," "Cleaning and personal care," and "Understanding," which points to a more idiomatic and routine-oriented use of *get* in everyday British discourse. In contrast, the American corpus shows distinctive categories such as "Location and direction," "Business: Selling," "Time: Ending," "Inclusion," "Helping," "Disease," and "Worry," reflecting a broader semantic expansion into institutional, affective, medical, commercial, and action-oriented contexts. Overall, while both corpora share a substantial semantic foundation, the American data demonstrates a more diversified and functionally extended use of *get*, whereas the BNC shows a narrower but more idiomatically entrenched distribution.

Discussion and Conclusion

The present case study used corpus evidence to compare and contrast the contextual conditions in which the *get*-passive and related forms occur in both BNC2014 and American spoken corpora, to attempt to understand of how a grammar of English might be formulated and to take fuller account of attitudinal factors and of how speakers and writers express their choices from the grammar to make more interpersonal meanings. It raises questions concerning structures, choices and probabilities. The distributions, diversity, and semantic domains of *get*-passive constructions in 6 different categories in both BNC spoken and American spoken corpora have been analyzed.

Overall, while BNC corpus has 6647 instances of get-passives in total, American corpus has 5802 instances in total. There seems to be a slight difference between two corpora, confirming Collins' (1996) study on central get-passive usage in BROWN and LOB which revealed that the differences between AmE and BrE may be slight.

Across both corpora, Type (a) (X get V-en (by Z), where X is patient) emerges as the central and most productive pattern, as also implied in Carter and McCarthy's (1999) discussion of get + V-en as the core get-passive construction. In both varieties, Type (a) clearly dominates the system, with Types (c) (X get Y V-en) and (d) (X get Y V-inf) forming secondary but still robust patterns, and Types (b), (e), and (f) remaining comparatively marginal. This supports the idea that while various extended patterns exist, speakers primarily rely on the canonical get-passive to highlight the subject's affectedness and the resultant state.

Previous research has repeatedly emphasised the adversative bias of get-passives, noting that they frequently profile undesirable, unfortunate or problematic events (Hatcher, 1949; Carter & McCarthy, 1999; Collins, 1996; Francis et al., 1996; Biber et al., 1999). Our analysis of the most frequent verbs in Type (a) constructions partly confirms this tendency but also nuances it.

Many of the high-frequency collocations in both corpora (*get killed, get caught, get stuck, get hurt, get fired*) are clearly adversative and align with earlier descriptions such as *get arrested, get sued, get burgled,* or *get run over* (Francis et al., 1996; Biber et al., 1999). At the same time, a substantial proportion of the frequent verbs are neutral or beneficial (*get married, get paid, get engaged, get done*), and the distribution shows that adversativity is strong but not categorical. In the BNC data, 16 of the 30 most frequent Type (a) verbs are used adversatively, while the remaining 14 are neutral or beneficial; in the American corpus, 13 of 25 are adversative. These proportions suggest that although negative meanings remain prominent, they no longer fully define the construction.

This aligns with more recent work that treats get-passives as part of a probabilistic, lexico-grammatical system rather than as a fixed, inherently adversative structure. From a lexical grammar perspective (e.g. Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Rühlemann, 2007), the association between get-passives and negative events can be seen as a strong tendency that emerges from frequent verb–construction pairings, rather than a hard semantic constraint. Our findings reinforce this view: get-passives routinely encode misfortune and problems, but they also productively profile

positive or at least non-negative changes of state, especially in the domain of life events (*get married, get engaged*) and task completion (*get it done, get it sorted*).

Importantly, the varietal comparison reveals subtle differences in how affectedness is framed. British English shows a preference for verbs tied to everyday interpersonal or domestic experiences (*get told, get changed, get fed*), whereas American English more often features verbs linked to event-driven or institutional contexts (*get hurt, get engaged, get fired, get tested*). This suggests that while both varieties use get-passives to foreground the experiencer, BrE leans toward interpersonal and routine life contexts, whereas AmE more frequently highlights formally recognisable events and institutional outcomes. These patterns offer a more fine-grained, usage-based view of adversativity and affectedness than earlier purely semantic characterisations.

