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Trabajo Fin de Máster

GET TO KNOW ENGLISH DICTIONARIES!

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Resumen y palabras clave	3
1. Abstract and keywords	3
2. Introduction	4
3. Literature review	5
3.1. Defining lexicography	5
3.1.1. What is a dictionary?	7
3.1.2. Different parts of the dictionary	10
3.1.3. Printed dictionaries vs. Online dictionaries	13
3.2. What dictionaries can be used in TEFL in CSE?	16
3.2.1. Monolingual dictionaries	17
3.2.2. Bilingual dictionaries	20
3.2.3. Bilingualised dictionaries	23
3.3. Previous research on dictionary use in TEFL	24
3.3.1. Research on monolingual and bilingual dictionaries	24
3.3.2. Research on online dictionaries	31
3.4. Dictionary-using skills	34
3.5. Partial conclusion	40
4. Lesson Plan	41
4.1. Justification	41
4.2. Contextualisation	42
4.3. Key Competences	43
4.4. Objectives	44
4.5. Contents	46
4.6. Transversal and interdisciplinary elements	46
4.7. Timing and number of sessions involved	47
4.8. Materials	49
4.9. Lesson Plan: step-by-step account	49

4.9.1. Session 1	49
4.9.2. Session 2	53
4.9.3. Session 3	56
4.9.4. Session 4	62
4.9.5. Session 5	66
4.9.6 Session 6	70
4.9.7. Session 7	74
4.9.8. Session 8	76
4.9.9. Session 9	80
4.10. Evaluation	81
4.10.1. Marking criteria	81
4.10.2. Evaluation criteria and Assessable Learning Standards	84
5. References	86
5.1. Legal References	86
5.2. Primary sources	86
5.3 Secondary sources	87
5.4. Webography	91
6. Annexes	94

1. Resumen y palabras clave

El presente Trabajo de Fin de Máster tiene como principal temática el uso de los diccionarios en la asignatura de inglés en la etapa de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria en Andalucía (España), más específicamente en el tercer año. El uso del diccionario en esta asignatura, a pesar de ser una herramienta beneficiosa para el aprendizaje de idiomas extranjeros por su marcado carácter pedagógico, es muy limitado y su utilización no está para nada arraigada en los estudiantes, quienes desconocen el potencial de los diccionarios al no recibir la suficiente información sobre ellos en los diferentes ámbitos educativos. En consecuencia, este TFM tiene como finalidad mejorar la situación de los diccionarios en esta asignatura, fomentando su utilización en clase para la realización de diferentes actividades con el objetivo de mejorar las destrezas en la utilización de los diccionarios en el alumnado y, por ende, el rendimiento de los estudiantes en la asignatura de inglés.

Palabras clave: lexicografía, metalexicografía, diccionarios de aprendizaje del inglés, diccionarios bilingües, diccionarios en línea, destrezas en la utilización de los diccionarios, inglés como lengua extranjera.

1. Abstract and keywords

The present MA dissertation has as its main topic the use of dictionaries in the subject of English in Compulsory Secondary Education in Andalusia (Spain), more specifically in the third year of this stage. The use of dictionaries in this subject, although they are considered to be a beneficial tool for language learning due to their clear pedagogical nature, is quite limited and their use is not settled at all among students, who are not aware of the strengths of dictionaries since they do not receive enough input in the different educative levels. Consequently, the main purpose of this MA dissertation is to improve the current situation of dictionaries in this subject, fostering their utilisation in the lessons with the realisation of different activities, with the objective of refining the dictionary-using skills of the students and, therefore, improving the performance of the students in the English subject.

Keywords: lexicography, metalexicography, learner's dictionaries of English, bilingual dictionaries, online dictionaries, dictionary-using skills, English as a Foreign Language.

2. Introduction

The English language is, with no doubt, the language that counts with the most foreign speakers around the world nowadays, up to the point of being considered as the lingua franca of the 21st century. The irrefutable significance of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) explains that it is taught as a foreign language in most of the nations of the globe and, consequently, English has a great impact on the educational system of every country. According to Eurostat, the official institution that provides statistical information about all the countries in the European Union, 98.1 % of the pupils belonging to Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) from Spain studied EFL at this level in 2018 (Eurostat, 2020).

One of the most well-known tools to learn English, or any language, as a Foreign Language are dictionaries. A priori, dictionaries should be considered to be an essential tool for this purpose, due to their clear pedagogical orientation and their potential in this field. Nevertheless, previous research has pointed out that their use in this discipline is, generally speaking, quite limited and in the event that they are used, the use is restricted to bilingual dictionaries, although there are monolingual dictionaries that are adapted for foreign speakers: the so-called learner's dictionaries.

This MA dissertation, entitled *Get to know English dictionaries!*, aims to highlight the importance and benefits of the use of dictionaries in the field of EFL applied to the particular educational stage of CSE, in order to prove that they are still a valid instrument that need to be taken into consideration. The boom of technology nowadays may be considered as a great opportunity to boost and improve the situation of dictionaries in education, since there is a vast number of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries available online. The emergence of dictionaries in a digital format opens a wide range of choices and possibilities that may help to implement their regular use in a lesson plan addressed for students at this educational stage. The regular use of dictionaries in English lessons is to be accompanied by the training in the dictionary-using skills of the students, which may imply an improvement in the results of this subject overall and, therefore; a clear benefit for the discipline of EFL.

Get to know English dictionaries! is divided into two big chapters: literature review about this topic and the elaboration of a lesson plan. Concerning the first chapter, a comprehensive account of the literature will be provided in order to establish the theoretical basis of this MA dissertation. Firstly, it is important to define the discipline in which dictionaries are encompassed (lexicography) and, then; to know what a dictionary is. After these notions are introduced, there will be a section devoted to describing the different dictionary-types that can be used to learn EFL and their main characteristics; in order to explain and comment afterward on some relevant studies that have been carried out in this area. To finish, there is a section

that makes reference to the abilities that are required for the user to find information in dictionaries: the so-called dictionary-using skills. The second big chapter is a lesson plan created by taking into consideration the information provided in the first session, which will be addressed to students in the 3rd year of CSE in Andalusia. This lesson plan is centered on the use of different English dictionaries, which will be used for specific activities and purposes. The theme of the lesson plan is technology.

3. Literature review

3.1. Defining lexicography

Traditionally, lexicography has been considered as the art and craft of dictionary-making and as the practice of compiling dictionaries. Hence, it was considered to be exclusively a practical field that was just related to the elaboration of dictionaries and the scientific side was left aside. However, the publication of *Introduction à la Lexicographie: le dictionnaire* (Dubois, 1971) meant the creation of a theoretical discipline related to dictionaries: metalexicography. As a consequence, scholars divide this discipline into practical and theoretical lexicography. Practical lexicography would be related to the process of writing or compiling dictionaries and, therefore, it is strictly related to the creation of dictionaries; whereas theoretical lexicography, or metalexicography, is the science that is focused on the research about dictionaries (Hartmann and James, 2002: VI; Atkins, 2008: 31).

As metalexicography is focused on the scientific research of dictionaries, its scope of research is truly broad. Hence, many sub-disciplines can be included within the field of metalexicography (Jackson, 2013: 1-3):

- Historical lexicography. This sub-discipline deals with the history of dictionary-making since its beginnings up to the present.
- Research on dictionary typologies. In this field, experts carry out research on monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, general and specialised dictionaries, semasiological (alphabetical) and onomasiological (thematic) dictionaries, among other dictionary types.
- Dictionary criticism. It is related to the evaluation of the structure and contents of dictionaries in order to discern whether a given dictionary is appropriate for the audience that it is intended to or not. It is common that these evaluations are backed up by a sort of rubric created for the sake of reviewing that differs depending on the dictionary analysed. In this rubric, the reviewers propose a list of items in order to verify whether they are present in the dictionary or not (Nielsen, 2018: 78).

- Corpus-based lexicography. This discipline is key for the compilation process of the design of dictionaries both in the words and examples that are included in the dictionary.
- Pedagogical lexicography. It is a field of metalexicography related to the study and research of dictionaries created for language learners. Pedagogical dictionaries can be either school/didactic dictionaries (monolingual adapted dictionaries addressed for native speakers, usually students in Primary and Secondary Education) or learner's dictionaries (monolingual dictionaries that are adapted for foreign speakers). Corpus-based lexicography is vital for the edition of these two dictionary typologies, as these dictionaries are usually based on corpora.
- Research on dictionary users and use. This branch of metalexicography seeks to find out how different groups of people use dictionaries, if the opinion that the users have towards them is positive or rather negative and how the reference skills of the users are. This type of research is useful to become aware about the perception of dictionaries by the users and their skills. Therefore, the results from different studies can be taken into consideration for the creation of future dictionaries that suit better student's needs.
- E-Lexicography. This sub-discipline is focused on the study of digital dictionaries, a field that is in clear growth nowadays. It is considered to be the future of lexicography and some publishing houses are ceasing the publication of print dictionaries in favour of digital ones.

It is pertinent to highlight that, as it was stated before, lexicography was not considered to have a theoretical part until the 1970s, meaning that it is a relatively new field. Still in the present, there exists a dichotomy among the experts who consider lexicography as a branch of linguistics and those who believe that lexicography is an independent discipline from linguistics. In the 1980s, some renowned lexicographers like Hernández Hernández and Wierzbicka stated that lexicography was not a scientific field per se, since the former claims that lexicography is a discipline belonging to applied linguistics which deals with both theoretical and practical issues related to the elaboration of dictionaries (Hernández Hernández, 1989: 8) and the latter affirms that "lexicography has no theoretical foundations, and even the best lexicographers, when pressed, can never explain what they are doing, or why" (Wierzbicka, 1985: 5). More recently, Adamska-Sałaciak claimed that there are

many terminological traps when it comes to defining what a science is and, because of it, metalexigraphy cannot be considered as a pure science although it is the provider of theoretical reflection in this area. Consequently, according to this statement, lexicography should be considered as a branch of linguistics (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2019: 12-13).

On the other hand, Tarp considers that lexicography needs a theory of its own for the sake of proving that it is an autonomous scientific discipline and, thus, not a branch of linguistics (Tarp, 2008: 14). Bergenholtz and Gouws consider lexicography as an independent discipline from linguistics as the professionals who work on this field are considered to be lexicographers who do not necessarily have background in linguistics. According to them, lexicographers are “those people writing dictionaries but equally those people writing about dictionaries (Bergenholtz and Gouws, 2012: 76). On the so-called *dictionary of Lexicography*, Hartmann and Gregory claim that:

Lexicography is the professional activity and academic field concerned with DICTIONARIES and other REFERENCE WORKS. It has two basic divisions: lexicographic practice, or DICTIONARY MAKING, and lexicographic theory or DICTIONARY RESEARCH. The former is often associated with commercial book publishing, the latter with scholarly studies in such disciplines as LINGUISTICS (especially LEXICOLOGY), but strict boundaries are difficult to maintain and, in any case, are being bridged by such means as professional training, societies, conferences and publications (Hartmann and James, 2002: 85).

3.1.1. What is a dictionary?

Dictionaries are the central part of lexicography, as they have been produced in big numbers for more than 4,000 years. The term dictionary comes from the Latin word *dictionary/dictionary*, as *dictio* means ‘action of saying’ or, simply, ‘word’. The term dictionary was firstly used in English, according to the Oxford English Dictionary, in the year 1526 by W. Bonde in *A pilgrimage of perfection* and its first appearance in the title of a written composition was in 1538 (*The dictionary of Syr Thomas Eliot Knyght*, by Thomas Eliot). Nonetheless, it is important to mention that the concept of dictionary remained vague for a long time and, as a consequence, works that are not considered to be dictionaries contained, mistakenly, the word *dictionary* in their title. This was very common in works such as glosses, encyclopaedias, glossaries, lexicons, thesauri or vocabularies due to the mere fact that they included a list of words ordered in alphabetical order and, surprisingly, this confusion still remains in the 21st century (Tarp, 2018: 237).

Due to this misunderstanding, it is pertinent to clarify what a dictionary is. According to Jackson, an accurate definition of dictionary would be “the reference book about language and words that is usually arranged in alphabetical order” (Jackson, 2002: 22). However, it is important to go deeper as this definition may be a bit basic and, hence, it may lead to the confusion mentioned above. For this reason, the well-known lexicographer Béjoint established a series of parameters that, if put together, make up the criteria to determine what a dictionary is and it leads to his definition of dictionary:

A dictionary is a reference tool, in paper or electronic form, that provides information on the meaning and the use of a representative sample of the lexical items of a language or of a variety of a language, where each item is treated in a separate paragraph and all the paragraphs are ordered for easy consultation (Béjoint, 2010: 34).

These parameters taken into consideration that lead to this definition above are the following ones (Béjoint, 2010: 10-34):

- A dictionary is a series of separate paragraphs. Dictionaries are a collection of fragments which are not meant to be read in succession. These paragraphs are known as entries and, mostly, they are fully independent from each other. However, even though the entries are independent, there must be a consistency throughout the whole dictionary, meaning that the entries must not disagree between them and that their layout and presentation must be similar.
- A dictionary is meant to be consulted, not read. This parameter is related to the previous one, as there is not a lineal succession between the entries and, therefore, users consult specific entries.
- Dictionaries have a double structure. Although this idea will be discussed in-depth in section 3.1.2., dictionaries are made up of the macrostructure and the microstructure, two nomenclatures that were introduced by Rey-Debove (1971) that count with a great acceptance in the field of lexicography. Briefly speaking, the macrostructure is the arrangement of the list of entries in each dictionary, which is supposed to be read vertically; whereas the microstructure refers to the set of pieces of information in every entry which are meant to be read horizontally after the entry word.
- A dictionary is an ordered list of items. In order to make the consultation easier for the users, entries are normally distributed in

alphabetical order to ensure that everyone can consult them easily and quickly as the alphabet is a linguistic convention known by the users. If the information is categorised following complex criteria, although this may be better from a linguistic point of view, users would need deep training to use every single dictionary and, hence, dictionaries would become complicated and convoluted book to use. Therefore, this may provoke that the users did not consult dictionaries just because they would not know how to consult the entries or where to find them. Other different types of categorisations may be related to grouping words by meaning, themes, families, fields, domains, categories, networks and types. It is relevant to mention that, in digital dictionaries, this criterion may not apply, as the user can directly type the word that they need to consult on the search bar.

- A dictionary lists linguistic units. That is to say that every entry in a dictionary is made up of a headword or lemma, in other words, the element used for the macrostructural arrangement mentioned before. Lemmas are strictly linked to the Saussurean notion of form and meaning.
- A dictionary is a didactic book. This is a crucial point for this dissertation, because the nature of the dictionary is, above all, educational. Consequently, this book must be objective, scientific, impersonal and user-friendly. The objective of the lexicographer is to gather all the relevant information for the user and present it in the most illustrative way possible.
- A dictionary represents a lexical set. It is important to delimit the scope of the dictionary so the addressees know whether the term they need to consult is likely to appear in a given dictionary or not. This is the reason why there are general dictionaries in every language, but also bilingual, historical, terminological, idiomatic or even slang dictionaries, among others. It is important to mention that no dictionary can contain all the words of a language, as languages are in constant evolution and, for instance, in the case of English, the limits of the own language are not clear enough. Even the OED, which includes over 400,000 words, is far from including all of them: for example in English, there are at least 500,000 carbon compounds and 600,000 zoological species. Just by taking into consideration all the words exclusively in these two fields, there would be above 900,000 words. Besides, all the words from every

English variety around the globe should be included and, unfortunately, this task is impossible to achieve, no matter if the dictionary is print or digital. However, this does not mean that dictionaries are a limited piece of work, since general dictionaries include a representative wordlist of the items that are more likely to be searched by the users (in terms of occurrence in the language) and there are also terminological dictionaries available (that is, dictionaries in which the terms included make reference to a specialised field, namely chemistry, zoology or law).

- A dictionary is a special kind of text. The inner structure of every dictionary is, roughly speaking, similar between them. There is a front matter placed at the beginning of the book that usually includes an introduction (where it is summarised the purpose of the dictionary, what information is included and who the potential users are), a preface, a foreword, the list of the abbreviations appearing on the dictionary, and a dictionary-use guide. Besides, some dictionaries may include grammatical and cultural information about the language/s appearing on the dictionary. Regarding the style, in the main section (where all the terms are included), typography usually changes between the headword and the preceding information in order to highlight the terms and, thus, to make possible the vertical reading. Also, within the information related to the term, abbreviations usually appear in italics and etymology in square brackets.

By taking into consideration all these criteria, it can be stated that the dictionary is one of the most complex text-types, as a large number of information must be included and, still, the book may be not complete or useful for a given user. Bergenholtz and Bergenholtz claim that a dictionary, regardless of its typology, should help users to solve communication problems and that, for this reason, all sort of linguistic information should be included apart from the definition, such as usage, information, phonetics, pronunciations, etymology and equivalents in the target language (the latter, in the case of bilingual or plurilingual dictionaries). They also claim that, for the realisation of a dictionary, not only a lexicographer is needed, but also a linguist and an expert in lexicographical databases are needed to make dictionaries more reliable, objective and effective for the users (Bergenholtz and Bergenholtz, 2011: 187-189).

3.1.2. Different parts of the dictionary

As it was stated in the previous section, Rey-Debove introduced in the early 1970s the idea that claims that every dictionary, regardless of its typology, counts with a

macrostructure and a microstructure. This idea is the basis that has been taken into consideration for some disciplines of the metalexigraphy, such as dictionary criticism, since experts decide whether a dictionary is useful for the addressees that it is intended to by, mainly, reviewing these two parts. Hence, lexicographers must pay attention during the elaboration of the dictionaries to these two parts, as they are vital to determine the success or the failure of a dictionary according to the experts.

The macrostructure of a dictionary is the arrangement of the list of entries that can be read vertically and, hence, it is made up of all the words that are included in the dictionary. This part consists of three parts: the front matter, the body and the appendices. However, in some cases, appendices are not included and the front matter is too brief and, therefore, insufficient. The introduction or preface of the dictionary is included in the front matter. In this section the lexicographers explain the main characteristics of the edition of the dictionary concerned and other relevant information, such as who the addressees are. There is also the dictionary guide, where the users can get to know how to use the dictionary that they are reading; the list of the abbreviations used throughout the dictionary and, in some cases, grammatical information. In relation to the appendices, both lexical and non-lexical information can be included here, since this section is made up by various items; namely, lists of idioms and phrases; abbreviations; cultural information about the countries in which the language (languages, in case that the dictionary is bilingual) that is present in the dictionary is native (in the case of the dictionaries in which English is present, the cultural information is usually concerned about the UK and the USA) and other kinds of cultural information about currencies, maps or flags (Jackson, 2002: 25-26).

The main part of the macrostructure, according to this terminology, is the body. The body includes all the words that comprise the dictionaries, which are arranged, usually, in alphabetical order. This list of words, usually highlighted in bold, are known as headwords or lemmas and they can be read vertically in order to help the users to find the item that they need. The lemmas are usually made of one lexeme in its normal spelling although, occasionally, compound words (with or without hyphens), derivative words (such as irregular forms), abbreviations and proper nouns appear in the dictionary as lemmas. All the lemmas are accompanied by relevant information (prototypically, the definition and the example) and, if the information is put together, the entry is formed. The lemmas represent all the lexical items that the lexicographers decided to include in the dictionary and, therefore, it is fundamental that the vocabulary included is as updated as possible and, also, that vocabulary from many fields is included since the potential users that can acquire the dictionary are diverse (Jackson, 2002: 26).

