Using Corpora in English Language Teaching: A Teacher's Experience

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Abstract

This paper recounts the process of using corpus data from on-line corpora (COCA and Google n-gram viewer) to answer questions asked by actual students of English in Japan. My own successes and challenges in these experiences can provide insights for other English language teachers to use corpora and data driven learning with their students.

Ivor Timmis concluded his book *Corpus Linguistics for ELT* with an observation that "some ELT practitioners are resistant to corpus use in a pedagogical context" (2006, p. 202). This, he suggested, is because "It is a big step from being made aware of what corpora can do to 'handson' use of corpora" (p. 202). I sympathize with the resistance language teachers (especially those who are teaching their native language) may feel towards the use of corpora for ELT. For a native English speaker, it is easy to convince myself that I can teach my native language without the use of a database of naturally occurring English. Furthermore, as a teacher following the communicative approach, I am wary of spending time using a machine to point out minute and possibly useless differences in the target language.

However, a student recently asked me to explain the difference between *electric* and *electrical*. Before learning how to answer this question meaningfully with corpus data, I might have given this student the same answer he got from his bilingual dictionary. His bilingual dictionary defined both words with the same definition, and I too might have said they are almost the same. But, knowing I could compare collocations of these words in *The Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA, Davies, 2008) to investigate if the difference between these two words was actually meaningless or not, I told the student I would look it up. On my way to the computer, I formed my own hypothesis of what the difference might be from my own lexicon. For example, I asked myself "What is the meaningful difference between *electric lightbulb* and *electrical appliance*?." I guessed *electrical* goes with abstract category words while *electric* goes with physical objects. By comparing the collocations of these words 1 space to the right in the COCA corpus, I found I was correct, and I had data or evidence to support my conclusion (Figure 1).

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Co	rpus of Contempo	rary A	mer	ican Eng	glish (D E	î 🗗 ? 🕕			Ω	= ①	
	SEARCH FREQUENCY					CONTEXT			OVERVIEW			
WORD 1	(W1): ELECTRIC (2.19)					WORD 2 (W2): ELECTRICAL (0.46)						
	WORD	W1	W2	W1/W2	SCORE		WORD	W2	W1	W2/W1	SCORE	
- 1	MIXER	937	0	1,874.0	854.5	- 1	DEGREE	77	0	154.0	337.7	
2	GUITAR	384	0	768.0	350.2	2	PROFESSOR	94	1	94.0	206.1	
3	BOWL	271	0	542.0	247.2	3	BROTHERHOOD	34	0	68.0	149.1	
4	MEDIUM	334	1	334.0	152.3	4	CONNECTORS	29	0	58.0	127.2	
5	GENERAL	1633	6	272.2	124.1	5	ACTIVITY	238	5	47.6	104.4	
6	GUITARS	98	0	196.0	89.4	6	ENGINEERING	591	13	45.5	99.7	
7	CREAMY	93	0	186.0	84.8	7	CONDUIT	20	0	40.0	87.7	
8	HYBRID	174	1	174.0	79.3	8	CAD	18	0	36.0	78.9	
9	RAZOR	82	0	164.0	74.8	9	CONDUCTION	18	0	36.0	78.9	
10	STOVE	80	0	160.0	73.0	10	BACHELOR	17	0	34.0	74.6	
11	DRILL	76	0	152.0	69.3	11	CONDUCTIVITY	66	2	33.0	72.4	
12	BLANKET	74	0	148.0	67.5	12	IMPEDANCE	16	0	32.0	70.2	
13	BASS	73	0	146.0	66.6	13	RESISTIVITY	16	0	32.0	70.2	
14	CREAM	58	0	116.0	52.9	14	CONNECTIONS	61	2	30.5	66.9	
15	DRESS	56	0	112.0	51.1	15	CONTRACTING	15	0	30.0	65.8	
16	TYPEWRITER	55	0	110.0	50.2	16	GROUNDING	15	0	30.0	65.8	
17	CORPORATION	49	0	98.0	44.7	17	MALFUNCTION	15	0	30.0	65.8	
18	HYBRIDS	49	0	98.0	44.7	18	PHYSICS	15	0	30.0	65.8	
19	токуо	48	0	96.0	43.8	19	STANFORD	15	0	30.0	65.8	
20	STAND	47	0	94.0	42.9	20	TENS	28	1	28.0	61.4	
21	TOOTHBRUSH	45	0	90.0	41.0	21	WRAPPED	14	0	28.0	61.4	
22	WELCH	45	0	90.0	41.0	22	SCIENCE	53	2	26.5	58.1	
23	PHILADELPHIA	43	0	86.0	39.2	23	ABNORMAL	13	0	26.0	57.0	
24	NBC	41	0	82.0	37.4	24	AUDITORY	13	0	26.0	57.0	
25	BUTTER	40	0	80.0	36.5	25	CODES	13	0	26.0	57.0	