Type (b) constructions, where X gets a reflexive pronoun V-en (e.g. *get myself sorted*), are rare overall but statistically more frequent in the BNC than in the American corpus. This supports earlier claims that the get-passive often positions the subject as somehow involved or responsible for the outcome (Lakoff, 1971; Collins, 1996), but here the lexico-grammatical marker of involvement is built into the reflexive pattern itself.

The British data show a rich, idiomatic range of reflexive get-passives, including *get yourself washed, get himself qualified, get ourselves organised, get themselves covered*. Semantically, these verbs cluster around self-management, preparation, bodily care, emotional readiness, and personal improvement, domains in which the subject has clear, if often indirect, agency. By contrast, the American data are much sparser and show minimal lexical overlap with the BNC, suggesting that this construction is less entrenched and less productive in American English.

These findings contribute to the ongoing debate on whether get-passives inherently ascribe responsibility or complicity to the subject. Rather than claiming that all get-passives encode subject responsibility, the data indicate that certain sub-patterns, particularly reflexive get-passives, are specialised for expressing this meaning. In other words, responsibility and self-involvement appear as construction-specific tendencies, not uniform properties of the entire get-passive domain.

In Type (c), the British data are dominated by highly conventionalised expressions such as *get it sorted*, *get me organised*, or *get him covered*, whereas the American data lean toward more institutionally oriented or formally procedural verbs such as *get it passed, get it straightened, get it finished, get it checked*. This mirrors the pattern observed for Type (a): British English favours problem-solving, organisational and interpersonal scenarios, while American English associates the construction more with administrative, procedural, and outcome-driven contexts.

Type (d) constructions (*get him to do, get them to come, get her to say*) also show cross-varietal differences. In the BNC, the most frequent verbs (*to do, to go, to work*) foreground everyday actions and practical tasks, whereas in the American corpus, unique verbs such as *meet,*

agree, skip, fit, eat, represent point toward social interaction, decision-making and cognitive or representational processes. In both varieties, these constructions encode indirect causation and benefactive meanings, aligning with Hatcher's (1949) and Lakoff's (1971) observations that get often profiles the subject's involvement in bringing about an event, but our data show that the lexical realisation of this involvement is dialect-specific. Taken together, Types (c) and (d) demonstrate that get-constructions are not only about suffering or undergoing events; they also serve as a key resource for expressing interpersonal influence, persuasion, and task management, with each variety exploiting distinct semantic niches.

The most striking cross-varietal difference emerges in Type (e), where X gets Y in an adjectival past participle and X functions as an (often loosely) agentive subject. This pattern is virtually absent in the BNC (only three tokens: *got minced, got involved, got filled*), but reasonably productive in the American corpus (63 tokens), spanning domains such as social status (*get engaged, get divorced*), task completion (*get done, get set*), emotional or cognitive states (*get satisfied, get abstracted*), and externally caused events (*get smacked, get bumped*).

This asymmetry strongly suggests that adjectival get-constructions are grammaticalised and routinised in American English to a much greater extent than in British English. It also resonates with the broader difference in the use of *gotten* in AmE to express resultant states and completive meanings, a pattern that lacks a direct BrE counterpart. Our findings therefore provide corpus-based evidence for a diachronic and dialectal extension of the get-construction into adjectival participial domains in American English, while BrE remains more conservative in this respect.

By contrast, Type (f) (X gets an adjectival past participle where X is patient) is extremely rare in both corpora and appears largely formulaic (*got to get it done*). The very low frequency and narrow lexical range of this type suggest that it does not yet constitute a productive construction in either variety, but rather survives as a small set of fixed or semi-fixed expressions emphasising urgency and necessity.

Pedagogical implications

The findings have several broader implications for the description and teaching of English grammar. First, they support a usage-based, lexico-grammatical view of get-passives: rather than being defined by a single semantic property (e.g. adversativity), the get-passive family is best understood as a network of related constructions, each with its own typical lexical collocates, preferred semantic domains, and dialect-specific profiles.

Second, the results challenge simplified pedagogical descriptions that either marginalise get-passives as "informal alternatives" to *be*-passives or portray them as uniformly negative. In reality, get-passives are frequent in spoken English, are sensitive to subtle differences in perspective, involvement and stance, and play an important role in encoding interpersonal and experiential meanings. Raising learners' awareness of patterns such as *get it sorted, get yourself*

organised, get them to come, or *get engaged* can therefore enrich their repertoire of authentic spoken English, particularly in contexts requiring the expression of affectedness, informal agency, and personal stance.