Regarding the other part of this traditional categorization created by Rey-Debove (1971), the microstructure, this part refers to all the information appearing in the entry of a dictionary accompanying the headword or lemma. Typically, in the so-called general or monolingual dictionaries, the microstructure is made up by the pronunciation, inflections, word class, definition, senses, examples, usage, run-ons and etymology, as will be explained below (Jackson, 2002: 26-27):

- The pronunciation of the words can appear either on the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) or in an artificial alphabet created just for the sake of the edition of every dictionary by only using Latin characters. This last option, although more intuitive than the use of IPA; especially for those users who are not familiar with this alphabet, may not be good enough for some sounds and, besides, it would require to learn a specific alphabet for every dictionary; whereas the IPA is the common alphabet for phonetics and, hence, it is used all around the world. The pronunciation is usually presented in slashes or brackets.
- Inflections appear in the event of a headword having irregularities, especially if they occur in the spelling of the word. Mostly, they emerge in the cases where spelling adjustments are needed, such as when consonants need to be doubled, -e needs to be dropped or -y changes into -i.
- The word class of the lemma makes reference to whether the item is a noun, adjective, adverb, verb, and so on. They are usually indicated by the conventional abbreviations (*n* for noun, *adj.* for adjective or *adv.* for adverbs) and, in the case of verbs (*v.*), it is also indicated if they are transitive (*vt.*) or intransitive (*vi.*).
- The definition makes reference to the explanation of the meaning of a word. In the case of bilingual dictionaries, they are not usually included as a translation is provided with the equivalent in the target language.
- If a word has more than one meaning, each sense is explicitly numbered and, thus, divided. Occasionally, special symbols are used to provide a more visual separation of the senses. In the case of online dictionaries, senses are presented in different lines; whereas in printed dictionaries they are presented as a run on, that is, they appear on the very same line than the previous one in order to save space. When it comes to ordering the senses, the order can be chronological (senses are

arranged from the earliest to the most recent), related to the frequency of every sense in different corpora or following the so-called logical ordering, which would imply presenting the most general sense first and the most specific ones in the last place (Lew, 2013a: 284-293).

- Examples provide the users with a real sentence in which the lemma is used by taking into account its meaning. They are complimentary to the definition and, if used correctly, they can be truly clarifying for the users, who will learn how to use the word by taking into consideration real context. However, if the example is not good enough, it may provoke confusion in the user. The examples can be authentic, meaning that they are taken, generally, from a linguistic corpus or invented by the lexicographers (Minaeva, 1992: 77-78).
- Usage is a section in the microstructure of the dictionary in which it is explained whether there are restrictions in the context of use of the different senses of a given lemma or not and, in the case there are, if the restrictions apply to all the senses or not.
- Run-ons include all the information related to expressions, idioms, phraseology and phrasal verbs. Nevertheless, these items may be considered occasionally as independent lemmas and, thus, they are not part of the microstructure of the dictionary, since they would be considered to be the macrostructure.
- Etymology, which is usually presented at the very end of the entry, generally appears in square brackets and the origin of the original word is specified. This information is not always included.

3.1.3. Printed dictionaries vs. Online dictionaries

The appearance of Internet and new technologies has had a great impact on our lives and on the society. One of the main consequences is the way in which people access information has greatly changed and the Internet is, nowadays, an indispensable tool to retrieve the information. As a result, lexicography was also affected by this phenomenon and the first online dictionaries were introduced in the decade of the 1990s and, since then, many online dictionaries were created: in 1998 there were more than 400 online dictionaries available just in English. However, these beginnings were tough because technology was not too developed yet and, therefore, most of these dictionaries lacked linguistic completeness. This was due to the fact that few of

them were produced by major publishers and the lexicographers who elaborated them were not particularly reliable (Lan, 2005: 16).

Online dictionaries are not the only typology of digital dictionaries since, apart from them; there are also digital dictionaries available on CD-ROM that were very popular in the 1990s and the 2000s and electronic dictionaries, which are pocket-size electronic devices that are broadly spread in Asian countries, especially in Japan and South Korea. Hence; online dictionaries, CD-ROM dictionaries and electronic dictionaries can be encompassed within the group of digital dictionaries, as their main characteristic is that the information is displayed by means of a screen and it is accessed by using an electronic system, like a personal computer, a laptop, a mobile phone, a tablet or any other electronic device (Dziemianko, 2018: 664).

As a result of the changes introduced by the appearance of Internet, lexicography also started to face a change, as Lannoy claims that “the dictionary market, thanks to the Internet and the proliferation of home computing, is facing the biggest challenge yet to its previous untouched status” (Lannoy, 2010: 173). In the globalised world in which we live now because of the Internet, the information has to be accessed in a fast, easy and intuitive way and, consequently, this is how online dictionaries should work. Online dictionaries, hence, should be a reliable source enriched with a sophisticated knowledge base but, at the same time, they should be intuitive to use for the inexperienced users and just basic reading and writing skills should be needed to get meaningful results, especially for these dictionaries targeted for foreign users (Grovnik and Smith-Ore, 2013: 243).

Online dictionaries, which are generally free to access for any user who has access to the Internet, have opened a broad range of possibilities for the users in comparison to the traditional or printed dictionaries. Nowadays, practically all the major and traditional lexicographic publishing houses count with online versions that are free or partially paid so they can still be leading the lexicographic market. Online dictionaries can attract a massive audience, since users can have access anywhere to different dictionaries for free. Hence, two extra-linguistic reasons that may have a negative impact on acquiring a printed dictionary, such as an expensive price and being too heavy to carry them are not applicable for online dictionaries (Haensch and Omeñaca, 2004: 31). Apart from these two benefits, online dictionaries allow users to have access to hyperlinks, recordings from native speakers with diverse accents and to reduce considerably the time needed to look up an item in the dictionary. According to previous research, the most searched dictionaries online are the bilingual ones (including English and another language) and, when users look for them, usually, they

type in their native language; meaning for instance, that a Spanish user would type something like *Diccionario bilingüe inglés* (Lannoy, 2010: 173-174, 180).

Then, if lexicography is going through its biggest challenge because of the proliferation of the Internet and it is in need of a change, is it necessary to create a new theory of lexicography? Although some necessary changes may be needed to be introduced, these changes should not end up with a revolution that provoked great modifications in this discipline that would lead to a new general theory of lexicography, since similar changes have taken place since the first wordlists were edited in clay, up to getting to the point of having printed dictionaries. The main change that should take place is the creation of specific theories related to lexicography and the new existing media that should be encompassed within the theoretical framework of metalexicography (Tarp, 2011: 54-55).

As a consequence, making deep changes in the field of lexicography is not necessary, among other reasons, because the new layout of the dictionaries does not change the main purpose of these books, which is still helping users and learners to expand their vocabulary for reception and production and, also, making that the users communicate more effectively in a language. Thus, the role of the online dictionary is similar to the printed one and, consequently, these dictionaries must be provided with all the items mentioned in the previous section about the macrostructure and the microstructure, apart from additional items that could not be included in the printed dictionaries due to their limitations. In addition, online dictionaries are usually backed up by online linguistic corpora, which include more and more words and, hence, this provokes that the examples extracted from the corpora are more complete and reliable. Lexicographers can now have access to corpora such as *British National Corpus*, which contains over 100 million words from many text varieties or the *Corpus of Contemporary American English*, a corpus that has over 25 million words by taking into consideration only American sources, among many other corpora (Lan, 2005: 18).

Providing a specific number of the complete quantity of online dictionaries available on the Internet just in English is, frankly speaking, a really complex task, since the catalogue is truly vast and new dictionaries keep being introduced. The most accepted criterion when it comes to categorising online dictionaries is tagging them as institutional or collective. On the one hand, institutional online dictionaries are those that are created by experts and they are, usually, based on the information provided in printed dictionaries. Hence, they are usually linked to a publishing house. There is the misconception that these dictionaries are never free to use, since institutional dictionaries do not always require a fee-based access. In some occasions, they are completely free to use and, if users have already bought a printed dictionary, they are

offered a code to have access to the dictionary in a digital format; however, in order to get revenue, they can offer the users a paid subscription to make them gain access to more detailed content or they can limit the number of free search per day. On the other hand, collective dictionaries or wikis are made up by the contributions of a community of non-professionals, who are usually the dictionary users themselves. Collaborative dictionaries are always free to use and, as they do not count with the contributions of experts, they may lack of reliability, as anyone can edit them (Lew, 2011: 230-231; Nikiforou, 2019: 132).

3.2. What dictionaries can be used in TEFL in CSE?

One of the most accepted categorisations in the metalexicographical literature is to divide dictionaries depending on the number of languages appearing on them. According to this taxonomy, dictionaries can be categorised as monolingual, bilingual and plurilingual (although the latter group is usually encompassed within the group of bilingual dictionaries, since plurilingual dictionaries are no longer that common). Regarding the group of monolingual dictionaries, the whole microstructural information is written in the same language as the words that make up the macrostructure. In other words, the dictionary is written exclusively in one language, which is common to the headwords and their corresponding description, which is usually made by means of a definition. On the contrary, bilingual dictionaries use two different languages (three or more if the dictionary is plurilingual). Generally speaking, the headwords that make up the dictionary appear in one language (known as source language) and they are associated with a translation in the other language (known as target language). In metalexicography, this translation receives the name of *equivalent*. It is also relevant to mention that bilingual dictionaries can be either unidirectional (this happens when the macrostructure of the dictionary is only in one language and, hence, the user can only consult equivalents from one language to another; namely, an English/Spanish dictionary) or bidirectional (if their macrostructure of the dictionary is present in both of the languages appearing on the dictionary, which would be the case of an English/Spanish-Spanish/English dictionary) (Béjoint, 2010: 45).

This taxonomy is, therefore, broadly used to classify the dictionary-types that can be used to learn a foreign language, meaning that both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries should be present throughout this process. Nonetheless, the prototypical dictionary when it comes to learning a foreign language is, with no doubt, the bilingual one, as this is the type of dictionary that provides the user with a direct translation in a foreign language. Although there will be a whole section devoted to dictionary-use on this MA dissertation, bilingual dictionaries have achieved this prototypical status

because they have always been the most used dictionary-type concerning the field of learning foreign languages. However, this preference from the users (usually guided by the recommendations of their teachers) towards bilingual dictionaries does not necessarily imply that they are the only type of dictionary that can be used for learning a foreign language or that the bilingual dictionaries are considered to be the most helpful dictionaries for the entire process of learning a foreign language.

Indeed, previous research has pointed out that monolingual dictionaries gave better results in comparison to the bilingual dictionaries when used by learners whose proficiency level in a foreign language is from B1 onwards. This is because monolingual dictionaries tend to provide a more detailed entry with more information about the term compared to bilingual dictionaries; as they usually include a definition, an example, notions about idiomatic usage, common collocations and register. On the contrary, bilingual dictionaries just indicate the translation of the word, which can be misleading if there are semantic incongruencies between the two languages. Mainly, learners prefer to use bilingual dictionaries because they can make way quicker consultations compared to monolingual dictionaries, since they only need to read the translation of the term to understand its meaning. Besides, monolingual dictionaries require a deeper knowledge of the foreign language, as users would receive information about the item they are looking for in the foreign language. It is truly relevant to highlight that previous research indicates that even foreign learners with academic background and with a high proficiency in the foreign language usually limit themselves to using bilingual dictionaries and, rarely, the combination between bilingual and monolingual dictionaries takes place (Laufer and Hadar, 1997: 190-191).

3.2.1. Monolingual dictionaries

General monolingual dictionaries can be used for learning a foreign language. Nevertheless, the use of general monolingual dictionaries of English in CSE in Andalusia may be way too ambitious, as these dictionaries are intended to be consulted by a native audience or foreign speakers whose proficiency level is advanced (that is, C1 or C2 according to the CEFR). Students at this stage are not expected to achieve this level of English even once they finish it. Hence, using a dictionary of these characteristics in the CSE may not be helpful for the students at all, because many of the words used in the definitions may not be understandable by these users as they may be too advanced. Hence, they would have to search these words in the dictionary; which would lead to multiple look-ups and, therefore, consuming too much time from the sessions. However, this fact does not indicate that students at this stage cannot use any type of monolingual dictionaries, since there are monolingual dictionaries that are adapted to a foreign audience: the so-called learner's dictionaries (Miller, 2018: 382).

Learner's dictionaries are part of the pedagogical lexicography, a sub-discipline of the metalexicography that was already mentioned in section 3.1. These dictionaries started to be published after the end of the Second World War and they are strongly related to the ideals of the methodology *Basic English*. The first learner's dictionary to be published in any language was the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (OALD1), which was published in the year 1948 by the English lexicographer Albert Sidney Hornby. This dictionary, compared to general monolingual dictionaries, counted with a smaller number of entries in its macrostructure and, besides, with a simpler language and a greater number of examples throughout the whole microstructure in order to favour an easier comprehension of the definitions. OALD1 was not adapted for a target audience of a particular nationality or a particular mother tongue, as any foreign speaker could use it in the same conditions, regardless of his/her mother tongue. This idea of universality is, precisely, one of the strongest points when it comes to using learner's dictionaries as a tool to learn English or any other foreign language, because all the users all around the world would consult the same dictionary. Thus, English learner's dictionaries can be considered as "universal bilingual dictionaries, since they are translated from English to easy English, independently of the user's first language" (Humblé, 2001: 34).

Regarding the characteristics of learner's dictionaries, they tend to use a reduced number of words that form part of the information included in the microstructure of the dictionary. These words, known as defining vocabulary, are preselected by the lexicographers who work on the elaboration of the dictionary and they are, generally, extracted from a linguistic corpus to determine their frequency in the language. Frequency is taken as a key parameter to discern the words that compose the defining vocabulary because, the more frequent a word is; the more likely it is to be known by a learner. Defining vocabulary usually comprises a group of up to 3,500 words (although they are generally around 2,000 words) that are chosen in advance in order to ensure that the words appearing in the definitions and the examples are easily understood by a foreign audience. Using defining vocabulary for the elaboration of learner's dictionaries is tremendously helpful to adapt the definitions of the terms to foreign users: although all the words that make up the defining vocabulary are included in the macrostructure of the dictionary, these words will be less likely to be consulted by the users. This way, the users may not get discouraged while using the dictionary simply because they do not understand the definitions and they will understand the definitions more easily. If we take into consideration the definitions of the term *tear* both in a general and a learner's dictionary, it can be clearly seen how the term is defined in a simpler way that can be easily understood by foreign speakers just by using a more frequent vocabulary (Heuberger, 2018: 302):

Learner's dictionary: "**tear, tears** → tears are the drops of salty liquid that come out of your eyes when you are crying" (COBUILD).

General monolingual dictionary: "**tears**" → the clear salty solution secreted by the lacrimal glands that lubricates and cleanses the surface of the eyeball and inner surface of the eyelids" (Collins English Dictionary Online).

Aside from the presence of defining vocabulary, there are other essential features that make these dictionaries a pedagogic and a user-driven book. In the case of printed editions, learner's dictionaries include a variety of colours in the printing, which favours text clarity. The macrostructure is quite reduced in comparison to general monolingual dictionaries as less words are, usually, included in their macrostructure. This is because words are selected by following frequency parameters and uncommon words are not included, since users are not too likely to encounter them often and, hence, to consult them. In order to discern whether a term, or one of the senses of a term, is common or frequent in the language, lexicographers take linguistic corpora into consideration. Regarding the microstructure of these dictionaries, apart from the adapted definitions and examples by using defining vocabulary, words are usually accompanied by their phonological transcription, generally by means of the IPA; there is a clear distinction in all the senses; there is use of simple grammar codes associated with every specific meaning; there are details about collocations and a clear typography. In addition, these dictionaries tend to include notes about grammar, cultural aspects, styles and different varieties of the language, appendices and illustrations. If all these characteristics are taken as a whole, the result is that a learner's dictionary is a lexicographic product is truly helpful for non-native speakers both for encoding and receiving a message in a foreign language (Rizo Rodríguez, 2004: 31-32). To finish, it is also relevant to add that these dictionaries include many images and pictures throughout their pages, in order to help to clarify the meanings of the terms and to provide the users with a visual representation of them. Pictures are also used to disambiguate words that belong to the same lexical field, like insects, or to depict the parts or components of concrete objects, like a car (Heuberger, 2018: 304).

As was stated previously in this section, the first dictionary ever published in this field was in 1948, the OALD1. Nevertheless, this was the only dictionary available in English for three decades, since no other learner's dictionary was published until 1978, when the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE1), by Paul Proctor, was released. The main feature of this dictionary is that it only used 2,000 words as defining vocabulary. Nine years later, in 1987 John Sinclair published the *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (COBUILD1), this being the first corpus-

based dictionary published in English. In 1995, these dictionaries had published newer versions (the OALD was already in its 5th edition) and a new dictionary was released: the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (CIDE1), whose main feature was the inclusion of frequency information of every term (Heuberger, 2018: 300-301).

Nowadays, there are six major learner's dictionaries available in English, which are usually known as *The Big Six*. Half of these dictionaries are mentioned in the previous paragraph (namely; COBUILD, LDOCE and OALD) and the other half is composed by *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD), *Macmillan English Dictionary* (MED) and *Merriam Webster Learner's Dictionary* (MWLD). All these dictionaries have truly evolved compared to their first editions and they are now adapted to the new technologies. Consequently, these six dictionaries were created in a printed format and, now, they all can be consulted online. It is quite remarkable that MED is now only published online, since Macmillan decided to cease the publication of this dictionary in paper. By using the Internet to access these dictionaries, users are not restricted anymore to the headwords in the dictionary, since thesauri and idioms dictionaries are included within them, which is a clear advantage for the users. However, those beginners who use these dictionaries may become overwhelmed because of the vast amount of information appearing on these dictionaries (Miller, 2018: 354).

3.2.2. Bilingual dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries have a greater tradition compared to learner's dictionaries and they are considered to be one of the earliest lexicographical products in history. This is because there are records of wordlists and lexical lists written by the Sumerians more than three millennia ago. In these wordlists, words were displayed in alphabetical order and they were translated from one language to another providing, therefore, an equivalent. These wordlists evolved throughout time and, in the Ancient Greece, words were ordered according to semantic criteria rather than in alphabetical order. In this period, bilingual dictionaries usually included difficult expressions, archaisms, dialectal terms and terminology from different fields. They were also present in Ancient Rome, as many bilingual Greek-Latin glossaries were written until the collapse of the Roman Empire (Boisson, 1996: 18-24).

Most of the printed dictionaries existing nowadays put into practice some of the ideas expressed in the previous paragraph, although in a more refined manner. Nevertheless, it is important to bring up the fact that most of the printed dictionaries have not evolved that much since the 17th century, as the microstructural information from these dictionaries does not differ that much compared to the most recent

dictionaries published in the 21st century. Perhaps, this is because bilingual dictionaries already from the 17th century were good enough for decoding or receptive purposes, which is the traditional purpose of these dictionaries, as the target audience of bilingual dictionaries is, generally speaking, native in one of the languages appearing on the dictionary. Therefore, the encoding or productive part for the users may be useless for their native language and limited for the foreign one (Humblé, 2001: 36).

Providing a list of all the bilingual English dictionaries existing nowadays might be an impossible task, both because these dictionaries have existed for more than three millennia and because there might be as many bilingual English dictionaries as written languages are in the entire globe. This is due to the fact that bilingual dictionaries are frequently published by national publishing houses and, therefore, they are intended for a national audience. For instance, a bilingual dictionary of Slovakian/English is highly likely to be edited by a Slovakian publishing house rather than an English-speaking one, as the target audience is, exclusively, Slovakian. Thus, the quality of these dictionaries may highly differ depending on the target audience: unfortunately, if there are few native speakers of a language (and, therefore, a reduced target audience) it usually means a worse quality of the dictionaries intended for these speakers. Consequently, there is a significant lack of balance in the quality of dictionaries depending on the languages appearing in them. In most of the cases, the first direction appearing in bilingual dictionaries is foreign language/mother tongue and it is preceded by the part mother tongue/foreign language (Humblé, 2001: 36-37; Marelló, 1996: 33).

The decisions that must be taken into consideration when editing a bilingual dictionary are similar to those that lexicographers encounter when editing a monolingual one: does the dictionary have to be edited following an alphabetical order? Is it necessary to release a printed version? How many entries are needed in the macrostructure? As has been explained in this section, the nature of a bilingual dictionary should imply that only beginner learners should use a dictionary with these characteristics. Nevertheless, the reality is different and language learners belonging to all the stages use bilingual dictionaries. Hence, the audience scope is truly vast, since all the language learners who share the same native language are included as target audience and, therefore, the needs of the users greatly diverge. It is important to remark that the audience does not have to be necessarily native in one of the languages appearing in the dictionary. This is the case for these languages that do not count with many native speakers; the offer of bilingual dictionaries is quite reduced and their quality is poor. Hence, this makes the scope of audience even bigger, although their needs are not always covered (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2013: 213-214).