Figure 1. Top 25 collocations for electric (left) and electrical (right) 1 space to the right

For the purposes of teaching this student to learn in an active way, instead of explaining my rational to him, I printed the list of the top 25 collocations for each term. I gave it to the student and asked him to guess what the difference might be. Although he did not have the extensive English vocabulary that I do, he was able to form the same hypothesis I came to.

After successfully using corpora in one actual teaching situation, I became much more inclined to use it for other students' questions. Another student asked what the difference is between what do you think about and what do you think of. Once again, I formed my own hypothesis first: what do you think of sounded older to me; what do you think about more contemporary. I was able to confirm my hypothesis by putting both into Google N-Gram Viewer (Figure 2).

Indeed, what do you think of has been declining since the year 1900, while what do you think about has been ascending in use since the year 1900, at least in books. Further, comparing what collocates with each phrase 2 spaces to the right in COCA (Figure 3), I could also see what do you think of collocates with more specific words—like first names, e.g., "What do you think of John?", whereas what do you think about collocates with bigger and more abstract ideas—like "What do you think about abortion" (Davis, 2008).

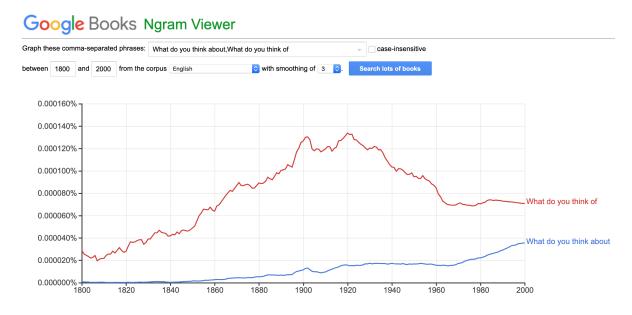


Figure 2. Google N-Gram Viewer for What do you think of (red) and What do you think about (blue)

SEARCH FRE					EQUENCY CONTEXT				OVERVIEW				
EE CONTEXT: CLICK ON NUMBERS (WORD 1 OR 2)											[HEI		
	D BY RATIO: CHANGE TO												
ORD							WORD 2 (W2): WHAT DO YOU THINK OF (1.14)						
	WORD	W1	W2	W1/W2	SCORE		WORD	W2	W1	W2/W1	SCORE		
1	PUTTING	7	0	14.0	15.9	1	OF	2169	0	4,338.0	3,816.		
2	ABORTION	4	0	8.0	9.1	2	COMMENTS	27	0	54.0	47.5		
3	USING	3	0	6.0	6.8	3	OUR	21	2	10.5	9.2		
1	ROE	3	0	6.0	6.8	4	RANDY	5	0	10.0	8.8		
5	GOING	5	1	5.0	5.7	5	JOHN	5	0	10.0	8.8		
6	,	6	2	3.0	3.4	6	мом	4	0	8.0	7.0		
7	BEING	3	1	3.0	3.4	7	YOUNG	4	0	8.0	7.0		
В		3	1	3.0	3.4	8	SEN	3	0	6.0	5.3		
9	?	29	11	2.6	3.0	9	SADDAM	3	0	6.0	5.3		
0	WHEN	23	11	2.1	2.4	10	TED	3	0	6.0	5.3		
1	ALL	55	27	2.0	2.3	11	AS	3	0	6.0	5.3		
2	HAVING	6	3	2.0	2.3	12	EARTH	3	0	6.0	5.3		
3	TAKING	4	2	2.0	2.3	13	JACK	3	0	6.0	5.3		
4		5	3	1.7	1.9	14	MY	52	10	5.2	4.6		
5	PEOPLE	5	3	1.7	1.9	15	HOWARD	5	1	5.0	4.4		
6	WHERE	3	2	1.5	1.7	16	JOE	5	1	5.0	4.4		
7	TRUMP	3	2	1.5	1.7	17	MR	13	3	4.3	3.8		
18	П	84	65	1.3	1.5	18	THEM	21	5	4.2	3.7		

Figure 3. Top collocations for What do you think about (left) and What do you think of (right) 2 space to the right

Once again, I was able to print all of this out and discuss it with the student instead of merely telling her what I think and to take my word for it.