Finally, the clear dialectal contrasts (e.g. BrE *get it sorted* vs. AmE *get it checked/finished/passed*) underscore the need to treat British and American English as distinct lexico-grammatical systems, rather than as interchangeable varieties differing only in vocabulary or spelling. For both researchers and teachers, this suggests that variety-specific examples and corpora are essential when describing and teaching the get-construction.

Limitations and directions for future research

This study is subject to several limitations. First, the analysis is restricted to spoken data from two corpora of unequal size; additional work on written registers, other English varieties, and diachronic data would help clarify how stable the observed patterns are across time and genres. Second, the categorisation into Types (a–f) necessarily simplifies a continuum of usage patterns; future research could adopt multivariate or construction-network approaches to model overlaps and gradience more fully. Third, adversativity was assessed at the level of verb types and contexts rather than through detailed discourse-pragmatic coding of speaker stance, which would further refine our understanding of evaluative meanings.

Future studies might extend this work by (i) exploring diachronic change in get-passive usage, particularly in American English adjectival constructions; (ii) comparing native speakers with learner corpora to see how EFL users acquire or avoid these patterns; and (iii) examining prosodic and interactional features of get-passives in conversation, to capture how speakers use them to negotiate alignment, responsibility, and empathy in real time.

In sum, the present study confirms that get-passives remain a highly productive and functionally rich resource in contemporary English, especially in spoken discourse. It shows that while adversative meanings are still prominent, the constructional landscape is more diverse than traditional accounts suggest, and that British and American English exploit different parts of this landscape in systematic, lexically grounded ways.

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CHAPTER 3

INTEGRATING AI-POWERED EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGIES FOR ENHANCED VOCABULARY ACQUISITION IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

1. Levent UZUN[1]

Introduction

Significance of the Topic

Effective vocabulary acquisition is universally recognized as the cornerstone of communicative competence in English as a Second Language (ESL). Without a robust lexicon, learners struggle to comprehend texts, express nuanced ideas, and engage fully in authentic communication (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2008). However, traditional vocabulary instruction—often reliant on rote memorization, word lists, and simple translation—frequently fails to account for the complexity of lexical knowledge, including form, meaning, and use (Coady & Huckin, 1997). This often results in a motivational deficit and low long-term retention rates among learners.

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The twenty-first century educational landscape, characterized by digital fluency and immediate access to information, presents both a challenge and an opportunity. Educational technologies (EdTech) offer a pedagogical bridge, moving instruction from passive input to active, personalized, and contextually rich learning experiences. The integration of technology is no longer an optional add-on but a necessity for meeting the diverse needs of modern ESL learners (Godwin-Jones, 2017). This chapter asserts the critical importance of leveraging modern digital tools to transform vocabulary learning from a tedious chore into a motivating and enjoyable process.

Rationale of the Study

The rapid emergence of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and related generative tools necessitates a current and comprehensive pedagogical framework for vocabulary instruction. While previous literature has extensively covered the use of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) tools such as digital flashcards and language exchange platforms (Hubbard, 2019), there is a distinct gap in detailed guidance regarding the integration of adaptive and generative AI specifically for vocabulary acquisition. Many educators lack the foundational knowledge required to differentiate between simple digital tools and powerful, personalized AI assistants that can adapt content, provide instantaneous feedback, and generate context-specific exercises in real-time.

Therefore, the rationale for this chapter is twofold: first, to establish a strong theoretical basis for why technology, especially AI, is a fundamentally superior medium for addressing the multifaceted nature of lexical knowledge; and second, to provide concrete, practical, and up-to-date pedagogical strategies and resource examples. This work seeks to move the discussion beyond if technology should be used, to how specific AI-powered tools can be

effectively integrated to address the core challenges of ESL vocabulary teaching: namely, personalization, retention, and motivation.