As a consequence of this immense scope of audience, it is hard to consider that there exists an ideal bilingual dictionary. However, there are certain parameters that are, usually, considered to be positive for a dictionary of these characteristics. One of them is that the dictionary is bidirectional, that is, when the users can look for words in both languages and they receive an equivalent in the target language. This way, a bilingual dictionary is useful both for decoding and encoding purposes. Although bilingual dictionaries are usually linked to decoding the language, if a learner uses a bidirectional dictionary, the encoding part is also included and, therefore, s/he will be able to produce information as well. Because of this reason, most of the bilingual dictionaries published from the end of the 19th century onwards are bidirectional. Another characteristic of bilingual dictionaries is that their macrostructure is usually displayed in a semasiological way, as words are arranged alphabetically. Consequently, each entry is organised around the headword. As many potential users may consult the dictionary, words are included regardless of their frequency in the language, which may be a good point for the advanced learners (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2013: 214-221).

The main parts in the microstructure of bilingual dictionaries are the equivalents and the examples. The equivalents are the prototypical feature of the bilingual dictionaries, since they are the translation from the word in the L1 into the one in the L2. The term equivalent may have different interpretations, but the most accepted one is “equivalents will be defined as a manifestation of a certain relation (or relations) obtaining between the L1 and L2 lexical items” (Piotrowski, 1994: 105). As languages are spoken by people who live in the same planet, there is common knowledge between the different worlds around the world and, hence, there are words with similar semantic meaning between two different languages. This is the case, for instance, of the vocabulary related to the weather or natural phenomena. Consequently, in these fields where the vocabulary is truly similar between two different languages, a total equivalent can be provided in the dictionaries (Szende, 1996: 111-112).

The equivalents provided between the languages do not necessarily have to be symmetrical and, when this happens, they are considered to be partial equivalents. This is because there are not two languages that share the very same vocabulary word by word and, therefore, it is quite common to encounter them. Partial equivalents may occur because of three reasons: vagueness of meaning, polysemy and/or lack of one-to-one correspondence between different lexical items (known as anisomorphism). The first two reasons may occur when there are nuances that make two given lexical items a bit different from each other. In addition, at least one of these three facts is usually met when idiomatic expressions or cultural words need to be translated from one language to another. It is also important to bear in mind that some linguistic

factors (such as register, usage or frequency) are needed to be taken into consideration to determine whether an equivalent is total or partial. If any of those factors change from one language to another, the equivalent cannot be considered to be total since the semantics of these words would differ from one language to another (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2013: 222; Szende, 1996: 126).

The examples are the other main point in the microstructure of bilingual dictionaries. However, they are not always present in them, since they are not an obligatory element as it may be the case for the equivalents; although they appear in most of these dictionaries because they can be truly helpful for learners, regardless of their proficiency level. A reason why the examples are not as relevant as the equivalents in bilingual dictionaries is because users do not consult this type of dictionary for a doubt related to their native language; therefore, it only makes sense to include them when the equivalent is on the foreign language. As it is the case in learner's dictionaries, examples can be based on linguistic corpora or they can be invented by the lexicographers. Some scholars claim that production-oriented examples extracted from linguistic corpora are more effective for learners (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2013: 222).

3.2.3. Bilingualised dictionaries

Bilingualised dictionaries (also known as semi-bilingual or bilingual learner's dictionaries) are considered to be a hybrid between monolingual (not necessarily by taking into consideration learner's dictionaries) and bilingual dictionaries, as they combine features from those dictionaries in their microstructure, since both a definition and a lexical equivalent in the target language are provided. For instance, a bilingualised dictionary of English/Spanish would include the headwords in English, the definitions and the examples in English but the lexical equivalent would be in Spanish. This type of dictionary is a recent phenomenon compared to bilingual and learner's dictionaries, as the first one appeared in the year 1978 (*Oxford Student Dictionary for Hebrew Speakers*) and they were not introduced in other languages until the decade of 1980s or even the 1990s (Laufer and Hadar, 1997: 190). In the specific case of bilingualised dictionaries of English/Spanish, the most renowned one may be *Diccionario Oxford Study para estudiantes de inglés*, which was published in 2006. Besides, the *Cambridge Online Dictionary* has a bilingual section from English to Spanish, in which the definition in English is followed by the equivalent in Spanish and, also, an example in English (Lew and Adamska-Sałaciak, 2015: 57).

These dictionaries, if used effectively, may be a great improvement for pedagogical lexicography, as the combination of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries would be present in just one book. Hence, students of English in the CSE would have at their disposal the characteristics of these two dictionary-types in one just book or online site. However, many deficiencies have been pointed out by experts in this field related to current bilingualised dictionaries. The first deficiency is that these dictionaries are not widely known by teachers. Consequently, if dictionaries are not known by teachers, they cannot recommend them to the students and, therefore, they will not be used. Another deficiency is that, usually, these dictionaries are based on general monolingual dictionaries rather than learner's dictionaries and, therefore, most of the microstructure is not adapted to a foreign audience. The only remarkable difference with a general monolingual is that they add the equivalent at the end of the microstructure, without adding further modifications. This makes the monolingual part of the microstructure useless for beginner users and, consequently, they can only consult the equivalent. Another deficit of bilingualised dictionaries is that many equivalents may become redundant for the users, especially when a given term has several senses and the equivalent is shared by all of them. However, the biggest deficiency has to do with the way in which learners use these dictionaries: previous research indicates that, most of the users, regardless of their proficiency level in the L2, tend to skip the definition of the term and directly check what the equivalent in the target language is. Therefore, in most of the cases, this dictionary is used in the very same way as a regular bilingual dictionary (Lew and Adamska-Sałaciak, 2015: 47-49).

3.3. Previous research on dictionary use in TEFL

3.3.1. Research on monolingual and bilingual dictionaries

One of the sub-disciplines of metalexicography that has received the most attention by scholars is the research about dictionary users and use. The scope of research is vast, since many types of studies can be conducted exclusively in the field of EFL. One of the most recurrent kinds of research is the realisation of studies where scholars check whether learners prefer to use monolingual or bilingual dictionaries when studying a foreign language and, also, to measure the effectiveness of these two dictionary-types to learn English. As this MA dissertation has Secondary Education as the principal scope of research, some relevant studies (arranged chronologically) will be mentioned in order to get a rough idea of the results that were obtained regarding the dictionary use and the preference between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. In most of the cases, the totality or part of the subjects were studying at the educational level that would correspond to CSE and NCSE in Andalusia.

- Béjoint (1981). One of the pioneer scholars to conduct research about monolingual dictionaries applied to the field of TEFL was Béjoint, who carried out a study by means of a questionnaire related to the language needs of 122 French learners of English. This study is relevant to check the evolution of the perception towards monolingual dictionaries in this field: 40 years ago, 95 % of the subjects of the study claimed to have a learner's dictionary and 85 % of them claimed to have chosen a dictionary because of the recommendation from their teacher. Regarding the type of information that learners looked up in this kind of dictionary, 87 % of them placed meaning among the three most-often features that they looked up; the second one being syntactic information (52 %) and synonyms the third (51 %). The least relevant item included in learner's dictionaries for the students was etymology, as it was only looked up by 5 % of the subjects. Besides, it is important to highlight that 55 % of the subjects claimed not to pay attention at all to the codes and abbreviations appearing in the microstructure. To finish, the informants were asked whether they were satisfied with learner's dictionaries and 77 % replied positively; however, only 36 % said that they preferred them over bilingual dictionaries. The most negative features for the subjects about learner's dictionaries were unsatisfactory definitions (either because they were too simple or too convoluted) and that they were unable to find words, especially those related to slang, Americanisms, technical words and compounds. Regarding the types of words that they looked up the most, the results claimed that the most common one had to be with idioms and phraseology; while the least searched words were frequent words in English (Béjoint, 1981: 214-217).
- Nuccorini (1992). Another significant study was carried out a decade later by Nuccorini, who took 56 Italian learners of English who were studying Secondary Education as subjects. However, in this case, the research was not done by taking into consideration a questionnaire, but a form related to the usage of bilingual and learner's dictionaries. There were diverse findings after analysing the results of the forms: one of them is that, although the most frequent reason why informants decided to consult a dictionary was to retrieve the meaning of a word, 75 % of the informants preferred to use a bilingual dictionary rather than a monolingual for this purpose and, therefore, informants preferred to interpret the meaning by relying upon their native language rather than by reading a definition in English. It is vital for the purpose of this MA dissertation to highlight that, according to this study, those informants who used learner's dictionaries regularly was because of the influence and recommendation from their teachers and, also, that whenever a

learner's dictionary was used together with a bilingual one both for encoding and decoding purposes, the former was proved to be more helpful than the latter, as users were able to find more information on learner's dictionaries (Nuccorini, 1992: 98-99).

- Laufer and Hadar (1997). This study is aimed to discern the effectiveness of learner's, bilingual and bilingualised dictionaries by taking into account the results of 122 English learners whose mother tongue was Hebrew. 76 students (aged 15-16) belonged to a high school located in Israel and 46 were learners of English at university level. In this study, 15 English words with a low frequency in linguistic corpora were chosen to ensure that they were not known by the informants, who had to look up 5 of these words in a learner's dictionary, 5 in a bilingual and 5 in a bilingualised dictionary. They were assigned what items they had to look up in every dictionary to make sure that all the dictionary-types were used equally. There were two activities: one related to comprehension and one related to production. The comprehension activity was a multiple-choice test where students were presented with the word in a given sentence and the subjects had to choose the meaning that suited the best the sense appearing in the sentence. For the production task, the subjects had to write original sentences with all the 15 words. They were explicitly told that they could not reproduce the dictionary example with minor changes. The highest score that students could achieve was 20. The results showed that, in both groups, the best results corresponded to the items that were looked up by using the bilingualised dictionary. In the case of the secondary school students, the average score achieved in both tasks using the bilingualised dictionary was 13.53; in contrast to 12.28 for the monolingual dictionary and 12.67 for the bilingual one. Analysing the two tasks independently, in the comprehension one, the bilingualised dictionary obtained the highest mark as well (6.93; whereas monolingual obtained 6.46 and bilingual 6.37). Regarding the production task, the bilingualised and the bilingual dictionaries achieved the very same result (6.39; which is higher than the result of the monolingual dictionary: 5.77). Consequently, the authors of the study conclude that, for a pedagogical purpose, the bilingualised dictionary is the most suitable for learners of English. This is because the definition helps the users to both comprehend the information and, then, to produce it. In addition, the presence of an equivalent is useful for the users to reassure and reinforce the perception taken of the definition (Laufer and Hadar, 1997: 190-195).

- Atkins and Varantola (1998). This study compares the use of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries by groups of learners of English, who were divided according to their mother language: French (131 subjects), German (117), Italian (205) and Spanish (270). The subjects belonged to different institutions, namely, secondary schools; colleges; universities and adult education classes and they were divided into four different groups according to their results achieved in a placement test. For the purpose of this MA dissertation, the main focus will be on Groups B (78 Spanish subjects out of 216 students in this group), C (54 Spanish subjects out of 195 students) and D (69 Spanish subjects out of 181); as most of the subjects coming from secondary schools were allocated in these groups. One of the features that wanted to be measured in this study was the habit that these users had towards monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. When asked about their preference, bilingual dictionaries were clearly preferred over monolingual ones by users belonging to Group B (79 % vs. 21 %), Group C (81 % vs. 19 %) and Group D (88 % vs. 12 %). On average, this is 82.67 %; which indicates that 8 students out of 10 prefer to use bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones. These results may explain that some of the subjects never use monolingual dictionaries, regardless of the typology of the activity: 24 % of the subjects in Group B never use monolingual dictionaries (33 % in Group C and 39 % in Group D) (Atkins and Varantola, 1998: 24-40).

The subjects were also asked to point out their dictionary-preference in three given types of activities, namely: 'understanding L2', 'translating L1>L2' and 'using known L2 items'. To do the three different activities, the subjects had at their disposal both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and they chose the one that they wanted to consult. Regarding the results obtained in the first activity, 40 % of the users in Group B used monolingual dictionaries; 56 % used bilingual and 4 % used both. In Group C, the results were 23 % monolingual; 72 % bilingual and 5 % both. To finish, in Group D 23 % of the subjects consulted monolingual dictionaries, 73 % bilingual and 4 % both. Concerning the second activity, the preference towards bilingual dictionaries was clear (Group B: 82 % vs. 16 % monolingual and 2 % both; Group C, 86 % vs. 12 % monolingual and 2 % both and Group D 96 % vs. 3 % monolingual and 1 % both). In the third activity, although the results were better for monolingual dictionaries (Group B: 62 % vs. 34 % bilingual and 4 % both), bilingual dictionaries were still preferred by subjects in Group C and D (53 % bilingual vs. 47 % monolingual and 58 % monolingual vs. 40 % monolingual and 2 % both, respectively). Hence, if all the results from this study are put together, it can be concluded that learners from Secondary Education, regardless of their native

language, prefer to use bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones (Atkins and Varantola, 1998: 43-45).

- Böhner (1999). This study took place in Bavaria (Germany), where 271 students from a Secondary School were asked to fill a questionnaire related to dictionary use. It is relevant to mention that, in the legal documents published by the Bavarian Government, it is stipulated that students in Secondary Education from the 11th year onwards (which would correspond to 3 *ESO* in Andalusia) can have access to monolingual dictionaries when doing an exam in the subjects of foreign languages. The dictionaries that can be used for this purpose are selected by the Ministry of Education to ensure that students use similar dictionaries. In the case of English, OALD or LDOCE were the dictionaries that were chosen by the Government. In relation to the results obtained in this study, almost the totality of the informants claimed to use the dictionary to know about the meaning of unknown words. The other two main reasons why they consulted the dictionary were related to obtaining information about synonyms and spelling. The reasons with the lowest score were to look for technical term and grammatical information. For the question 'during the test I always use my dictionary to...', nearly the totality of them answered to 'understand and translate the text', therefore, for tasks that have to do with decoding the language. The option that was related to encoding the language 'write the composition' was less popular (Böhner, 1999: 189-191).

In this study, there is also a comparison between the use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Despite the fact that students are allowed to use exclusively monolingual dictionaries in their exams, the informants clearly preferred to use bilingual dictionaries for doing homework rather than learner's dictionaries: over 90 % of the subjects preferred to use bilingual dictionaries to retrieve the meaning of a word. The reasons that prevented the informants from using learner's dictionaries more frequently were that they considered that using them was too time-consuming and that the definitions were incomprehensible to them. When asked about the features that an ideal learner's dictionary should have, over 90 % of the students answered 'easy to understand definitions'. Other items that achieved a high percentage were 'clear lay-out' (roughly 80 %) and up-to-date words (around 70 %) (Böhner, 1999: 192-195).

- Lew (2004). Lew carried out a study by taking into consideration 712 English learners whose native language was Polish belonging to different educational

levels. The most numerous group (with 284 informants) belonged to the stage of High School in the Polish Educational System. Besides, 86 informants belonged to the stage that corresponds to CSE in Andalusia. The purpose of this study was to compare the results to similar studies (one of them was Atkins and Varantola, 1998) by establishing the following research questions: do Polish learners, like learners in other studies, use bilingual dictionaries much more frequently than monolingual? Are there significant differences in the frequency of consultation between the two directions of a bilingual dictionary? Is there a relationship between dictionary consultation and proficiency level? When learners progress in the foreign language, do they start to use monolingual dictionaries more often? Do they stop using bilingual dictionaries? (Lew, 2004: 55-62).

In regard to the first research question, in this study it is also confirmed that bilingual dictionaries are much more frequently used than monolingual ones: 81.88 % of the subjects (583 out of 712) claimed to consult monolingual English dictionaries less than once a week. In the case of bilingual dictionaries, 147 (20.64 %) claimed to consult the bilingual direction of Polish-English less than once a week; while for the English-Polish direction the result was 133 (18.68 %). Regarding the item *a few times a week*, the highest percentage (43.82 %) corresponds to the bilingual direction English-Polish (312 subjects). In this item, the direction Polish-English achieved 40.31 % (287 subjects) and the monolingual dictionaries obtained a poor 6.32 % (represented only by 45 students). Apart from a clear preference towards the bilingual dictionary, it can be asserted that the direction L1-L2 is somewhat more used than L2-L1 in bilingual dictionaries. An explanation to this result may be related to a higher need for decoding the foreign language over encoding it (Lew, 2004: 77-82).

Lew claims that there exists a relationship between dictionary consultation and proficiency level. This is because the subjects were divided into five different groups according to their proficiency level and the frequency of consultation of monolingual dictionaries until level 4 was extremely poor (less than 10 %); however, the percentage increased dramatically for the students allocated in the group with the highest proficiency in English (level 5), up to the point of being equated to the bilingual dictionaries. Although there is not a detailed explanation of how many secondary and high school students belonged to this group, level 5 is only represented by 107 subjects (15.02 % of the total) and there were subjects who were studying at university level, some of them were students of English literature and grammar; hence, it is highly likely that not too

many secondary and high school students were allocated to level 5. The fact that monolingual dictionaries were equally used as bilingual ones indicates that monolingual dictionaries are not a substitute of the bilingual dictionaries for the most proficient users, but a complement (Lew, 2004: 83-86).

- Cote González and Tejedor Martínez (2007). These authors decided to make two studies related to dictionary use in different schools located in a rural environment in the Spanish region of Castilla-La Mancha. The first study was carried out in the academic year of 1995-96 and there were 50 English learners from a state school located in Campo de Criptana (Ciudad Real) whose age was between 14 and 17. The way in which the information was collected was by means of the realisation of different activities involving lexical and grammatical errors in a series of sentences, in which students were obliged to use bilingual dictionaries to correct them. The results from this study was that, although learners claimed to be aware of how to use a dictionary, their lexicographical skills were shown to be quite poor, as the grammatical information appearing in the dictionary was barely checked. This was because they were not aware that it was available and, therefore, they limited the use of bilingual dictionaries to checking the equivalent in the target language. The researchers claim that these poor lexicographical skills were present because “they (students) do not get instruction on how to use a dictionary, so we cannot expect them to be efficient” (Cote González and Tejedor Martínez, 2007: 151).

Cote González and Tejedor Martínez decided to conduct another study in the academic year of 2000-01 at a state school located in El Casar (Guadalajara), in which 22 students from *2nd ESO* and 24 from *3rd ESO* took part (in total, 46 subjects who were encompassed in the same group since no significant differences in the results were found). This study followed the same dynamic as the previous one; nevertheless, two activities related to translation (Spanish into English and English into Spanish) were added. Before beginning the study, the subjects were explicitly told about the presence of grammatical information in the bilingual dictionary that they were supposed to use. However, the results were not good, as the students had problems even to select the right entry in Spanish when doing the translation from Spanish into English and they tended to select the first equivalent provided in English (or Spanish, in the case of the English to Spanish activity) in the microstructure. These authors, again, put the focus on the fact that students are not given enough input about how to use dictionaries correctly as an explanation for these poor results (Cote González and Tejedor Martinez, 2007: 155-158).

3.3.2. Research on online dictionaries

Digital dictionaries, as was mentioned in section 3.1.3, were introduced in the decade of the 1990s and, since then, there has been a rapid evolution, going from the earliest digital CD-ROM dictionaries to the online dictionaries available now on the Internet. One of the main consequences of the recent appearance of this discipline is that, unfortunately, research on online dictionary use and preferences by learners in Europe is still poor compared to the studies published on printed dictionaries, since there is not a high number of studies available in this field. Most of the research available comes from Asia, where scholars have carried out diverse studies about the usage of electronic dictionaries (Töpel, 2014: 19-20). For this reason the published research in this field specifically at Secondary Education level is, consequently, almost nonexistent. Therefore, most of the studies that will be mentioned in this section will take as a reference English learners at university level:

- Koyama and Takeuchi (2003). This study is one of the earliest papers published in this field and it was carried out in Japan; hence, the use of printed and electronic dictionaries was compared. The subjects of the study were a group of 26 female university students who were studying a BA in English (aged 19-20) and another group of 16 female secondary school students, who were 15-16 years old. These students were preselected beforehand by the authors, in order to ensure that they had the most similar English proficiency possible, as the students would be divided into two groups to do a reading comprehension activity: one of them would use a bilingual printed dictionary and the other one would use the bilingual version available in the electronic dictionary, which contained the very same information compared to its printed counterpart. The subjects had to express their opinion about the dictionary used for the study.