Finally, after making a habit of checking my own intuitions against real world data from corpora, I caught myself in a lie. A student asked me which is correct: difficult to me or difficult for me. I unequivocally told the student "difficult for me is correct and difficult to me is incorrect." However, in thinking about my advice, I told the student I would research the question and get back to her. Although the student had only asked me about those two language chunks, I had subconsciously assumed she wanted to say "English is difficult for me." This is why I answered "(English is) difficult for me" is absolutely correct and "(English is) difficult to me" is incorrect, but when I searched difficult to me in the list function of COCA and quickly scanned the concordance lines, I realized the chunk difficult to me, though less common, is equally acceptable. For example, English seems difficult to me is just as correct as English is difficult for me.

Furthermore, the language environment and the underlying meaning of any adjective (not just difficult) + to me versus an adjective + for me intrigued me. I wanted to be able to show the student the meaning difference between the two constructions. By reading a handful of concordance lines containing each language chunk, the pattern became apparent. In sentences containing the language chunk difficult for me, the focus of the sentence is me, with me being the actor undergoing or experiencing the action. For example,

"My camera guy passed out. It was certainly very difficult for me."

"It's hard for me to remember right now."

"It's tough for me to stay in one place too long" (Davis, 2008).

By contrast, in sentences containing the language chunk difficult to me, the focus of the sentence is on the subject or agent, and me serves as an observer whose opinion in being expressed. For example,

"Her job sounded difficult to me.

"I think the two year marker was much more difficult to me.

"The masters seems more difficult to me than beating seven people in a grand slam" (Davis, 2008).

This nuanced difference can be seen in this example. If I was looking at a yellowish-green picture, I might say "It's yellow to me." Another person might say, "It's green to me." But, if a friend and I were looking together at a picture that was always changing colors, I might say "It's yellow for me, but now it's black for you." It is worth noting how this investigation with corpora opened my mind to both possibilities.

However, thinking back to why I was so fixated on how *difficult* must be followed by *for me*, I wondered if some adjectives tend to be followed more frequently by *for me* while others tend to be followed more frequently by *to me*. This is the kind of search which might only be possible with corpora, and it is as quick and easy as any other key word search. By simply conducting two different list searches, one for any adjective preceding "to me" [_j* to me] and one for any adjective preceding "for me" [_j* for me] in COCA, I compiled two separate lists of the top ten adjectives which precede each language chunk (Figure 4).

10 most common adjectives with	10 most common adjectives with					
"TO ME"	"FOR ME"					
1. Important to me	1. Hard for me					
2. Clear to me	2. Difficult for me					
3. Good to me	3. Good for me					
4. Interesting to me	4. Easy for me					
5. Amazing to me	5. Important for me					
6. Nice to me	6. Easier for me					
7. New to me	7. Impossible for me					
8. Obvious to me	8. Sorry for me					
9. Familiar to me	9. Possible for me					
10. Strange to me	10. Better for me					

Figure 4. Top ten adjectives preceding to me (left) and for me (right)

By noticing the kinds of words which frequently collocate with each language chunk, I realized adjectives with *to me* tend to be evaluative adjectives which express a personal opinion, and adjectives with *for me* tend to be factually descriptive adjectives which express a self-judgment. Furthermore, with this list, students would be able to learn these common adjectives with the prepositional phrase *to me* or *for me* as a meaningful chunk of language instead of learning the adjectives separately from how they are commonly used, and then having to figure out which language chunk they might fit with. Both the adjective and the language chunk might thus become more meaningful.

As these examples show, corpus analysis has helped me to answer very specific questions from my students in a more concrete and effective way, and it has once corrected my intuition. I acknowledge that I have only used a few corpora functions regularly to help me with English language teaching. Nonetheless, even using a limited set of corpora functions has really helped me to answer my students' questions and become a better teacher. I firmly believe that any hands-on use of corpora by teachers will lead to more and more hands-on use, and will move teachers away from the view that corpora is only for computer scientists and linguists.

References

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About the Author:

Adam Brod's research and academic interests include translation in language teaching, building metaphorical awareness in a second language and the use of corpus linguistics in English Language teaching. He is generally interested in trauma theory and the pedagogical, psychological and cognitive linguistic benefits of bilingualism.