Contribution to the Field

This chapter makes three key contributions to the field of ESL pedagogy and EdTech research.

a) *A Contemporary Framework:* It develops a contemporary, post-AI framework for vocabulary instruction that aligns with the principles of adaptive learning and generative feedback, providing a clear roadmap for researchers and curriculum designers.

b) *Practical Tool Identification:* It offers a curated selection of practical, current educational technology tools and specific activities—with a strong emphasis on AI-driven resources (e.g., adaptive drilling platforms, AI-powered chatbots, generative exercise creators)—that can be immediately applied in the ESL classroom.

c) *Model Pedagogical Planning:* By providing sample lesson plans, this chapter demonstrates how to structure engaging and motivating vocabulary classes that seamlessly integrate technology, thereby transforming theoretical concepts into actionable classroom practice.

Ultimately, this chapter serves as a timely resource for researchers, teacher trainers, and classroom practitioners, guiding them toward the responsible and effective use of innovative technologies to secure stronger vocabulary outcomes for ESL learners.

Theoretical Foundations for Digital Vocabulary Instruction

The effective use of technology must be grounded in established principles of second language acquisition (SLA) and cognitive psychology. Vocabulary instruction, in particular, benefits significantly from three major theoretical pillars that are amplified by EdTech and AI.

The Multidimensional Nature of Lexical Knowledge

The complexity of acquiring a new word extends far beyond simply knowing its definition. Lexical knowledge is multidimensional, encompassing several interlocking components (Schmitt, 2000):

a) *Form:* Knowing the spoken (pronunciation) and written (spelling) forms.

b) *Meaning:* Understanding the word's primary sense, contextual meanings, and associated synonyms/antonyms.

c) *Use:* Knowing the grammatical patterns (collocations, prepositions), register, and frequency of the word.

Traditional methods often focus narrowly on meaning and form. Digital tools, particularly those incorporating multimodal input (audio, visual, text), are fundamentally better suited to addressing this holistic model of knowledge. AI tools, for example, can instantly generate usage examples or identify collocations specific to a learner's proficiency level.

Cognitive Principles: Spaced Repetition and Retrieval Practice

Cognitive science provides clear evidence that retention is maximized not through massed practice (cramming) but through

spaced repetition and frequent, successful retrieval practice and tests (Roediger & Karpicke, 2006a; 2006b; Pimsleur, 1967).

- *Spaced Repetition Systems (SRS):* This principle, foundational to many digital flashcard applications, schedules review intervals based on a learner's past performance, ensuring that difficult items are reviewed more frequently than mastered ones.

- *Retrieval Practice:* The act of recalling information from memory strengthens the memory trace more effectively than simply reviewing it. Technology enables diverse, low-stakes quizzing formats (matching, gap-fills, typing) that maximize retrieval opportunities.

AI-powered platforms elevate these principles by dynamically adjusting the timing and type of practice automatically based on individual learner data, optimizing the learning curve for every word.

Constructivism and Personalized Learning

Modern pedagogy emphasizes constructivism, where learners actively construct knowledge rather than passively receiving it. This aligns perfectly with the capability of EdTech to facilitate personalized, learner-centered experiences (Vygotsky, 1978).

- *Contextualization:* Technology allows words to be encountered and practiced within authentic, interest-driven content (e.g., news articles, video transcripts, literature).

- *Autonomy and Agency:* Learners gain control over their pace, content selection, and learning pathway,

fostering greater motivation and responsibility for their own acquisition process.

AI acts as the ultimate personalization engine, generating reading material or chat scenarios that are highly relevant to the learner's declared interests (e.g., generating a dialogue about 'finance' using target vocabulary for a business-focused student), thereby deepening engagement and retention.

Specific Educational Technology Tools, Activities, and Exercises

The integration of technology for vocabulary instruction can be categorized into three stages, reflecting the complexity and pedagogical power of the tools used.

Foundational Digital Tools (Digitalization of Traditional Practice)

These tools replace analog methods with digital efficiency, primarily supporting the Form and Meaning components of lexical knowledge.

Table 1. Educational Technology Tools, Activities, and Exercises

Tool Category	Description	Specific Examples	ESL Vocabulary Activity Examples
Digital Flashcards & Quizzing	Platforms utilizing Spaced Repetition Systems (SRS).	*Quizlet, Anki, Memrise, Flashcardlet*	Creating word lists from class reading; reviewing words based on personalized performance data.