In relation to the time devoted to looking up an item, although the group that used electronic dictionaries performed slightly better, there were no significant differences between them and there were no problems for any informant to look up as many words as required in the dictionaries, regardless of the format. Regarding the mental retention of words (the informants were asked one week after the study to write down on a piece of paper the English words that they looked for), those students who used printed dictionaries performed better than those who used an electronic one, although there was not a big difference between the two groups. When asked about their preference towards electronic or printed dictionaries, although most of the students believed that the printed dictionary had a better quality and it contained more information

(the reality is that both versions contained the same information); they claimed that they preferred to use electronic dictionaries over printed ones because of their ease of use and because they were not heavy at all to carry in comparison to printed dictionaries (Koyama and Takeuchi, 2003: 61-72).

- Nesi and Boomoh (2007). This study was carried out at King Mongkurt's University of Technology Thonburi (Bangkok) by taking a sample of 1,211 students of English (none of them studied a BA related to English or linguistics) at their first year of university, who had to answer a questionnaire about their use of learner's dictionaries of English both in printed format and electronic dictionaries. It is important to highlight that the use of electronic dictionaries was not highly developed in Thailand at the time in which the study was performed due to their elevated price for Thai standards. When asked in the questionnaire, 95 % of the subjects claimed to own any type of dictionaries; 82 % a learner's dictionary; 45 % a bilingual dictionary and 40 % an electronic dictionary. However, the reason why the most owned dictionary-type by these subjects was learner's dictionaries was that these dictionaries were the ones recommended by the professors at this university and not because of their preference, as 73 % of the informants claimed to prefer bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones. The main reason why these learners used dictionaries was for comprehension activities rather than writing tasks (84 % vs. 16 %) and to translate English into Thai (83 %). Regarding the answers for the question 'if you do not have any dictionary or if you plan to buy a new dictionary, what type of dictionary would you like to buy?', the results were conclusive: 818 subjects (67.55 %) said that they would like to buy an electronic dictionary; while only 265 (21.88 %) would like to buy a printed dictionary (out of these 265 subjects, 177 would buy a printed bilingual dictionary and 88 a printed learner's dictionary) (Nesi and Boomoh, 2007: 79-80; 85-88).
- Dziemanko (2010). The goal of this research was to compare the usefulness of the electronic and the paper version of the learner's dictionary COBUILD both for receptive and productive tasks. In this study 64 Polish learners of English from the University of Poznan took part, being divided into two groups: 30 of them used the printed version; whereas 34 used the online one. All these learners were preselected in advance, as it was important that they all had previously used learner's dictionaries on a regular basis. As regards the receptive task, students had to explain in their own words the definition appearing in the dictionary of terms with a low frequency on linguistic corpora. For the production activity, the subjects had to complete a sentence by adding

the proper preposition. In addition, Dziemanko wanted to test the capacity of lexical retention from these subjects by taking into consideration the items tested and, therefore, two weeks after the test was carried out the subjects had to answer the same questions, which were arranged in a different order. For the retention part, the subjects were not allowed to use any dictionary.

The results obtained in this paper claim that those students who used the online version of COBUILD performed better than those who used the printed one in both tasks, especially in the retention test. In relation to the first part of the study, although there was a percentage of success of over 90 % for both dictionaries, the results for the receptive test was 92 % of success for the printed version of COBUILD; whereas the subjects who used the online version achieved 98.7 %. The results were highly similar for the production task (92.2 % vs. 98.5 %, respectively). Nevertheless, the percentages belonging to the retention test showed a greater difference: 62.4 % of success for the receptive task of those subjects who used the printed dictionary, in contrast to 76.7 % for those who used the online version. Regarding the production task, the percentages were 45.7 % vs. 63.8 %, respectively (Dziemanko, 2010: 257-263).

- Müller-Spitzer, Koplenig and Töpel (2012). This study was carried out by means of an online questionnaire, which was filled by 317 subjects coming from Germany and 367 coming from England. The purpose of this study was to discern the demands that users had related to online dictionaries by taking into account ten parameters. The results were fairly similar for the two groups: the most important features for these users was 'reliability of the content', followed by 'clarity' and 'up-to-date content'. Hence, the main demands for these users towards online dictionaries are that the information provided can be trusted, a user-friendly layout to browse the dictionary and that the most current terms are also included. 'Speed' and 'long-term accessibility' were also other important features for these users. 'Links to the corpus' and 'links to other dictionaries' achieved less than 50 % of importance for these users, but there were other features that were still more irrelevant for the informants: 'adaptability', 'suggestions for further browsing' and 'multimedia content'. Regarding the devices that they used to access online dictionaries, the preferred one was the laptop, which was the option for 499 subjects. Other devices, such as smartphones, were only used by 72 subjects (Müller-Spitzer, Koplenig and Töpel, 2012: 426-446).

3.4. Dictionary-using skills

Dictionary-using skills can be defined as “the abilities required on the part of the dictionary user to find the information being sought” (Hartmann and James, 2002: 117). These abilities depend upon “dictionary look-up strategies and the language learner’s ability to use the best possible strategy in a particular context for a specific purpose” (Campoy Cubillo, 2015: 120). Traditionally, these skills have been divided into six stages, according to the taxonomy created by Nesi (1999), which were intended to be valid both for printed and online dictionaries. There are, in total, a number of 40 skills in this categorisation, which are shown below as they appear in the paper published by the author (Nesi, 1999: 54-55):

Stage one: Before study

1. Knowing what types of dictionary exist, and choosing which dictionary/ies to consult and/or buy.
2. Knowing what kinds of information are found in dictionaries and other types of reference works.

Stage two: Before dictionary consultation

3. Deciding whether dictionary consultation is necessary.
4. Deciding what to look up.
5. Deciding on the appropriate form of the look-up item.
6. Deciding which dictionary is most likely to satisfy the purpose of the consultation.
7. Contextual guessing of the meaning of the look-up item.
8. Identifying the word class of the look-up item.

Stage three: Locating entry information

9. Understanding the structure of the dictionary.
10. Understanding alphabetization and letter distribution.
11. Understanding grapho-phonemic correspondence (and the lack of it).
12. Understanding the use of wildcards in electronic dictionary searches.
13. Choosing amongst homonyms.
14. Finding derived forms.
15. Finding multi-word units.

16. Understanding the cross-referencing system in print dictionaries, and hyperlinking in electronic dictionaries.

Stage four: Interpreting entry information

17. Distinguishing the component parts of the entry.
18. Distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information.
19. Finding information about the spelling of words.
20. Understanding typographical conventions and the use of symbols, numbered superscripts, punctuation.
21. Interpreting IPA and pronunciation information.
22. Interpreting etymological information.
23. Interpreting morphological and syntactic information.
24. Interpreting the definition or translation.
25. Interpreting information about collocations.
26. Interpreting information about idiomatic and figurative use.
27. Deriving information from examples.
28. Interpreting restrictive labels.
29. Referring to additional dictionary information (in front matter, appendices, hypertext links).
30. Verifying and applying look-up information.

Stage five: Recording entry information

31. Sifting entry information.
32. Deciding how to record entry information.
33. Compiling a vocabulary notebook or file of index cards.
34. Using the notebook section of an electronic dictionary.

Stage six: Understanding lexicographical issues

35. Knowing what people use dictionaries for.
36. Knowing lexicographical terminology.
37. Understanding principles and processes of dictionary compilation.
38. Recognizing different defining and translating styles.

39. Comparing entries.

40. Dictionary criticism and evaluation.

Although all these six stages are relevant for the purpose of this MA dissertation, the first and the second may be considered as the most important ones: if they are not applied correctly, the rest will not work. Training in the stage of 'before study' involves, in the field of EFL, the training on the decision of choosing a monolingual, bilingual or bilingualised dictionary according to their characteristics and the user's needs. If users are trained to make this decision right by providing them with input of the characteristics of these dictionaries, users will be able to take full advantage of the dictionaries and, therefore, it may imply better results in tasks that entail both reception and production in the language. Therefore, although this is the initial skill, it may be the one provoking the success or the failure in the task when it comes to dictionary use. Regarding the second stage, although it may sound ironic, one important feature is to know when not to use a dictionary, as it is also good to encourage learners to work out the meaning of words from the context. However, this does not mean not using a dictionary at all, as using the dictionary afterwards to verify the meaning of the word is still necessary, especially if the learner is not an advanced user. For this stage, it is also important that the user knows beforehand the word type that is to be looked up, as this is vital in items such as homonyms (Nesi, 1999: 57-58).

Lew took into consideration the taxonomy created by Nesi in 1999 and he decided to take part of it to create an independent one for online dictionaries. This was necessary because, even though Nesi's taxonomy was also intended to be valid for electronic dictionaries, the categorisation from 1999 may be a bit obsolete for the reality of the online dictionaries nowadays. First of all, as these dictionaries are digital, Lew considers that these dictionaries must be, above all, user-friendly: if their interface or look-up techniques are too complicated for the users, these dictionaries will not be used even if their lexicographical quality is good because users will not understand how to navigate on them. Furthermore, users should have basic knowledge about informatics to be able to use dictionaries available on the Internet. Regarding the comparison with Nesi's taxonomy, Lew considers that the first two stages can be applicable to online dictionaries with all their skills because dictionaries, regardless of their format, have the same purpose when it comes to learning EFL. However, the fifth stage and the sixth one are not to be considered at all (Lew, 2013b: 17).

The third and the fourth stages are included in Lew's taxonomy for online dictionaries, although with significant changes, since these stages are strongly related to the changes in the presentation of the macrostructure and microstructure between a printed and an online dictionary. Regarding the third stage, the manner in which the

terms are presented (alphabetically or thematic) is not relevant in the case of online dictionaries, as, principally, the users will look up the word by using the search bar and not by looking up the items in a list. Besides, the correspondence between the graphology and phonetics may not be so relevant anymore, as making an approximate attempt in the spelling may be valid for retrieving the intended item, as the *did you mean?* system is included in most of the online dictionaries available. Homonyms and synonyms are, generally speaking, represented in a more visual way for the user in online dictionaries, as there are no space limitations as in printed dictionaries. In relation to the fourth stage, 'interpreting entry information', items that were traditionally problematic for the users, such as the interpretation of the phonetics, are now reinforced with the pronunciation of the word by a real person by means of a recording, in which it is possible, on some occasions, to set the accent of the speaker. Nevertheless, the rest of the skills that make up this stage (22 to 28) remain relevant for online dictionaries (Lew 2013b: 19-21).

These nuances in the taxonomy have to be complemented by new skills that are intrinsically related to using online dictionaries. These skills are linked to the way in which users can search items on the dictionaries and there are different types, which are (Lew, 2013b: 24-27):

- Incremental search. This skill has to do with a search technique that is broadly used on online dictionaries, like *Macmillan English Dictionary Online* or *WordReference* just to mention a few. The main feature of incremental search is the automated term completion of the word that is being typed by offering the user options containing the characters (at least three) that have been typed on the search bar. Teachers should encourage users to type as many characters as possible in order to narrow down the possibilities that are displayed.

- Wildcard search. This search involves the use of wildcards and symbols like *, ?, % or + when typing the word. This is useful, for instance, to indicate that what is being typed corresponds to the final part of the word rather than the beginning. The more skilled learners get in the usage of these symbols when searching a word, the more possibilities that the learner can have in every search.

- Filtered search. Filters can be applied in most of online dictionaries to refine the search. Features such as word-type, register, frequency or subject domain can be filtered in order to get results exclusively belonging to these categories. This is especially useful in the cases of homonyms or words with synonyms, as only the information that is selected will be displayed.

-Sound search. This is used to access dictionaries phonologically. Although there are not so many online dictionaries that use this feature, as voice-recognition is hard to be implemented, this type of search has clear pedagogical benefits, as learners can train their oral skills to look up words with problematic phonotactic sequences.

-Fuzzy-spelling search. Although this skill only takes place when a word is misspelt on the search bar, the user is given a list of items that have a similar spelling (known as *did you mean?*) that s/he has to interpret in order to access the intended word (if it is provided). Hence, a possible insufficient skill when it comes to spelling can be mended by choosing the right word and, most importantly, the learner will be aware of the error.

Campoy Cubillo (2015: 120-121) claims that dictionaries are language tools that can be used in classrooms and as a self-learning resource. Unfortunately, she asserts that their use in schools and learning institutions is neglected because they are not explicitly mentioned in the official syllabus, as it is the case for grammar or vocabulary for instance. Hence, dictionary-skills and relevant information about dictionaries, such as the different types, are not known by learners because they are not taught about them. This fact also implies that dictionary skills are not taken into consideration as an important measurement in language testing like other language skills (namely, reading; speaking; listening and writing), although dictionary skills may be important for the skills mentioned before, especially in the case of reading and writing, as the use of dictionary is explicitly mentioned in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2020). This author believes that the proficiency level of a user is strictly related to the dictionary-using skills. Consequently, and taking as a reference the parameters provided by Nesi (1999) and Lew (2013b) as a source of information, Campoy Cubillo decided to design a scale similar to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020) applied to the dictionary-using skills, that is, going from the highest level (C2) to the lowest one (A1). These scales assess seven items: decide, locate, understand, interpret, evaluate, record and implement. For the purpose of this MA dissertation, the scales linked to B1 and A2 will be presented below, with slight modifications as all the items are not included, as only the relevant items for the creation of the rubrics appearing in the evaluation section (4.10.) are taken will be taken into account:

B1 proficiency level scale (independent user) (Campoy Cubillo, 2015: 135):

-Decide. Can choose between mono- and bilingual dictionaries when having doubts about language. Can decide what to look up and the appropriate form of the look-up item.

-Locate. Can locate entries arranged according to a specific writing system in mono- and bilingual dictionaries. Can find synonyms in dictionaries.

-Understand. Can understand dictionary micro- and macrostructure in bilingual dictionaries. Can understand the basics of grapho-phonemic correspondence and the lack of it.

-Interpret. Can interpret basic typographical conventions and symbols. Can use a dictionary to interpret texts that consist mainly of high frequency, everyday or job-related language. Can use a dictionary to interpret the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters. Can handle different types of information provided in dictionaries but does not have full awareness of all types of information and dictionary types.

-Evaluate. Can evaluate user friendliness in dictionaries according to his/her individual preferences/needs.

-Record. Can note down dictionary information, compile a vocabulary notebook or file to keep track of dictionary findings.

-Implement. Can apply dictionary findings to a reading or writing task with texts about everyday experience and feelings. Can apply dictionary findings to a simple writing task about personal opinion or everyday matters. Can use a dictionary to find words heard in spoken texts or find which words to use in conversation, though mistakes occur when trying to interpret and apply those findings.

A2 proficiency level scale (basic user) (Campoy Cubillo, 2015: 135):

-Decide. Can decide to use a bilingual dictionary when having doubts about language.

-Locate. Can locate entries arranged according to a specific writing system (logographic, consonant, alphabetic).

-Understand. Can understand dictionary micro- and macrostructure in bilingual dictionaries but generally needs guidance.

-Interpret. Can use a dictionary to interpret short, simple texts.

-Evaluate. Can evaluate and decide if choosing a dictionary is a good strategy for a particular task at hand.

-Record. Can note down look-up results successfully so they may be used later.

-Implement. Can use a dictionary to complete simple tasks. Attempts to find a word or expression heard in conversations, but only sometimes fulfills his/her purpose.

3.5. Partial conclusion.

In this section, a revision of the relevant literature published about lexicography has been explained in order to clarify concepts about this field that will be put into practice in the other big section of this MA dissertation: the lesson plan. Lexicography is a recent discipline, as it did not have a theoretical basis until 1971. Therefore, there is still a debate among those scholars who consider lexicography to be a branch of linguistics and those who consider it a science. This divergence could be considered to be a reason why its main product, the dictionary, is not broadly used in the field of teaching foreign languages; even if dictionaries are a book-type with clear pedagogical connotations that are largely known both by teachers and learners. The importance of dictionaries in language learning is clear, especially for independent learning, as dictionaries are a reliable source that can be consulted at any time.

As dictionaries are considered to be a didactic book, their potential in language teaching is enormous if used correctly. In the case of English, and in short, of most of the languages; there are three dictionary-types that can be used for this purpose: learner's dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries and bilingualised dictionaries. Firstly, learner's dictionaries are monolingual dictionaries that are adapted to a foreign audience and they are encompassed in the category of pedagogical lexicography. Hence, items like the definition are adapted to foreign speakers, by means of using a defining vocabulary to ensure that the vocabulary is easily understandable. In the case of English, the first language in which a dictionary of these characteristics was available, there are six major learner's dictionaries: CALD, COBUILD, LDOCE, OALD, MED and MWLD. Secondly, bilingual dictionaries are the dictionaries in which a direct equivalent or translation is provided to the term searched and they can be unidirectional (if only L1-L2 translation is included) or bidirectional (if both L1-L2/L2-L1 translations are provided). Lastly, bilingualised dictionaries combine the features of both learner's and bilingual dictionaries. Dictionaries were created to be a printed source; however, the development of technology has provoked that dictionaries are adapted to the online format and, hence, they can be consulted by using the Internet.

Previous research has pointed out that bilingual dictionaries are the preferred type of dictionary by the learners and, consequently, the most used one. However, this fact does not indicate that this dictionary is always the most suitable one when learning a foreign language. Besides, it has been also pointed out that students prefer to consult online dictionaries rather than in their printed format. However, it has been also revealed that dictionary-using skills are, in general, extremely poor among the

users. Since these skills are clearly insufficient, it leads to the fact that users cannot take full advantage of the dictionaries that they have at their disposal when learning English or any other foreign language. Some experts claim that this deficit on dictionary-using skills are due to the fact that students do not receive any input about how to use a dictionary properly during foreign language lessons, as the use of dictionaries is not explicitly mentioned on the official syllabuses, as it is the case of the Spanish and Andalusian regulations.

As a result of the clear benefits that dictionaries have both for teaching and learning a foreign language mentioned (for the sake of this MA dissertation, English) and the bad situation of dictionaries in CSE in the subjects of modern languages, a lesson plan in which dictionaries will be considered as the central item will be created and explained in-depth in order to pursue an improvement of the state of lexicography in education and to show that dictionaries are still to be considered as a powerful tool to learn languages, especially because nowadays they can be easily accessed by means of technology.

4. Lesson Plan

4.1. Justification

Get to know English dictionaries! is the title of the Lesson Plan for this MA dissertation, which will be addressed to students in the 3rd year of CSE in Andalusia (Spain). As has been mentioned in the theoretical framework, dictionaries are a powerful tool to learn any foreign language; however, their use is frequently limited to bilingual dictionaries in the case they are used at all. This fact is, unfortunately, not beneficial for the field of TEFL as dictionaries are a source of information that is always at the disposal of the learner and, therefore, vital for independent learning and for the numerous occasions on which the learner cannot consult the teacher about a doubt.

The main purpose of this Lesson Plan is to foster the use of dictionaries in the lessons of EFL in Andalusia and to improve the dictionary-using skills in the students. By pursuing this goal, students may be able to improve their English results overall in every skill, as they will be able to take full advantage of dictionaries, they will learn about all the dictionary-types and they may also get the habit of using dictionaries more regularly. This will be done by introducing the topic of technology, a topic in which new terms keep being introduced in English and that may be appealing for most of the students, as technology is something that is present in our current society. The students will get to know more vocabulary and expressions related to this field as they increase their dictionary-using skills and they use different types of dictionaries. Regarding the legal framework, both the Royal Decree 1105/2014 (BOE) and the Order

of January 15th 2021 published by the Andalusian Government (which modifies Article 6th in the Order of July 14th 2016 in the Cross Curricular Elements in Decree 111/2016) will be taken as a basis for the elaboration of the Lesson Plan for this MA dissertation. The present Lesson Plan is intended to be implemented in a context of a face-to-face methodology.

4.2. Contextualisation

In relation to the contextualisation of the lesson plan, it is aimed to be carried at the school in which I had the opportunity to do the compulsory internship of this MA programme: *C. D. P Madre del Divino Pastor*, a subsidised private school that is located in Andújar (Jaén), a town of roughly 37,000 inhabitants that is 45 kilometres away from Jaén and that is also well-connected with other capital cities in Andalusia, such as Córdoba and Granada. This school belongs to the Religious Institution of *Madre del Divino Pastor* (Mother of the Divine Shepherd), which is a Franciscan Educative Foundation founded by the nun María Ana Mogas. There are 18 schools that belong to this Religious Foundation in the whole Spain and the one in Andújar was founded in 1933, 88 years ago, being at first a private institution.

This school is attended by students who mostly belong to middle-class families, although there are students from different backgrounds. Most of them live close to the school, as it is a zone of expansion in Andújar and many houses and flats nearby this school were built recently, although some of the students come from other parts of Andújar closer to the town-centre or even from surrounding small villages. The families have to pay a quarterly fee that does not exceed €100 in order to finance some school expenses and the students must wear a uniform while being at the school. The school is subsidised in all its stages: kindergarten, Primary Education and Compulsory Secondary Education and there are two classes for every academic year whose student-ratio does not exceed 25 students. In the case of CSE, lessons begin at 8.00 and they finish at 14.30; the break being from 11.00 to 11.30. For the sake of the lesson plan, it is relevant to mention that the school is equipped with good Internet connection and that all classrooms are equipped with a projector and a computer. In addition, there is a computer room in which there are 30 computers.

The lesson plan is addressed to the pupils studying the 3rd year of CSE. The group that will be taken as a reference is formed by 13 boys and 12 girls. Overall, the proficiency level of this group is B1, although there are 6 students who may be considered as slow-learners; their level being A2. There are two gifted students whose level may be close to B2. Most of the students are motivated to learn English, which provokes an active class dynamic and they like to participate; although there are 4

students who do not participate unless obliged. All of the students come from Spain, except for 2 boys who come from Argentina and Brazil. Nevertheless, they are well-integrated with the rest of their classmates, as both of them have been living in Spain since a short age. The sessions are carried out on Mondays (13.30-14.30), Tuesdays (13:30 to 14:30), Thursdays (13:30 to 14:30) and Fridays (12:30 to 13:30).

4.3. Key Competences

The Key Competences that will be part of this lesson plan are the following:

- 1) Competence in Linguistic Communication (CAE): it is the result of the communicative action within particular social practices, in which the individual interacts with other interlocutors orally and through texts in multiple modalities and formats.

This Key Competence is present throughout the whole lesson plan because of the own nature of the English subject, which is strictly related to the linguistic communication itself. Students will have the opportunity to interact with each other and the teacher orally in the debates carried out in some sessions and in the final presentation. Furthermore, other modalities of interaction will be put into practice, mainly by reading, listening and writing tasks.

- 3) Digital Competence (DC). It involves a creative, critical and safe use of information and communication technologies, in order to achieve the objectives related to work, employability, learning, use of free time, and inclusion and participation in society.

Digital Competence is also present throughout the development of the whole lesson plan because students are expected to use technology in all the sessions, as they will have to consult different online dictionaries of English to achieve different objectives. In addition, students are supposed to work on their final project by means of a WebQuest activity. Consequently, as the importance of ICT for the realisation of this lesson plan is vital, all the sessions except for the first and the last one are to be taught at the computer room of the school.

- 4) Learning to Learn (L2L). It refers to the ability to start, organise and persist in learning. This requires the ability to feel motivated to learn, and the need to foster organization and learning management.

Students will be exposed in most of the sessions to work with different dictionary-types that will involve the use of different strategies to learn English. This way, students will learn about how to use different dictionaries while learning this foreign language by following a collaborative methodology, as most of these activities will be done in pairs or small groups of three students. Besides, the use of dictionaries can lead to a more autonomous learning process for the students and the improvement in the ability to take decisions.

- 5) Social and Civic Competences (SCC). It involves the skills and abilities necessary to use their knowledge and attitudes towards society –from different points of view, in a dynamic, changing, and complex conception–, in order to interpret social problems in diverse contexts; to build responses, take decisions and solve conflicts, as well as to interact with other people and groups according to norms based on mutual respect and democratic convictions.

This key competence will be present mainly in session 7, as the students will be introduced to the concept of nomophobia, a concept that is strictly related to the addiction to mobile phones, which is a social problem that may be extended in teenagers. Students will have to compose a written composition related to this topic.

- 7) Cultural Awareness and Expression (CAE). It involves knowing, understanding, appreciating and valuing the different cultural and artistic demonstrations —with a critical eye and with an open and respectful attitude—, using them as a source of enrichment and personal enjoyment, and considering them as part of peoples' wealth and heritage.

Students will learn in their final project about relevant figures related to lexicography that come both from English and Spanish speaking countries. Their creations were relevant for the society of their countries and they can be considered as cultural heritages.

4.4. Objectives

Objectives are to be divided into three different sections. These sections are didactic objectives, stage objectives and area (foreign language) objectives. Firstly, didactic objectives make reference to the goals that are expected to be reached with the realisation of this lesson plan. Secondly, stage objectives are linked to the general objectives intended for the CSE approved by the Government of Spain and they appear in BOE (Royal Decree 1105/2014, 3rd January 2015: 176-177). Thirdly, the so-called

area (foreign language) objectives refer to the specific objectives that are pursued in the specific area of foreign languages and they are available in BOJA (15th January 2021: 813). These objectives will be presented in the figure below:

Didactic Objectives	Stage Objectives BOE → (Royal Decree 105/2014, 3 rd January 2015: 176-177)	Area (Foreign Language) Objectives BOJA → (15 th January 2021: 813)
-To foster the use of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in the lessons. -To promote cooperative learning by working in pairs or small groups. -To make students aware about the importance of dictionaries as a tool to learn a foreign language. -To enlarge the vocabulary related to the field of technology in the students. -To make students learn the three conditionals in English -To show students about what is to be done online and what not in order to increase their online security. -To show students about the problems that addiction to technology may provoke. -To express orally in English by means of small debates and a final oral presentation.	B → To develop and consolidate discipline, study, independent and cooperative work habits as a necessary condition for the effective realization of tasks. E→ To develop basic skills in the utilization of sources of information in order to acquire new knowledge by using a critical thought. To acquire a basic preparation in the field of ICT. I→ To comprehend and to express in one or more foreign languages in an appropriate manner. L→ To appreciate the artistic creation and to understand the language in different artistic manifestation by using different means of expression and representation.	1→To listen and to understand specific information in various communicative situations. 3→ To read and to comprehend diverse texts that have an adequate level for the student with the purpose of extracting general and specific information. 5→ To compose easy texts with diverse purposes and topics. 6→ To properly use phonetic, lexical and syntactic-discursive elements of the foreign language in real contexts. 7→To develop autonomy in the learning process and discipline, work and study habits in the process of learning a foreign language. 9→ To properly use learning strategies and diverse methodologies, including ICT, in order to obtain, select and present written and oral information. 11→ To appreciate the foreign language as a tool to access information and an instrument for learning about diverse contents. 12 → To show a receptive attitude in the use of the foreign language and take part in situations that involve critical thinking.

Figure 1: Presentation of the objectives for the lesson plan.

4.5. Contents

You may find below the contents that are to be covered in the lesson plan:

1. Listening	2. Speaking and interacting	3. Reading	4. Writing and interacting
Listening to a biographical video Understanding and assessing the presentations.	Participating in class debates. Presenting a final project based on their findings in the WebQuest.	Understanding vocabulary related to technology. Reading and understanding an infographic.	Writing sentences in English with the vocabulary learnt from dictionaries. Writing a for and against essay.

Figure 2: Presentation of the contents of the lesson plan.

4.6. Transversal and interdisciplinary elements

In relation to the transversal and interdisciplinary elements present on this Lesson Plan, if the information appearing in the Article 6 of the Decree 111/2016 (the most updated version of this legal reference (BOJA, 15th January 2021), makes explicit reference to consulting Decree 111/2016 for this section) is taken into consideration, point H may be applicable for the sake of this lesson plan, as this point claims:

H) The critical utilization and the self-control on the usage of ICT and audiovisual media, the prevention of risk situations provoked by the inadequate use of technology, the contribution of technology to teaching and learning and the processes of transformation of the information into knowledge (BOJA (Decree 111/2016, 14th June 2016: 31) .

Decree 111/2016 also highlights the importance of establishing academic relationships between different disciplines and subjects that make up the educational curriculum in Andalusia. This lesson plan could be explicitly implemented in two subjects: *Lengua Castellana y Literatura* (Spanish Language and Literature) and *Segunda Lengua Extranjera* (Second Foreign Language, in the case of the school in which the lesson plan is aimed to be carried out, French).

In relation to Spanish Language and Literature, the lesson plan would have to be slightly modified at some points since some of the activities may not be applicable for a lesson involving the native language of the students. Nevertheless, the use of regular monolingual dictionaries and school or didactic dictionaries (dictionaries addressed for native speakers that are adapted for students in Primary and CSE) can be present and become as well the central part of the lesson plan.

Regarding the case of French (or whichever second foreign language that is taught at the different schools in Andalusia), the implementation and validity of this lesson plan is clear, as English is also a subject that involves the teaching of a foreign language. However, the level of French of the students according to the CEFR in the 3rd year of CSE may not be as high as in the case of English and, consequently, the use of monolingual dictionaries at this academic year may be a bit too ambitious. Therefore, the lesson plan can be adapted to this subject by using exclusively bilingual dictionaries or by addressing the lesson plan to a higher academic year in the CSE or even in the NCSE, in which the level of competence of French of the students may be B1. In this latter scenario, students would be able to use both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, as it is the case for the lesson plan created for this MA dissertation.

4.7. Timing and number of sessions involved

This lesson plan is made up of 9 different sessions of 55 minutes each. As mentioned in BOJA (15th January 2021: 695), there are 4 hours allotted to English per week in the timetable corresponding to the 3rd year of CSE in Andalusia and they will be taught at the hours specified in section 4.2. The sessions will take place during the first term of the academic year and they are supposed to be carried in October, finishing on 16th October (if possible, if there is not a session scheduled for that day, the lesson plan will be finished a day before or a day after the indicated date). This is because 16th October is considered to be the National Day of Dictionaries, as this day is the anniversary of the birth of Noah Webster (born in the year 1758), who is considered to be the Father of American Dictionaries. Apart from this fact, it is also pertinent to conduct this lesson plan during the first weeks of the academic year, as students will be able to apply the lexicographic knowledge that they acquire during these sessions for the rest of the year.

You may find below a figure related to the breakdown of all the sessions in order to favour the lecture and to make it more visual. In this figure, the name of all the activities that make up the lesson plan is shown and, furthermore, the time devoted to every activity and their typology will be specified. In case an activity is to be assessed, it will be specified as the percentage of the final grade will be next to it.

Session 1	1) Presentation of the lesson plan to the students (5'/Explanation) 2) Do you know the dictionaries that you can use? (10'/WC) 3) Realisation of a questionnaire about dictionary-use and knowledge (10'/IW) 4) What of these dictionaries is better (10'/WC) 5) The man who made dictionaries (20'/IW) → (5 % of the final grade)
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Session 2	1) Get to know <i>Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary!</i> (OALD, 2021) (10'/Explanation) 2) Expand your technological vocabulary (40'/PW) → (5 % of the final grade) 3) Answering the quiz (5'/WC)
Session 3	1) Get to know <i>Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary!</i> (COBUILD, 2021) (10'/Explanation) 2) Technology crossword (40'/PW) → (10 % of the final grade) 3) Solution of the crossword (5'/WC)
Session 4	1) Get to know <i>Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English!</i> (LDOCE, 2021) (5'/Explanation) 2) Browsing LDOCE (10'/IW) 3) Infographic: Digital DO's and Digital DONT's (25'/WC) 4) Understanding the infographic (5'/WC) 5) Explanation of the first and the second conditional (10'/Explanation)
Session 5	1) Let's practise the first and the second conditional (10'/WC) 2) Get to know <i>Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary!</i> (CALD, 2021) (5'/WC) 3) Screen-life balance (30'/IW) → (5 % of the final grade) 4) Separable and inseparable phrasal verbs (10'/Explanation)
Session 6	1) Get to know <i>Merriam Webster Learner's Dictionary</i> (MWLD, 2021) and <i>Macmillan English Dictionary!</i> (MED, 2021) (15'/Explanation) 2) Listening to the third conditional (15'/WC) 3) Explanation of the third conditional (10'/Explanation) 4) Let's practise the third conditional! (15'/IW)
Session 7	1) Nomophobia (15'/WC) 2) Living without a smartphone (40'/IW) → (25 % of the final grade).
Session 8	1) Explanation of the final project (5'/Explanation) 2) Working on the WebQuest (50/GW)
Session 9	1) Get to know lexicographers! (55/GW) → (40 % of the final grade).

Figure 3: Breakdown of the nine sessions that make the lesson plan up.

4.8. Materials

The materials that are needed for the proper realisation of this lesson plan are:

- 1) Internet connection, provided by the school in every room.
- 2) Computers available at the computer room of the school for the consultation of online dictionaries, which will be used individually, in pairs or in small groups of 3. Consequently, as there are 25 students, at least 25 computers will be needed although, on most of occasions, fewer computers will be used as students will mostly work in pairs.
- 3) Electronic devices, such smartphones, for the realisation of some activities involving the use of *Nearpod*. In the event of being impossible to attend to the computer room (which is to be booked beforehand by the teacher to avoid this circumstance), students will use their smartphones to access the online dictionaries.
- 4) A computer for the teacher and a projector, in order to show the information that is to be explained to students in the screen.
- 5) The textbook *Influence 3* (McBeth and Reilly, 2020). This textbook was chosen by the English Department at the school to serve as a basis and a guide for the students. However, its usage will be quite limited, as it will be exclusively necessary for very specific activities.
- 6) In the rare event that the Internet connection does not work at all or there is a blackout at the school, some printed dictionaries available at the school library will be used. The regular use of printed dictionaries in this lesson plan is dismissed because the number of dictionaries available is quite limited and the students would have to work in large groups. Furthermore, they are rather antiquated and, therefore, many of the items that are to be looked up may not be available in them.

4.9. Lesson Plan: step-by-step account

4.9.1. Session 1

- 1) Presentation of the lesson plan to the students (5 minutes/Explanation)

The beginning of the first session will be an explanation of the contents that will be covered in the lesson plan *Get to know English dictionaries!*, which is centred on the use of dictionary and has technology as its main topic. All the sessions, except for the current one and the last one, will take place at the computer room. Therefore, it will be explained to the students that, in most of the sessions, the lessons will be taking place at the computer room of the school (which will be booked beforehand) as it is necessary that all the students have an online dictionary at their disposal, so students will be asked to go directly to that room on their own. This is because the teacher will

switch on all the computers needed before their arrival in order to take the best advantage possible of the 55 minutes allotted for every session. Besides, students will be told about the planning of the lesson plan so they know what to expect from these sessions and what contents will be covered. This is important so the students do not get lost, as the textbook that is to be used as a basis and a guide for this academic year, *Influence 3* (McBeth and Reilly, 2020), will not be so important. However, *Unit 7* from this textbook will be followed at some points as it deals with technology, so the students will be asked to carry the book with them to the computer room.

2) Do you know the dictionaries that you can use? (10 minutes/Whole Class)

Students will be asked to watch a short video named *Monolingual vs. Bilingual dictionaries* (Alexander Language & Coaching (27th March, 2018)) that will be used as a basis for the explanation between these two dictionary-types. The video only lasts one minute and it will be projected in the screen next to the blackboard so that everyone can watch it, as they will have to read the information explained in the video. Although it is not very complete and some further input is needed to be provided by the teacher, relevant information about them is included that is good enough for a first step presented in a visual way. Apart from what is said in the video, students will be told that bilingual dictionaries can be unidirectional (English-Spanish) and bidirectional (English-Spanish and Spanish-English), making clear that the two languages are involved. Besides, they will be told that phonetic information is usually included in these dictionaries. Regarding monolingual dictionaries, students will be told that all the information is provided exclusively in one language and that students can find definitions, synonyms, examples, idioms and collocations there. All these items will be explained to them. In addition, the teacher will introduce the concept of learner's dictionaries by saying that "these dictionaries are monolingual dictionaries adapted to foreign speakers by using words that are easy to understand in the definitions" and, also, the concept of bilingualised dictionaries. There will be also a reference to the final statement in the video "however, this can be confusing for some learners and you need to know which word you want to look up in the first place" saying that the objective of these sessions is to learn about how to use dictionaries properly in order to make this confusion disappear.

3) Realisation of a questionnaire about dictionary-use and knowledge (10 minutes/Individual Work)

After explaining to the students the differences between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, pupils will be asked to fill in a questionnaire in which there are 18 questions about the English subject and the use and preference of dictionaries. The answers obtained in this questionnaire will be extremely useful for the teacher, as s/he will get a real picture of the attitude and perception that their students have towards

dictionaries as a tool to learn EFL. The questionnaire will be handed in a printed format to the 25 students in Spanish in order to make sure that the questions are easy to understand and that this part of the session is not too much time-consuming. Before handing them over to the students, the teacher has to ask the students to be completely honest when answering the question and it is also important to make it clear that what they write does not have any influence at all on their final grade in the subject, as the questionnaire is completely anonymous. You may find the questionnaire itself in *Annex 1*.

4) What of these dictionaries is better? (10 minutes/Whole class)

An oral debate will now be carried out by taking into consideration the information explained in the second activity, so that students can express themselves and talk about their preferences when it comes to using a dictionary. The oral debate is done after the questionnaire in order to ensure that pupils answer the questions based on their own criteria and that the conclusion reached after this debate does not affect the results. Students will not be forced to participate in the debate; however, the attitude and participation will be taken into good consideration for the 10 % of the assessment corresponding to *observance, positive attitude and commitment*. The following questions will be asked in the debate:

-What of these dictionaries is better? Why?

-Do you usually use bilingual dictionaries more than monolingual dictionaries?

-Do you know any monolingual dictionary in English? What about Spanish?

5) The man who made dictionaries (20 minutes/Individual Work: Listening activity) → 5 % of the final grade

Students will now watch a video available on Youtube named *The Man Who Made Dictionaries* (Oxford University Press ELT (17th August, 2020)), which talks about the life of Albert Sidney Hornby, the creator of the OALD as was mentioned in the section 3.2.1. and, also, about the dictionary that he created, which is the one that will be used in the second section. Pupils will be asked to access *Nearpod* on their phones or tablets (their use is allowed at the school for pedagogical reasons and they will be asked in the previous section to bring it to the lesson). Nearpod is an interactive tool in which students will be able to answer questions that will be prepared by the teacher. For the sake of doing this activity, students will be asked to use their real names as usernames, as this listening activity will be assessed (5 % of the final grade) by taking into consideration the statistics and the results offered by the system. As the activity is assessed, the video will be projected in the screen so everyone follows it and hear it at

the same time and in the same conditions rather than every student following it individually on his/her phone, as this may provoke that some students do not finish the video. Another reason to project it in the screen is due to the possible scenario in which not every student brings an electronic device with him or her. In the event this happens, those students who do not have an electronic device with them will be able to write the answers on a piece of paper (that contains all the questions and will be printed beforehand by the teacher) and hand it to the teacher at the end of the session for the assessment. You may find the transcription of the questions with the possible answers in Annex 2.

The duration of the video is 8 minutes and 27 seconds; therefore, this activity is allotted with 20 minutes of the session in order to ensure that students can watch the whole video and answering the questions. All the answers of the questions will be commented upon and, furthermore, the video will be paused in some fragments in which there are not questions (as the content may be a bit complex for the students) and explained. The video contains 10 questions, which are multiple choice and true/false questions. In case that the Internet connection is not working at the moment of the realisation of the activity, the teacher will have a transcription of the video prepared and s/he will read it out loud and all the students will answer the questions in a piece of paper that will be printed beforehand.