Online Dictionaries & Corpora	Access to definition, pronunciation, usage examples, and frequency data.	*Cambridge Dictionary, Lexico, COCA* (Corpus of Contemporary American English)	Using corpora to check the authentic frequency and collocations of target words.
Interactive Game-Based Tools	Platforms designed to inject competition and fun into simple drills.	*Kahoot!, Quizizz, Blooket*	Creating quizzes (multiple choice, matching) for quick review and motivational checking.

Adaptive EdTech (Data-Driven Personalization)

These platforms utilize algorithms to adjust the difficulty and content delivery based on real-time learner performance data, directly supporting the principles of spaced repetition and retrieval practice.

- *Adaptive Drilling Platforms:* These systems continuously assess a learner's knowledge state and serve up only the words they are on the verge of forgetting, maximizing time efficiency and retention. Specific examples include the "Learn" and "Test" modes on Quizlet, and the adaptive review cycles found in the premium features of Memrise and Anki.

- *Gamified Language Learning Apps:* While generally focused on grammar and speaking, the vocabulary

components within these apps often incorporate adaptive algorithms to ensure review follows optimal forgetting curves. Examples include Duolingo and Babbel.

AI-Powered Generative Tools (Contextualization and Use)

Generative AI represents the most significant shift, enabling true personalization and immediate contextualization, addressing the complex Use component of lexical knowledge. These tools act as personalized tutors and content creators.

a) AI Chatbots and Dialogue Practice

- *Activity:* Learners engage in open-ended, text-based, or voice-based conversations with an AI model.

- *Specific Examples:* ChatGPT, Gemini (formerly Bard), Microsoft Copilot. These large language models (LLMs) can be prompted to maintain a specific role-play scenario (e.g., an interview, a debate) and intentionally use target vocabulary, providing the learner with immediate, contextualized input and the chance for authentic output (Bax, 2003). It can correct usage, suggest better phrasings, and even maintain a specific role-play scenario.

b) Generative Content Creation

- *Activity:* Teachers or learners input a word list and a theme (e.g., "Level B2," "ecology," "tone: formal").

- *Specific Examples:* Teacher-focused AI platforms (e.g., platforms leveraging GPT-4 or similar models) and the general-purpose chatbots listed above. The AI instantly generates custom exercises, including:

- o *Context-Specific Cloze Tests:* Gap-fill exercises embedded in a relevant paragraph.

- o *Collocation Challenges:* Generating sentences where the learner must select the correct accompanying word (e.g., strong/powerful tea).

- o *Themed Reading Passages:* Generating a short story or news article that intentionally uses the target vocabulary multiple times in varying contexts.

c) Prompt Engineering for Pedagogical Outcomes (Explanatory and Practical)

The power of generative AI is directly proportional to the quality of the prompt used. Effective prompt engineering is a vital skill for both teachers and advanced learners (Chen et al., 2024). Prompts should be detailed, defining the AI's persona, the task constraints, and the target language focus.

Table 2. Example Educational Technology Tools, Activities, and Exercises

Prompt Component	Example Phrase for Vocabulary Practice	Pedagogical Goal
Persona & Role	"Act as a B2-level conversation partner."	Ensures output is linguistically appropriate.
Target Language	"Use the following 5 phrasal verbs: *come up with, put off, set up, figure out, take over*."	Focuses the AI's output on specific, planned vocabulary.
Task & Context	"Create a dialogue about launching a new startup	Forces production in a relevant, authentic

	business, ensuring you use all five target words."	scenario (Use component).
Output Constraints	"Keep your responses to three sentences maximum and correct my grammar and vocabulary errors instantly."	Manages the pace of the conversation and provides immediate corrective feedback.

d) Instantaneous Feedback and Error Analysis

AI can perform rapid error analysis on learner-generated sentences, providing immediate feedback that far exceeds what a teacher can offer in a large classroom setting. This promotes iterative learning and rapid self-correction, which is vital for consolidating the "Use" dimension of vocabulary. Specific tools include integrated grammar and style checking features found in *Grammarly* and the advanced writing feedback provided by AI writing assistants and certain Learning Management Systems (LMS).

Sample Lesson Plans: Integrating Technology for Motivating Vocabulary Classes

Lesson Plan 1 & 2

Integrating EdTech and AI is most effective when tools are selected deliberately to achieve specific linguistic outcomes and enhance learner motivation. Lesson plan 1 and 2 demonstrate how to structure classes around the principles of personalized, enjoyable, and retention-focused vocabulary instruction.