Link to access to the Nearpod: <https://share.nearpod.com/CZS51mODYgb>

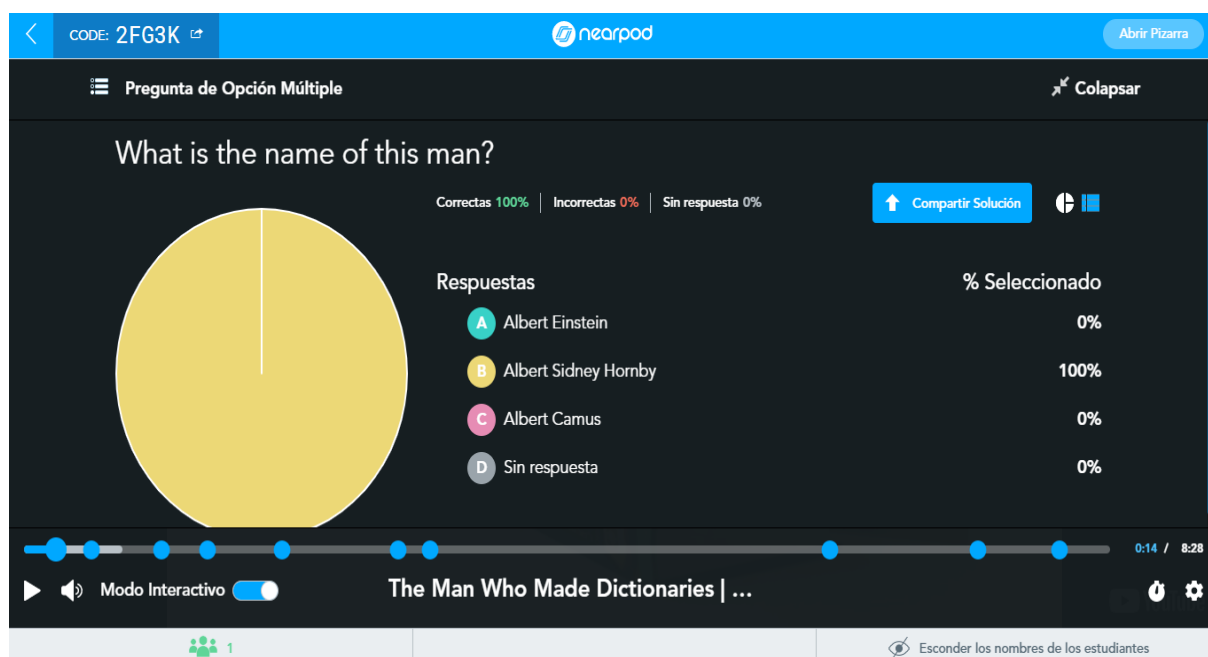


Figure 4: Example of how the answers are shown on Nearpod.

4.9.2. Session 2

- 1) Get to know *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary!* (OALD,2021) (10 minutes/Explanation)

This session will take place at the computer room of the school and students will work in pairs, as this is the first session in which students will get to use a real online dictionary and, therefore, it may be challenging. As there is an odd number of students in this group (25), a group will be made up by three students. Therefore, there will be 11 pairs and 1 group of three students. The pairs and the group of three people will be created by the teacher in order to ensure that the groups are as homogeneous as possible: the group of three people will consist of 2 slow-learners and 1 gifted student. The other gifted student will work with another slow-learner. The other four slow-learners will be assigned with other students who perform well and the remaining students who are in the average level of B1 will be divided by gender when possible.

During the first 10 minutes of the session, students will be told about the class dynamic for the session and they will be shown how to browse on this online dictionary, which is completely monolingual. This is another reason why students are not working alone, as this dictionary-type may be the most exigent one for the learners, especially if they are not used to consult a dictionary regularly. In order to illustrate how this dictionary works, the name *feather* will be used as an example, as it is a word that is likely to be unknown by the students (level B2 according to the dictionary). The information highlighted in figure 5 will be explained to the students, as this will be the information in which they will have to focus for this activity:

The screenshot shows the online entry for the word 'feather' from the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. The word is highlighted in red, and its part of speech, 'noun', is in a red box. Below the word, there are two pronunciation guides: British pronunciation /'feðə(r)/ and American pronunciation /'feðər/. To the right, there is a section titled 'Other results' which lists various matches including 'feather verb', 'feather-bed verb', 'feather boa noun', 'feather-brained adjective', 'feather duster noun', 'feather boa', 'feather-beds', and 'quill feather'. Below the pronunciation guides, there is a section titled 'Idioms' which lists several idioms. To the right of the idioms, there is a section titled 'Definition' which provides a definition of the word and lists several examples. Below the definition, there is a section titled 'Extra Examples' which lists several sentences using the word. At the bottom right, there is a section titled 'Nearby words' which lists several words related to 'feather'. The date '10 June 2021' and the logo 'moonstruck' are visible at the bottom right.

Figure 5: Screenshot of the term *feather* on online OALD (2021).

The purpose of choosing this term is also to make the students aware that, in some occasions, the terms are accompanied by a picture in order to help the comprehension of the term. The picture of *feather* as per appearing on the online OALD (2021) is shown below:

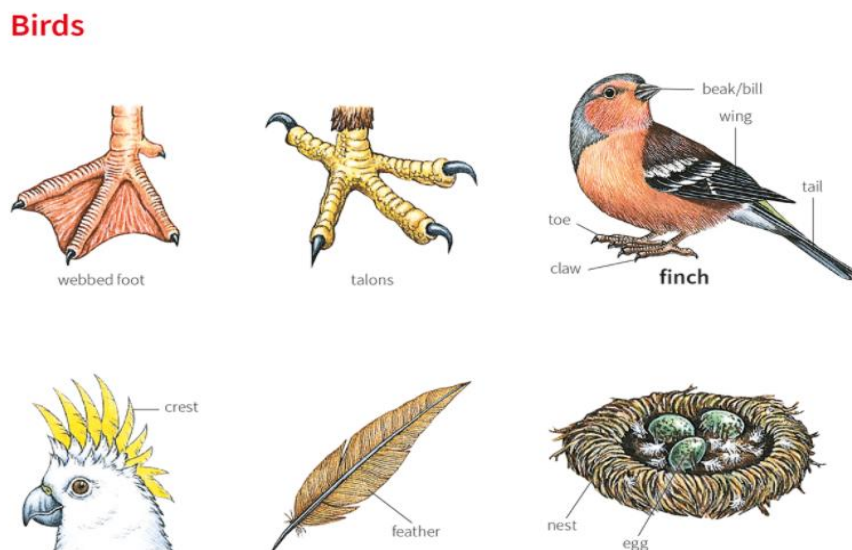


Figure 6: Screenshot of the picture appearing on the look up for *feather* on online OALD (2021)

Apart from the term *feather*, other items will be looked up in the dictionary in order to show that there are words with different meanings.

- 2) Expand your technological vocabulary (40 minutes/Pair Work) → 5 % of the final grade

After the explanation of how this dictionary works and how to browse on it, students will be asked to look up the introductory vocabulary for the field of technology in this online dictionary. In this case, the vocabulary appears in the textbook by means of a quiz, which will be discussed in the last part of the session. For now, students will be asked to look up in this dictionary the terms that are highlighted in bold and they will have to type on a Word Document (that has to be uploaded to the platform of the school) the information below, which will be assessed with 5 % of the final mark. Students will get general feedback from the teacher in the next session and, also, individualised feedback that they will find on the virtual platform. These are the items that are to be answered in this task:

- How did you look up the word? (Typing it entirely on the search bar, by checking other results...).
- Word type.
- Phonetics symbols (IPA Alphabet).
- Right definition corresponding to the word in the context of the sentence.

- An example provided by the dictionary that you consider useful.
- Translation of the word into Spanish (This part is included in order to make the students aware that they can work out the equivalent of the term into their native language by using a dictionary that does not necessarily have to be bilingual. For this part, students will not be allowed to use any kind of bilingual dictionary and/or online translator).

The teacher will play an active role in the activity, as s/he will pass by every group in order to check the progress and help them when needed. Students can make any type of questions that they consider necessary and they can ask for assistance if required. You may find below the quiz that will be the basis for this activity, with the words that have to be looked up highlighted on bold (McBeth and Reilly, 2020: 84):

- 1) How many **apps** do you have on your phone?
 - a) Fewer than 50
 - b) More than 40
- 2) How often do you **check** your phone in a day?
 - a) 10-20 times
 - b) As often as I can
- 3) How many **instant messages** do you send every day?
 - a) Only a few
 - b) Too many to count!
- 4) How often do you **update** your profile?
 - a) Never, I am too busy
 - b) All the time
- 5) Do you always **tag** your friends in photos?
 - a) Tagging? What's that?
 - b) Of course!
- 6) Have you every **posted** a comment or **uploaded** a photo and wished you hadn't?
 - a) Never
 - b) All the time!
- 7) Have you ever **deleted** a post?
 - a) Yes, I sometimes post things and then regret it
 - b) No, I always think before I post
- 8) Do you know how to **set** a safe **password**?
 - a) I don't use passwords on my devices – so boring
 - b) Yes! Mine's 16 characters long
- 9) Do you know how to change your privacy settings and **report** a problem?
 - a) No idea what that means!
 - b) Of course!
- 10) Have you **installed** antivirus **software**?
 - a) No, what's that?
 - b) Yes, and I check it regularly.

3) Answering the quiz (5 minutes/Whole Class)

The last five minutes of the session will be devoted to answer the quiz in order to verify whether students understood properly the content of the activity or not. As with every oral activity, the participation and attitude will be taken into consideration positively.

4.9.3. Session 3

1) Get to know *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary!* (COBUILD, 2021) (10 Minutes/Explanation)

This session will be fairly similar to the previous one, since students are supposed to work at the computer room by using a dictionary and in the same pairs or group of 3 that they were allotted in session 2. In this case, students will use online *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (COBUILD, 2021) a dictionary that, traditionally, has been considered to be a learner's dictionary, as in its printed version it is exclusively a dictionary of this type. Nevertheless, the online version includes, apart from the monolingual English section (adapted to foreigners), a bidirectional bilingual part (English-Spanish/Spanish-English).

As both sections of the dictionaries will be used in this session, the teacher will explain their main features by using the same term as in session 2, *feather*, so that the students know how to browse on the dictionary. Regarding the monolingual part, they will be explained that this dictionary includes a section about the frequency of the word (in a scale from 1 to 5), phonetic information, inflections, information about countable and uncountable names, definitions, examples (extracted from a corpus, which appear in an independent section) and the evolution of the word in terms of usage throughout the time (this may be useful for the students since, this way, they may get a clue about the word being old-fashioned or not). The bilingual section is roughly similar to the monolingual one, as the presentation is similar and the examples provided are the same ones. Interestingly enough, the dictionary offers the translation of the term in other languages, which may be useful for other subjects taught at the school, such as French. You may find how it is presented in a more visual way in the figures below:

← → ↻ <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/es/diccionario/ingles/feather>

Collins Diccionario inglés

• Inglés • Inglés-Francés Inglés-Español Más diccionarios

feather Pronunciación en vídeo Inglés: feather Americano: feather Ejemplos Las listas de palabras COBUILD ▶

Definición de feather

feather
Collins COBUILD

(feðər)

Formas de la palabra: plural feathers

Frecuencia de uso de la palabra

1. SUSTANTIVO CONTABLE

A bird's **feathers** are the soft covering on its body. Each **feather** consists of a lot of smooth hairs on each side of a thin stiff centre.

...a hat that she had made herself from black ostrich feathers.

...a feather bed.

Sinónimos: plume Más sinónimos de feather

2. See also feathered

3. See birds of a feather

4. See feather in one's cap

5. to feather one's nest

6. to ruffle someone's feathers

COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary. Copyright © HarperCollins Publishers

COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary. Copyright © HarperCollins Publishers

Figure 7: Screenshot of how the term *feather* is presented in the monolingual section of COBUILD (2021).

Example sentences from the Collins Corpus

▲ Estos ejemplos se han seleccionado automáticamente y pueden contener contenido sensible. [Lee más...](#)

They feel safer there when they have shed their flight feathers.

TIMES, SUNDAY TIMES (2009)

They throw the ballerinas around as if they are light as feathers.

THE SUN (2010)

My beautifully framed and glazed pink ostrich feather fan?

ALEXANDER MASTERS STUART: A LIFE BAC...

She was marvellous and her feathered hat remained unruffled as she took her seat in the audience.

THE SUN (2012)

Trees are almost entirely white with feathers.

TIMES, SUNDAY TIMES (2013)

Tamara ran her fingers through his hair and touched his white feather.

ZINDELL, DAVID THE BROKEN GOD (1993)

They grow their full feathers in the weeks after leaving the nest.

TIMES, SUNDAY TIMES (2007)

Look out for things like white feathers and birds that appear to follow you around the garden.

THE SUN (2013)

The story of our doomed feathered friend was one of the most read news items this week.

THE SUN (2013)

Figure 8: Screenshot of how the examples are presented in the monolingual part of COBUILD (2021).

Tendencias de

feather

Ver uso en: desde el principio ▾



Figure 9: Screenshot of how the evolution of *feather* in terms of usage is presented in COBUILD (2021).

Collins

feather

● Inglés-Español ● Español-Inglés Más diccionarios

feather

Pronunciación en vídeo Ejemplos Tendencias En otros idiomas

traducción al español de "feather"

feather

Frecuencia de uso de la palabra ●●●●●

[ˈfeðər]

SUSTANTIVO

pluma f

- idiom: in fine feather (*old-fashioned*) de excelente humor
- idiom: that is a feather in his cap es un tanto que se apunta
- idiom: you could have knocked me down with a feather (*informal*) me quedé de piedra
- idiom: as light as a feather (*tan*) ligero como una pluma

see also white COMPOUNDS

VERBO TRANSITIVO

1. emplumar

- idiom: to feather one's nest hacer su agosto

2. (Rowing)

[oar] volver horizontal

COMPOUNDS

[mattress, pillow] de plumas

See feather bed

See feather boa

See feather duster

Figure 10: Screenshot of the presentation of the term *feather* in the bilingual part of COBUILD (2021).

• Inglés-Español •
Español-Inglés
Más diccionarios

feather
Pronunciación en vídeo
Ejemplos
Tendencias
En otros idiomas

En otros idiomas

feather

Inglés británico: feather /ˈfɛðə/ noun
A bird's *feathers* are the light soft things covering its body.
...*black ostrich feathers*.

Inglés americano: <u>feather</u>	Italiano: <u>piuma</u>
Árabe: ريشة	Japonés: 羽
Portugués brasileño: <u>pena</u>	Coreano: 깃털
Chino: 羽毛	Noruego: fjær
Croata: pero	Polaco: pióro poduszka
Checo: pero ptačí	Portugués: <u>pena</u>
Danés: fjer	Rumano: pană
Holandés: veer pluim	Ruso: nepo
Español europeo: <u>pluma</u>	Español: <u>pluma</u>
Finlandés: höyhen	Sueco: fjäder fjun
Francés: <u>plume</u>	Tailandés: ขนนก
Alemán: <u>Feder</u>	Turco: tüy
Griego: πουπουλο	Ucraniano: nepo
	Vietnamita: lông vũ

Figure 11: Screenshot of the equivalents provided in other languages in COBUILD (2021).

2) Technology crossword (40 minutes/Pair work) → 10 % of the final mark

Students will work in pairs in order to find the word that matches the definitions of 14 terms related to technology. The crossword is to be created by the teacher for the sake of this lesson plan by using the didactic website *The Teacher's corner* (The Teacher's corner, 2021), a website with countless resources for teaching EFL and that offers the possibility of creating worksheets by using crosswords, word search or brain teasers, just to mention a few options. For this activity, students have to read the 14 definitions (extracted from OALD, 2021)) and they have to fill in the crossword with the help of COBUILD (2021) by means of using a Word File, which will be available on the virtual platform of the school both with the crossword and the instructions. The terms that make up the crossword are all related to technology and they can be either simple words, compound words and acronyms or abbreviations. Please find below the instructions that the students have to follow to do this activity:

- 1) Read the definitions carefully and underline the words that you do not know in the definitions.

- 2) If you have underlined at least one word, please look it up in the bilingual section of COBUILD. Provide the translation that you consider the most accurate.
- 3) Before you try to place the word in the crossword, suggest the first word that comes to your mind after reading the definition. This word can be in Spanish or English, it does not matter. If the word is in Spanish, look it up in the bilingual dictionary and then check the translation that you choose in the monolingual dictionary to check if the meaning of the word is similar to the one of the crossword. If the word you suggest is in English, you can look it up directly in the monolingual section. If the meaning is similar, type it on the crossword.
- 4) Write a sentence with all the words that you placed on the crossword. You can check the examples in the dictionary, but you have to use your own words.
- 5) Upload the Word File that you worked on to the virtual platform or send it to the teacher via email.

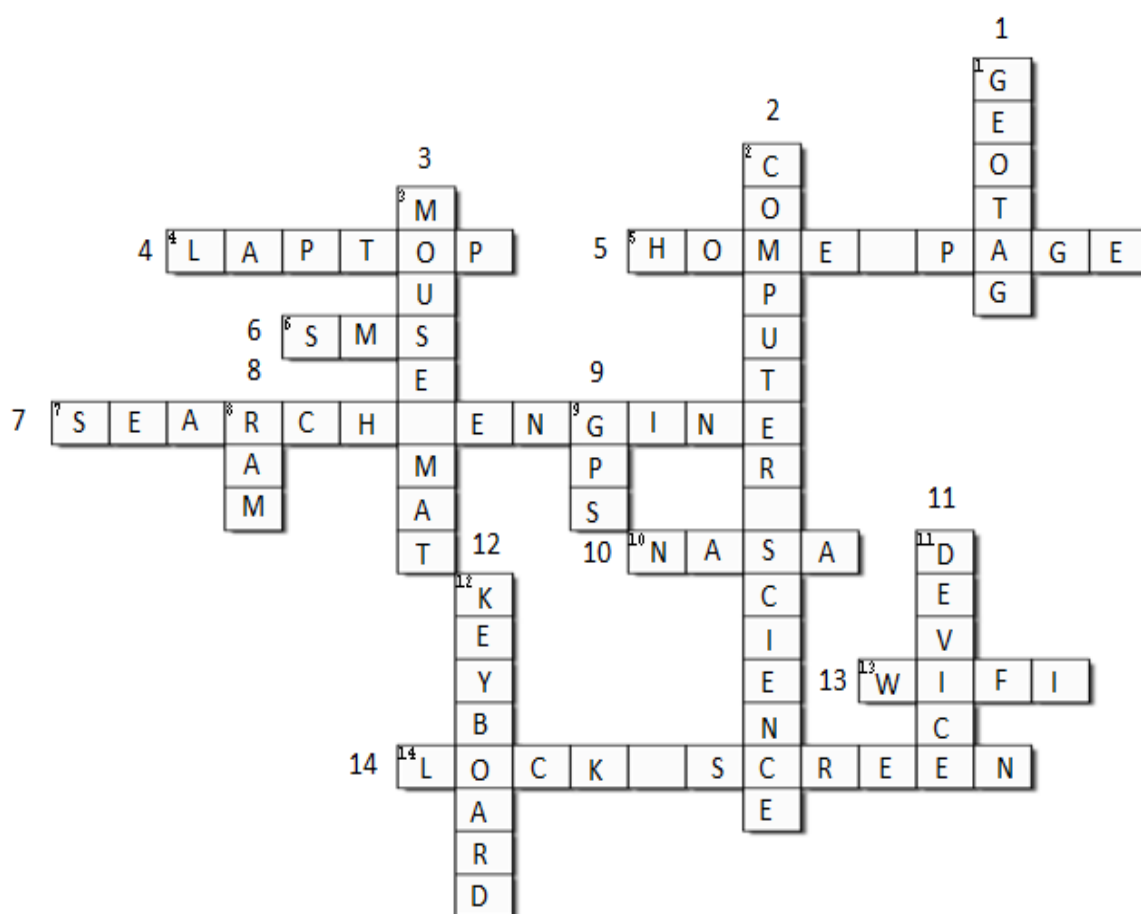


Figure 12: Crossword created by using the website *The Teacher's Corner* with the solutions.