Lesson Plan 3

This high-engagement activity uses generative AI to create interconnected, contextual puzzles, driving collaborative vocabulary retrieval under time pressure. The focus is on consolidating a set of

recently taught, often confused vocabulary items (e.g., synonyms with subtle differences like affect/effect, continuous/continual, complement/compliment).

Table 3. Lesson Plan 1: Mastering Phrasal Verbs (A2/B1 Level)

Stage	Time	Objective	Activity	Tool Focus	Motivation/ Enjoyment
1. Presentation & Discovery	15 min	Introduce 6 target phrasal verbs (e.g., *look up, run into, catch up*).	Teacher displays a short, authentic video clip (e.g., an excerpt from a vlog) where the phrasal verbs appear. Learners use an Online Dictionary/Corpus on their devices to investigate the word's meaning and check 2-3 common collocations.	Foundational EdTech, Multimodal Input	Authentic content increases relevance; self-directed discovery increases autonomy.
2. Guided Practice	15 min	Practice Form and Meaning through low-stakes drilling.	Learners access a pre-made deck of the 6 words on a Digital Flashcard Platform (SRS enabled). They practice meaning retrieval and spelling checks. The SRS feature automatically schedules the next review for homework.	Adaptive EdTech (SRS)	Gamified interface (points, badges) and immediate feedback loop.

3. Generative Application (The Challenge)	4. Wrap-up & Homework
20 min	5 min
Practice *Use* by generating contextualized output.	Consolidate knowledge and ensure spaced review.
In pairs, learners use a Generative AI Tool (Chatbot) with a specific prompt to role-play a scenario (e.g., "You are planning a weekend trip and run into an old friend"). They must use all 6 target phrasal verbs. The AI acts as the friend, responding naturally and correcting errors in usage/collocations instantly.	Learners review the AI chat transcript and share the most creative use of a target word with the class. Homework is the adaptive review scheduled by the SRS platform.
Generative AI	Adaptive EdTech
High engagement through creative role-play and instantaneous, personalized linguistic support.	Low-pressure, high-retention practice scheduled outside class time.

Table 4. Lesson Plan 2: Acquiring Formal Register Vocabulary (B2/C1 Level)

Stage	1. Pre-reading & Context	2. Collocation and Usage Analysis
Time	10 min	15 min
Objective	Establish context and introduce 5 target formal words (e.g., *underscore, pervasive, dichotomy, engender, judicious*).	Master *Use* and grammatical patterns.
Activity	Teacher uses a Generative AI Content Tool to create a short, themed reading passage (e.g., on ethical consumption) that features the 5 words. Learners highlight words and predict meanings from context.	Learners use an Online Corpus to search for the five words, specifically analysing the nouns and verbs that frequently accompany them (collocations). The class shares and debates which collocations sound most formal or academic.
Tool Focus	Generative AI Content	Foundational EdTech, Deep Lexical Knowledge
Motivation/Enjoyment	Highly relevant, custom-generated text targeted at specific needs.	Students act as linguistic researchers, fostering critical thinking.

3. AI-Driven Practice (The Debate)	4. Feedback and Refinement
25 min	5 min
Practice production in a high-stakes, realistic scenario.	Receive corrective feedback on output.
Learners form small groups and use a Generative AI Chatbot with a carefully designed prompt to participate in a simulated debate (e.g., "Should governments impose a sugar tax?"). The AI model acts as the mediator and ensures all groups receive a prompt that requires the use of the 5 target words.	The AI provides an automated error report on the group's dialogue, highlighting any incorrect usage, tense, or collocation of the target vocabulary. Groups quickly review and discuss the AI's feedback for self-correction.
Generative AI, Output Practice	Generative AI, Error Analysis
Competitive, realistic scenario promotes meaningful use; AI ensures necessary target language production.	Immediate, specific, and non-judgmental feedback promotes rapid improvement.