Horizontal

4. A small computer that can work with a battery and be easily carried (OALD, 2021).
5. A page on the Internet that you choose to appear first on your screen whenever you make a connection to the Internet (OALD, 2021).
6. A system for sending short written messages from one mobile phone to another (the abbreviation for 'Short Message Service' (OALD, 2021).
7. A computer program that searches the Internet for information, especially by looking for documents containing a particular word or group of words (OALD, 2021).
10. A US government organization that does research into space and organizes space travel (the abbreviation for 'National Aeronautics and Space Administration' (OALD, 2021).
13. A system for connecting to the Internet or sending data over computer networks using radio waves instead of wires (OALD, 2021).
14. To use a code or password to prevent data on a phone or computer from being changed or looked at by somebody without permission (OALD, 2021).

Vertical

1. To add an electronic tag (= a symbol, set of letters, etc.) to a photograph, video or other information on the internet to show the exact place that it comes from (OALD, 2021).
2. The study of computers and how they can be used (OALD, 2021).
3. A small square of material that is the best kind of surface on which to use a computer mouse (OALD, 2021).
8. Computer memory in which data can be changed or removed and be looked at in any order (the abbreviation for 'Random-Access Memory) (OALD, 2021).
9. A system by which signals are sent from satellites to a special device, used to show the position of a person or thing on the surface of the earth very accurately (the abbreviation for 'Global Positioning System) (OALD, 2021).
11. An object or piece of equipment that has been designed to do a particular job (OALD, 2021).
12. The set of keys for operating a computer or typewriter, or the set of letters that you can touch to write on a smartphone or tablet (OALD, 2021).

3) Solution of the crossword (5 minutes/Whole Class)

To finish this session, students as a group will be asked to say out loud the terms (with the Spanish translation too) that match the definitions from 1 to 14 in order to correct the exercise and to make sure that all the students get all the answers in case some groups could not finish the task on time. Please note that, in the event some groups finish and submit the task in less than 40 minutes, they will be provided with an extra activity to do (which will be considered as a positive mark for those students who do it). Those groups who do this extra activity will have to pay attention to the evolution of the usage of the terms, as per figure 9 and they will have to decide whether these terms were used more in the past or, on the contrary, they started to be used recently.

4.9.4. Session 4

- 1) Get to know *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English!* (LDOCE, 2021) (5 minutes/Explanation)

This session will also take place the computer room of the school; nevertheless, students will work individually rather than by following the methodology of sessions 2 and 3, as some grammatical content will be explained in this session. As in the previous sessions, the lesson will start by showing the students how a dictionary looks like, in this case *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE, 2021). The structure of this dictionary is fairly similar to COBUILD (2021) because LDOCE (2021) also contains in its online version both a monolingual and a bilingual section, even though this dictionary was exclusively a learner's dictionary in its printed version. As in previous sections, the term *feather* will be taken as a reference and the teacher will look it up on his/her computer to project the results in the screen, so that students know how to browse on this dictionary and how it looks like compared to the other dictionaries that have been used up to this point.

The monolingual part of this dictionary makes reference to *birds* as a related topic to the word *feather*, the only one that establishes a relationship between these two concepts from the three dictionaries that were used up to this point in the lesson plan (although OALD established this relationship as well in the picture). Students will be also asked to pay attention to the small number next to the word *feather*, meaning that these two terms belong to a different word class. The rest of the structure of this dictionary is fairly similar to those used in the previous sections, as the phonetics is also present by means of IPA (and a recording of the pronunciation is also available), frequency, definition and a series of examples that were selected from a linguistic corpus. Regarding the bilingual section, which is bidirectional, it is quite limited in

comparison to the monolingual one, since only the phonetics, the equivalents and the photo are present. You may find below screenshots of how the term *feather* is presented on LDOCE (2021) both in the monolingual and bilingual sections:

https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/feather

feather

From Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

Related topics: **Birds**

feather¹ /ˈfeðə s -ər/ ••• noun [countable]  

1 one of the light soft things that cover a bird's body
 an ostrich feather
 feather bed/pillow etc (=a bed etc that is filled with feathers)

2 → a feather in your cap

→ light as a feather²(4), → birds of a feather, → ruffle somebody's feathers³(2)

Examples from the Corpus

feather

- The baby slept in the bottom drawer of the dresser; the kitten had a feather cushion.
- This is a hook which has material and feathers tied on to it.
- Today, the cheapest chicken feed consists of fishmeal, chicken feathers and chicken innards.
- an eagle feather
- This makes the wings very soft to the touch and probably cuts down noise from feathers moving against one another during flight.
- A little feather here or some kind of detail livens the moment.
- Those cells which can form pigment migrate beneath the skin and enter all the feather germs.
- In the latter method, the feathers are removed after a hot-water bath.
- Their voices were feathers, falling leaves, water seeping into its table.

feather bed/pillow etc

- Without Rice to fall back on like a feather bed of dreams, the 49ers made the transition from specificity to diversity.
- It's far better to ruin a feather pillow than let yourself overflow in violent behaviour.

Related topics: **Other sports**

feather² /ˈfeðə/ verb [transitive]  

1 → feather your nest

2 to put feathers on an arrow

Figure 13: Screenshot of how the term *feather* appears on LDOCE (2021) in the monolingual section.

LONGMAN English - Spanish English - Spanish

AD DA 

feather

feather¹ /ˈfeðə/ sustantivo [countable] 

pluma (de ave)

EXPRESIONES

→ a feather in your cap
 → birds of a feather
 → light as air/as light as a feather
 → ruffle somebody's feathers

feather²  verbo

EXPRESIONES

→ feather your own nest



 Quizzes

More results

tar and feather
 feather your own nest
 a feather in your cap
 birds of a feather (flock together)

DIA galletas mini cookies caja 160 gr 1,25 € 

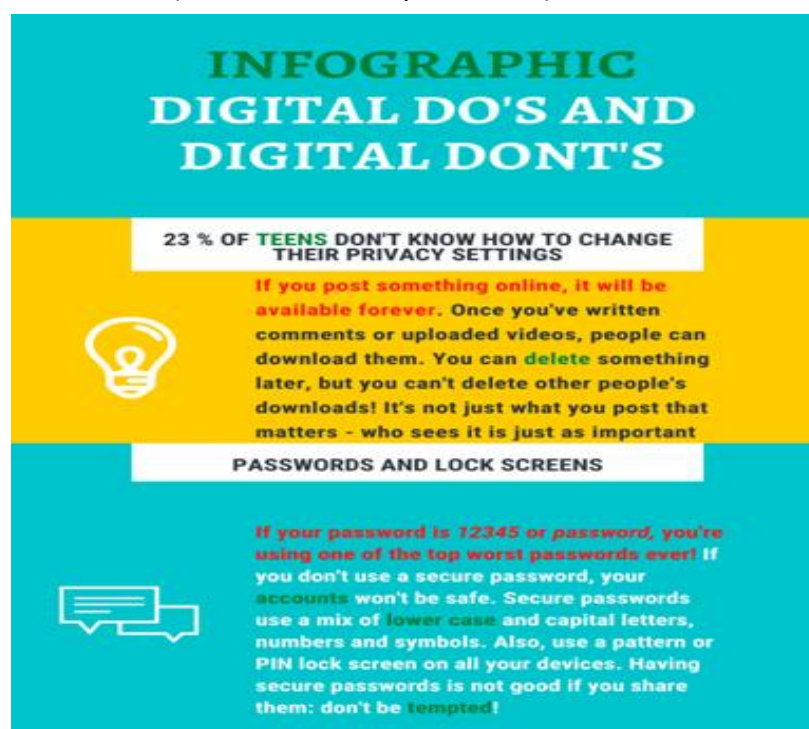
Figure 14: Screenshot of how the term *feather* is presented on LDOCE (2021) in the bilingual section.

2) Browsing LDOCE (2021) (10 minutes/Individual Work)

In this part of the session, students will have to read an infographic with information about what to do and what not to do with technology. Before reading it, students will be asked to look up in this online dictionary the terms highlighted in green in the infographic (see Figure 15). These terms are *infographic*, *teens*, *accounts*, *lower case*, *tempted*, *potentially*, *astonishing* and *upset*. Students will be asked look up these 8 terms in both sections of the dictionary in the 5 first minutes and, then, the teacher will ask for volunteers (who will be taken into good consideration for the positive attitude section in the mark criteria) to say the meanings of these words and their translations into Spanish to make sure that everyone understands these terms.

3) Infographic: Digital DOs and Digital DONT's (25 minutes/Whole Class) (Reading activity)

The next part of this session will be devoted to reading an infographic. Before reading it, the teacher will ask students to pay attention to the sentences highlighted in red, as they include the grammatical content that will be explained at the end of the session (the first and the second conditionals). After that, the teacher will ask for volunteers to read some fragments of the text and some parts (especially, the one dealing with online bullying) will be commented upon in order to create a short debate. Furthermore, the most problematic constructions will be clarified and, in case some students have questions about the meaning or the translation of a term, the teacher will look it up in LDOCE (2021) by using his//her computer to show the results in the screen. You may find below the text, which is an adaptation from the original text appearing in the textbook (McBeth and Reilly, 2020: 87):



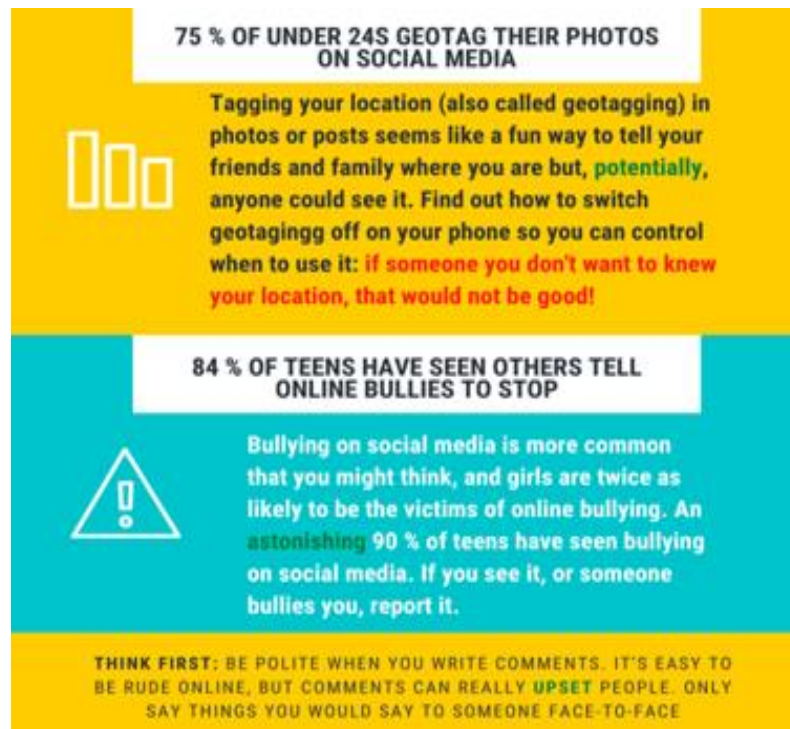


Figure 15: Infographic: Digital DOs and Digital DON'Ts (shown in halves due to space reasons).

4) Understanding the infographic (5 minutes/Whole Class)

After reading the text, some reading comprehension questions will be asked to the students in order to verify if the students understood the text correctly or not. If a question is problematic, it will be clarified. The questions and the options are extracted from the activity 5 of the textbook and the right answers are highlighted in bold (McBeth and Reilly, 2020: 86):

- 1) After you have posted a video:
 - a) You can delete all copies of it.
 - b) You can make sure only friends can see it.
 - c) It is impossible to delete it everywhere**
- 2) What does the writer say about geotagging?
 - a) It means your family always knows where you are.
 - b) You should know how to switch it off.**
 - c) Only your friends will see the places you often go.
- 3) The writer advises people to:
 - a) Only talk to friends face-to-face.
 - b) Not to be rude when writing comments.**
 - c) Only share personal information with friends.
- 4) Which is false about passwords?
 - a) You should share them with your friends.**
 - b) An example of secure password would be Mp55*H&m3.
 - c) 12345 or password are not good passwords.

- 5) Online bullying
 - a) **Is something you should definitely report.**
 - b) Is less common than it used to be.
 - c) Doesn't happen as often as people think it does.

5) Explanation of the first and second conditionals (10 minutes/Explanation)

This final section of the lesson will be devoted to explaining both the first and the second conditionals to students. Examples taken from the infographic about these conditionals will be taken as a reference to explain the structure of this grammatical item. These examples will be turned into negative and interrogative as well in order to show how the negative and the interrogative constructions are formed. To finish, the students will be told that *if* is not the only connector that can be used to construct the conditionals, as *unless* can be also used. Consequently, they will be told how the construction with *unless* is established.

4.9.5. Session 5

1) Let's practise the first and second conditional (10 minutes/Whole Class)

The first minutes of this session will be allotted to practise the grammatical point covered in the previous session. Again, this session will take place at the computer room, as the use of an online dictionary will be needed for the rest of the session. In this activity, students will be shown six situations in the screen (therefore, the teacher will need to use his/her computer to project them) that are to be transformed into the first or the second conditional. This task is meant to be done orally and answered spontaneously by students. If there is a doubt about vocabulary in the sentences, the teacher will look it up in LDOCE (2021) to project the information in the screen. The following situations are to be presented and transformed into conditionals:

- 1) The weather forecast announced rain tomorrow for the whole day:
If I _____ (leave) home tomorrow, I _____ (need) an umbrella.
- 2) FIFA World Cup will be played next year in Qatar:
If I _____ (have) enough money, I _____ (go) to Qatar to see Spain's matches at the stadium.
- 3) Next week it is the final test of Maths:
I _____ (celebrate) with my friends if I _____ (pass) the test.
- 4) My brother is very busy preparing his final test of Biology:

I _____ (spend) more time with my brother if he _____ (not study) so much for his test.

5) FIFA World Cup is played every four years:

If FIFA World Cup _____ (played) every year, it _____ (not be) so interesting.

6) Barcelona are playing against Manchester United next Tuesday, but Messi may not play because he is injured:

If Messi _____ (play) the game, Barcelona _____ (win) the game.

2) Get to know *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*! (CALD, 2021) (5 minutes/Explanation)

After working on the conditionals, students will be taught in the next part of the session how to use *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD, 2021) and they will work with it as in previous sessions with other dictionaries. In this case, the dictionary that will be used has a monolingual and a bidirectional bilingual section, although the bilingual part provides the definition of the term as well. Therefore, the bilingual section can be considered to be a bilingualised dictionary. Traditionally, this dictionary was exclusively a learner's dictionary; hence, the microstructure in the online version is also adapted to foreigners. It is relevant to mention that this dictionary provides two definitions for the terms, one in British English and one in the American linguistic variety. For the sake of introducing this dictionary to the students, the teacher will look up term *feather* in both sections, as the students are already familiarised with this term and, therefore, a comparison with the other dictionaries will be easier to understand. You may find below screenshots taken from the dictionary:

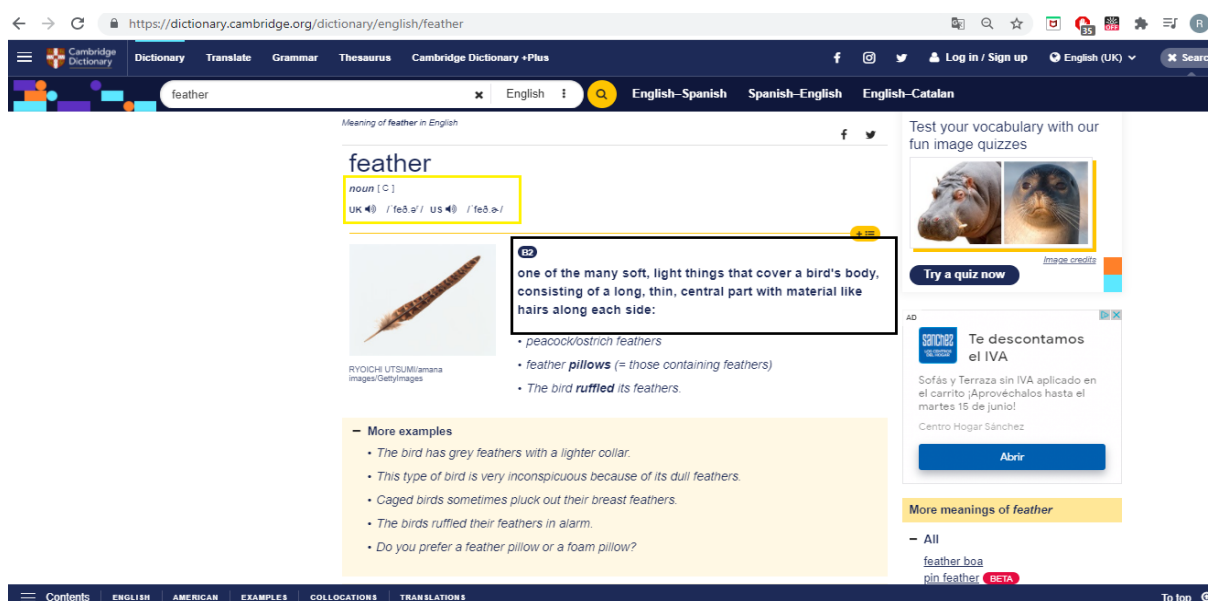


Figure 16: Screenshot of the definition provided of *feather* in the British section (CALD, 2021).

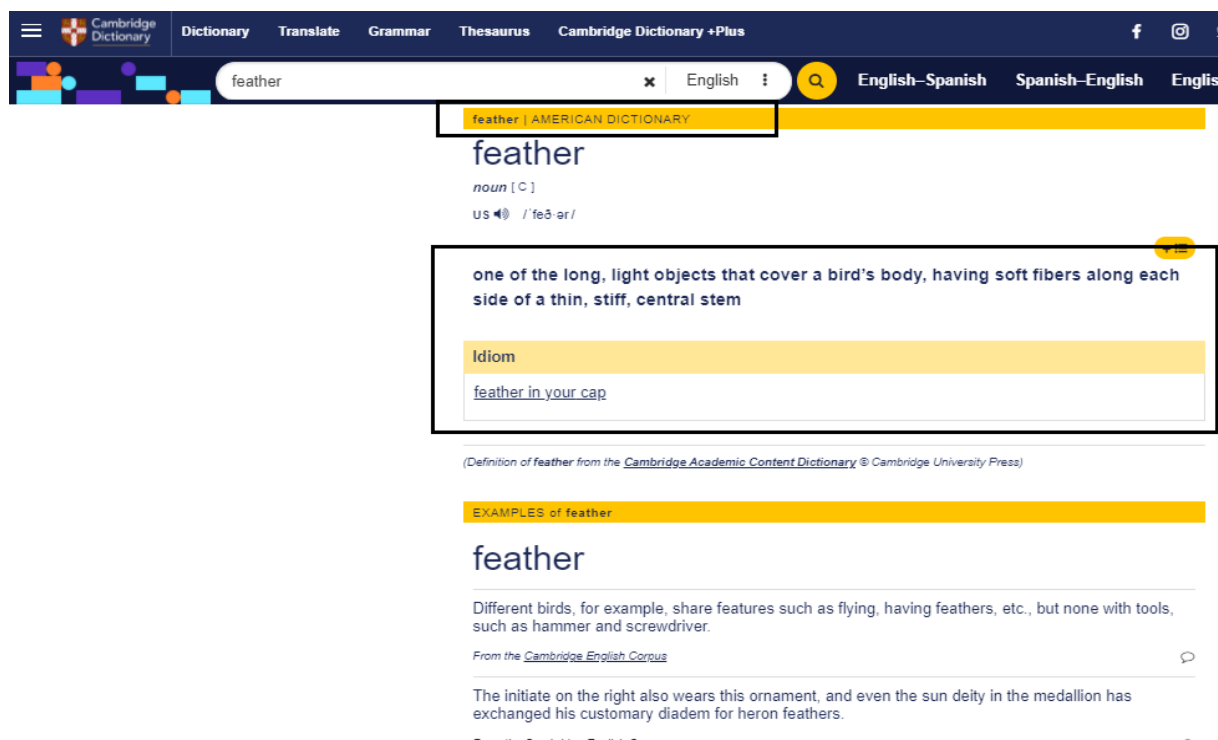


Figure 17: Screenshot of the definition of *feather* in the American variety (CALD, 2021).