Table 5. Lesson Plan 3: Digital Vocabulary Escape Room (B1/B2 Level)

Stage	Time	Objective	Activity	Tool Focus	Motivation/ Enjoyment
1. Setup and Pre-task	5 min	Establish rules and review target words for context.	Teacher divides the class into teams. Teams quickly review a list of 10 target words and their subtle contextual differences on a collaborative whiteboard tool (e.g., Jamboard).	Foundational EdTech, Collaboration	Clear competitive element (race against the clock).
2. Clue Generation & Challenge	30 min	Deep retrieval practice by solving complex, contextual clues.	Teams access the digital Escape Room platform (e.g., a simple Google Form or a dedicated escape app). The clues themselves are **AI-**generated puzzles (e.g., "The synonym for the verb form of *affect* is the first word of the solution phrase. The answer to the riddle 'I have cities, but no houses' is the second word..."). The team must correctly use or define the word to unlock the next stage.	Generative AI Content (Teacher-generated clues)	Gamified challenge; collaborative problem-solving; instant gratification upon solving each clue.

3. Post-Game Analysis	4. Follow-up
10 min	5 min
Consolidate learning and discuss linguistic difficulties.	Promote future application.
The winning team shares their solution path. The class analyzes the AI-generated clues, specifically discussing which vocabulary item was the hardest to retrieve and why (e.g., confusion between *continuous* and *continual*).	Students use the AI chatbot to generate two sentences using one of the confused word pairs correctly, receiving immediate feedback on usage.
Generative AI Clue Review	Generative AI, Output Practice
Focus shifts from competition to linguistic analysis and error correction.	Immediate, tailored practice to fix specific identified errors.

Practical Implementation and Ethical Considerations

The effective integration of AI in vocabulary instruction requires practical adjustments in both teacher training and classroom policy. Ignoring these implementation challenges can undermine the pedagogical benefits of the technology.

Teacher Preparedness and Technological Literacy

For AI integration to succeed, the teacher's role must evolve from content provider to pedagogical orchestrator. This shift necessitates specific training in:

1. *Critical Evaluation:* Teachers must be able to critically assess the quality and accuracy of AI-generated content (e.g., checking if an AI-generated cloze test truly targets the desired vocabulary in the correct context).

2. *Prompt Engineering:* As detailed in Section 3.3 c, the ability to write precise, pedagogically sound prompts is crucial for tailoring AI output to learning objectives.

3. *Data Interpretation:* Understanding the analytics and data dashboards provided by Adaptive EdTech platforms to identify learning gaps and inform future lesson planning.

Ethical and Privacy Considerations

The use of data-driven and generative technologies introduces ethical obligations that must be addressed for responsible implementation (Holmes et al., 2022).

a) *Data Privacy:* Teachers and institutions must prioritize student data privacy, ensuring that Adaptive EdTech platforms comply with relevant regulations.

Vocabulary data, while benign, forms part of a student's personal learning record.

b) *Bias and Fairness:* Generative AI models can reflect linguistic biases present in their training data. Educators must curate and review AI-generated materials to ensure they are fair, culturally appropriate, and free of unintended bias.

c) *Over-reliance and Agency:* A key risk is that students may become overly reliant on AI for correction and production, diminishing their development of critical thinking and independent error monitoring. Teachers must structure activities that require student agency (e.g., editing AI-generated text or justifying AI-suggested corrections).

Conclusion and Future Directions

This chapter has established the necessity and efficacy of integrating educational technologies, particularly AI, into the teaching of ESL vocabulary. By addressing the multidimensional nature of lexical knowledge, EdTech provides powerful tools to enhance the core cognitive processes of spaced repetition and retrieval practice. The shift from traditional digital tools to adaptive and generative AI is key, as these technologies enable genuine, dynamic personalization and contextualization, moving the learning experience beyond simple drilling toward motivated, creative, and authentic language use.

The lesson plans provided serve as models for educators to seamlessly weave foundational digital tools, adaptive platforms, and generative AI into cohesive and enjoyable classroom structures. By empowering learners with tools that offer instantaneous feedback and customized practice, educators are transforming the often-daunting task of vocabulary acquisition into an engaging and highly

effective pursuit. Future research should focus on refining the ethical guidelines and optimal pedagogical prompts required to maximize the transformative potential of generative AI (Wang et al., 2025), ensuring it remains a valuable assistant to the teacher and an indispensable tool for the autonomous ESL learner.

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