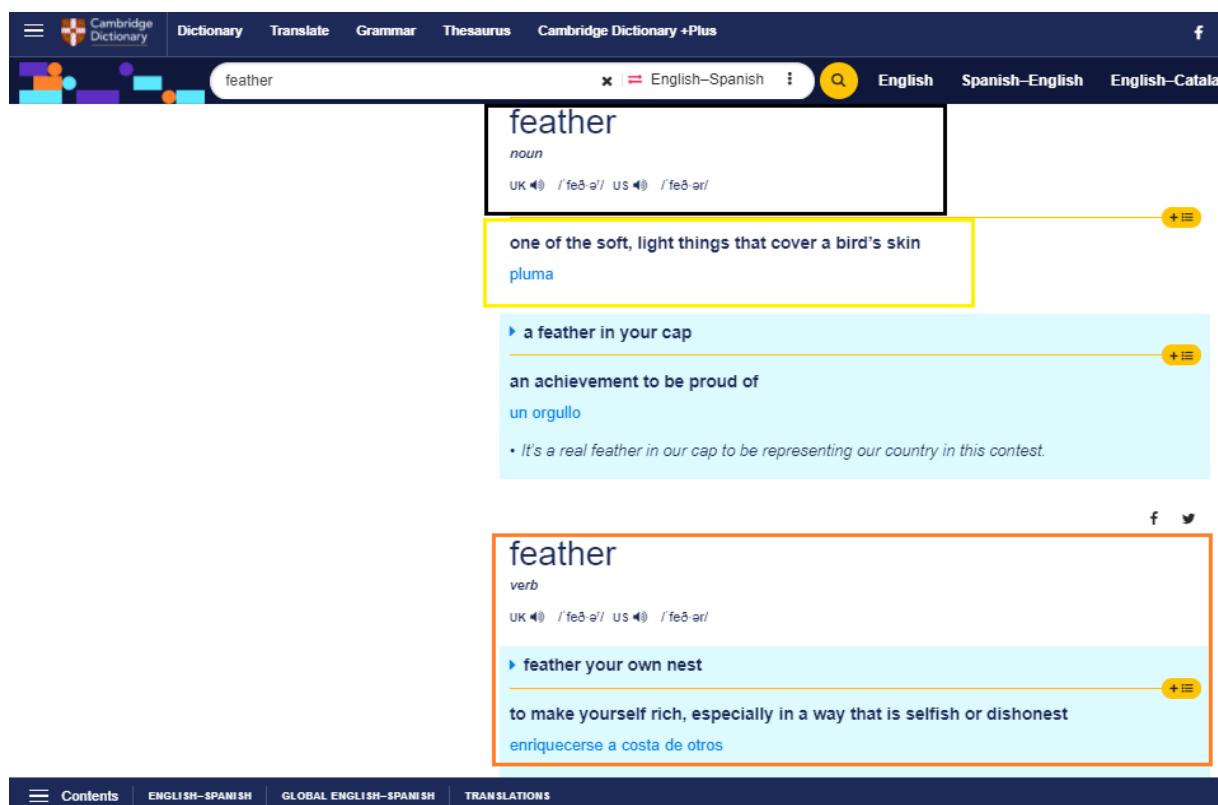


Figure 18. Screenshot of how the bilingualised section of CALD (2021) looks like and the parts that will be explained to the students.

3) Screen-life balance (30 minutes/Pair work) → 5 % of the final grade

This part of the session will be used to put into practice CALD (2021), as students will have to look up phrasal verbs and regular verbs in this dictionary. Since some of the verbs that have to be looked up are phrasal verbs, students will be told that, sometimes, typing the whole phrasal verb on the search bar will not display any result. Consequently, they will be told that if this happens, they will have to type the verb without the preposition in order to retrieve the meaning of the phrasal verbs. As in all the sessions, the teacher will play an active role and will pass by all the groups to help them and students will be assisted when needed.

For the realisation of this activity, students will have to work in pairs and a group of three people (the same as in the previous sections). They will have to use both sections of the dictionary, so half of the phrasal verbs will be looked up in the monolingual section and the other half in the bilingualised one. The texts used as a reference for this activity are included in *Influence 3* (Mcbeth and Reilly, 2020: 89) and the verbs that the students have to look up are highlighted in bold:

If I want to **chill out**, **staring** at a screen doesn't help. I go outside to relax. I try to get plenty of exercise. It's a good idea to **take up** a sport like volleyball or an activity like dance. When you **work out**, you **improve** your energy levels. It's fun too (Lucy, 15).

Chatting online is fun, but it's good to **log off** after a while. It's important to **meet up** with friends in real life too! When you **hang out** with friends, don't **spend** all the time checking your phone. **Switch it off!** (Sarita, 17).

When I go on holiday, I like to **get away** from all screens. I **sign out** of all social media sites until I go home! And when I'm working, I **print out** documents to read. I **give my eyes a rest** from the screen. I use recycled paper! (Mateo, 16).

The first six verbs are to be looked up in the monolingual section and they will have to try to work out the equivalent in Spanish without consulting the bilingualised part. The rest of the verbs have to be looked up in the bilingualised section, where both a definition and an equivalent in Spanish are provided. Students will have to

submit their answers on a Word document on the virtual platform or the school or send them via email to the teacher's email address. The questions that the students have to answer are the following:

- 1) Read the texts carefully. If there is a word that is not in bold you do not understand, please underline it and look it up in the bilingual section of the dictionary. Write down its meaning and its equivalent in Spanish.
 - 2) Now focus on the first six verbs highlighted in bold (from *chill out* to *log off*). Look these verbs up in the monolingual section of the dictionary and write down their definition, pronunciation and an example. Please check the 'American Dictionary' too and copy the definition. Once you do it, provide an equivalent in Spanish without checking the bilingual section. The context of the sentence may help you to better understand the meaning.
 - 3) Look up the rest of the verbs in the bilingual section of the dictionary. Write down both the definition and the translation into Spanish.
 - 4) Write a sentence with all these verbs using your own words.
 - 5) Upload your answers on the virtual platform or send them to your teacher via email.
- 4) Separable and inseparable phrasal verbs (10 minutes/Explanation)

The last ten minutes of this session will be devoted to explaining the students the notion of separable and inseparable phrasal verbs; the inseparable verbs being those in which the noun must come after the preposition and the separable ones those in which the name can come before or after the preposition. The phrasal verbs that were looked up in the dictionary will be taken as a reference for the explanation. Furthermore, in these final ten minutes, the meanings and the translations of the verbs will be clarified if needed.

4.9.6 Session 6

- 1) Get to know *Merriam Webster Learner's Dictionary* (MWLD, 2021) and *Macmillan English Dictionary* (MED, 2021) (15 minutes/Explanation).

The first 15 minutes of the session will be used to show to the students the last two dictionaries of the so-called Big Six. It will be conducted this way as these are two completely monolingual online dictionaries (they do not include a bilingual part) and this will be the last session that will involve the presentation of a dictionary to the

students. As always, the term *feather* will be used as a reference for the sake of presenting how the dictionary looks like in this MA dissertation and highlight the points in which students have to focus. You may find the screenshots below:



Figure 19: Screenshot of how the term *feather* is shown in MWLD (2021) and the parts that will be explained to the students.

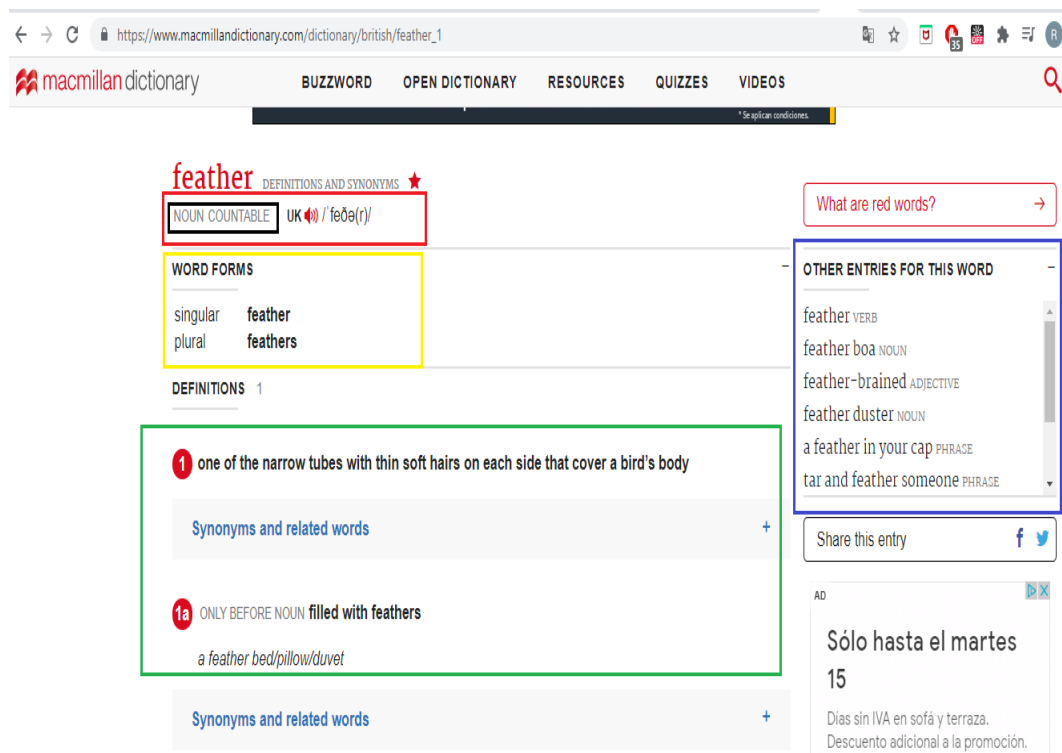


Figure 20: Screenshot of how the term *feather* looks like in MED (2021) and the parts that will be explained to the students.

2) Listening to the third conditional (15 minutes/Whole Class)

After being presented these two dictionaries, students will now listen to a song (The Outside, by Taylor Swift). This song is selected for this specific moment as there is an example of the third conditional in the lyrics (see Annex 3), the grammatical item that is to be covered in this section. The song will be played firstly while the lyrics are shown in the screen (link to the video in: Jessica Clarke, 24th August 2016) and students will be asked to write down those terms that they do not know. Once the song is over, students will say those words in the song that they do not know (if any) and the teacher will look up the word both in MWLD (2021) and MED (2021) to show and explain the definition to students. Then, the teacher will ask students which of those dictionaries had an easier definition to understand. After all the terms are looked up (if there are many of them, they will be looked up only in MWLD so that this activity does not consume more than 10 minutes of the session), the song will be played again and stopped in 01:23, when the conditional construction is used (*You could have helped if you had wanted to*). Students will be told that this construction refers to the third conditional and this sentence will be used as a basis to explain this grammatical item. Besides, the term *feather* will be looked up again in MWLD (2021), since there is another occurrence of the third conditional in the example section, as can be observed in Figure 19 (highlighted in the pink square).

3) Explanation of the third conditional (10 minutes/Whole Class)

After being introduced to the third conditional by means of the song and the example in MWLD (2021), students will be explained for the next ten minutes of the session about the structure and usage of the third conditional. To explain the structure of this grammatical phenomenon, it will be compared to the first and second conditional. That is to say, students will be told that for the first conditional the structure is *If+ Subject+ Present Simple+ Subject+ Will/Can* and that the change from the first to the second is that the present simple tense changes to a tense in the past (past simple) and that the modal will changes to its past form: would (could in the case of can). Therefore, the third conditional will also suffer these modifications in the tenses: past simple is changed to past perfect and would to would have (could have in the case of can). Apart from this comparison between the different conditionals, students will be told that the third conditional is used to talk about actions in the past that are no longer possible now, as the speaker imagine how things could have been in the past. Thus, this grammatical phenomenon usually expresses regrets, complains and dreams.

4) Let's practice the third conditional! (15 minutes/Individual Work)

Students will now practice the third conditional, in a similar way in which the first conditional was put into practice: they will be given a situation and they have to create a sentence in the third conditional by taking into account the given situation. The sentences will be projected in the screen and students will work individually. They can consult online the dictionaries that were introduced at the beginning in the session both for clarification in the meaning and, more importantly, to identify the participle form of the verb in case that they do not know about it. The situations in which the students have to work are the following:

- 1) Mary lost her phone and she could not call her mother.
If Mary _____ (not lose) her phone, she _____ (call) her mother.
- 2) John woke up late and he missed the train.
If John _____ (not wake up) late, he _____ (not miss) the train.
- 3) Charles did not sweep the floor and his mother complained.
If Charles _____ (sweep) the floor, his mother _____ (complain).
- 4) Messi could not play the match against Real Madrid and Barcelona were defeated.
If Messi _____ (play) the match against Real Madrid, Barcelona _____ (win) the game.
- 5) Kevin's computer broke and he could not study for his exam. His friends printed out the documents and they passed the test.
If Kevin _____ (printed out) the documents, Kevin _____ (pass) the test.
- 6) The phone switched off and the alarm clock did not go off.
If the phone _____ (not switch off), the alarm clock _____ (go off).

The teacher will be helping those slow learners in the class and the other students if they ask for help. In case there are fast-finishers, these students will be given six extra sentences in which they have to decide whether the sentence belongs to the first, second or third conditional. You may find below the sentences for the fast-finishers:

- 1) If I were rich, I would buy a yacht.
- 2) The plants would not have dried if you had watered them.

- 3) Ben would be fit if he trained every day.
- 4) You will not be on time unless you hurry up!
- 5) If Spain win the FIFA World Cup, I will dye my hair blue.
- 6) If you had given me the letter this morning, Arthur would have known that you were not coming!

4.9.7. Session 7

1) Nomophobia (15 minutes/Whole Class)

This session will be used for the written production, which will be assessed with 25 % of the final grade for this lesson plan. However, before doing the writing, 15 minutes of the session will be used to give students a background and ideas for their writing task. The teacher will write in the blackboard the term *nomophobia* and will ask if any of the students know what this word mean. If none of them knows, the teacher will look it up in MED (2021), as it is the dictionary that provides the most complete information about the term, which is only available in this dictionary, COBUILD (2021) and CALD (2021) from the six dictionaries that were used in the previous sessions. This is because the definition is concise and easy to understand; besides, it also provides a brief explanation of the origin of the term that may be useful to introduce the concept before watching a video about nomophobia. You may find below the screenshot with the information available in MED (2021) about this term:

The screenshot shows the Macmillan Dictionary website. At the top, there is a navigation bar with the Macmillan logo and links for BUZZWORD, OPEN DICTIONARY, RESOURCES, QUIZZES, and VIDEOS. The main content area is for the word 'nomophobia'. It includes the word in a large font, followed by 'DEFINITIONS AND SYNONYMS'. Below this, it says 'NOUN UNCOUNTABLE' and provides the UK pronunciation: /ˌnəʊməˈfəʊbiə/. There is a section for 'DEFINITIONS' with one definition: 'the fear of not having or not being able to use a mobile phone'. Below the definition is a section for 'Synonyms and related words' with a plus sign to expand it. At the bottom, there is a section titled 'FEATURED AS A BUZZWORD!' which contains a paragraph explaining the origin of the word: 'The term **nomophobia** first appeared in 2008 in the context of a study commissioned by UK market research organisation YouGov, which set out to examine the anxieties suffered by a sample of over 2000 British mobile phone users. Immediately seized upon by the media, the word is a catchy contraction of the expression **no mobile (phone) phobia**, and although mobiles are routinely referred to as *cell phones* in American English, evidence suggests that nomophobia has caught on as a description of the condition in the US and other countries too. Following the model of many other *phobias*, there's an adjectival derivative **nomophobic**, which can also be used as a countable noun to describe sufferers, alternatively known as **nomophobes**.'

Figure 21: Screenshot of the term *nomophobia* as per MED (2021).

After showing the information available in Figure 21 to the students, the teacher will play a video named *What is nomophobia?* (Crafty Knowledge, 5th of February 2020) in his/her computer that deals with a deeper explanation about what nomophobia is. The video talks about other forms of addiction that may be more prototypical for the students and the problems that the addiction to the phone may provoke on people. Besides, it also provides percentages and facts about this problem, which may make students realise and reflect upon the problems that the addiction to the phone brings. The video will be stopped when some of these problems, facts and percentages are shown in order to set a short oral debate. The points in which the video will be stopped make reference to the following features:

- The average smartphone user checks their device 65 times a day (0:51).
- 35 % of people check their phone within 5 minutes of waking up (1:03).
- Problems: stress (1:38), anxiety (1:44), sleep deprivation (1:55), depression (2:07) and narcissism (2:14).
- 2 hours 51 minutes: the average time spent on smartphones daily (2:26)
- 67 % of surveyed teachers observed students being negatively distracted by mobile phones.

2) Living without a smartphone (40 minutes/Individual Work) → 25 % of the final grade

After watching the video, students will be asked to make a written composition of no more than 100 words by taking into consideration the following statement: *living without a smartphone for a week*. Students are supposed to write a *for and against* essay of four paragraphs to express the advantages and disadvantages of not having access at all to a smartphone for a week according to them. Therefore, students will be provided with the guidelines about the structure that they have to follow, which will be made up of four paragraphs: an opening paragraph where students have to introduce the topic, two paragraphs that concern the body of the essay; where students have to present arguments supporting both advantages and disadvantages and a final paragraph where students are expected to summarise the content and state their opinion.

This written task is meant to be done on a piece of paper rather than by typing it on a computer, since the spelling will be an item that will be taken into consideration in the assessment and the use of a word processor may highlight the misspelling. Nevertheless, students will be able to check an online dictionary (whichever they prefer from the six dictionaries that were used during the previous

sessions, regardless whether it is a learner's, bilingual or bilingualised dictionary) to check the spelling, the definition, the equivalent or whatever they consider necessary for the sake of writing the composition. If the student uses the dictionary, s/he must highlight the items that s/he looked up in the dictionary and write down the dictionary that s/he used and the reason why s/he needed to consult the term. Students will be told that the use of the dictionary is positive for this task, as it will help them and it will be one of the items tested in the rubric that will be used to correct this composition (see Figure 24). To finish, in the event that some student finishes the task in less than 40 minutes, s/he will be asked to play the video *What is nomophobia?* muted on his/her computer to look up in the dictionary those terms that are unknown to him/her and type the definitions or equivalents on a Word document, which will be sent to the teacher via email and considered positively in the 10 % related to *Observance, positive attitude and commitment*.

4.9.8. Session 8

1) Explanation of the final project (5 minutes/Explanation)

The first five minutes of the session will be devoted to explaining the students the final project for this lesson plan, which will be based on the elaboration of a final oral presentation by means of a WebQuest. In this WebQuest, pupils will have to work on six different relevant lexicographers, three of them being English-speakers: (John Sinclair, Noah Webster and James Murray) and three of them being Spanish-speakers: (María Moliner, Rufino José Cuervo and Elio Antonio de Nebrija). By doing this project, students will deepen their lexicographic knowledge and they will get to know about six influential figures in the field of languages. All the information that will be needed is included in the corresponding links for every lexicographer. These links will be available in English for those English-speaking lexicographers and in Spanish for the Spanish-speaking ones; so, although students will be allowed whichever dictionary that they prefer for making consultations, the use of the monolingual one will be encouraged for those groups working with information in English, whereas those working with information in Spanish will be encouraged to use a bilingual or bilingualised dictionary.

Students will work in six different groups that will be made up of four students, except for one group that will count with five components. These groups will be created by the teacher in order to ensure that all the groups are as homogeneous as possible. As there are six slow-learners, they will be allotted in six different groups and those students with the highest marks will be assigned as well six different groups. The rest of the components of the group will be chosen by their gender to make sure that

all the groups count with a similar number of boys and girls. Once the students are distributed into the groups and they are all seating next to their peers, they will be asked to choose the lexicographer they want to work about. These lexicographers will be briefly presented to the students as follows:

1) John Sinclair (1933-2007)

He was known because he is considered to be the creator of *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary*.

2) Noah Webster (1758-1843)

He is considered to be the father of American dictionaries. He created the *American Dictionary of English Language*, known also as *Merriam-Webster Learner's Dictionary*.

3) James Murray (1837-1915)

He was the editor of the *Oxford English Dictionary*, a very famous dictionary that talks about the evolution of language.

4) María Moliner (1900-1981)

She was a librarian who wrote the well-known *Diccionario de Uso del Español* in 1952 after reading the *Oxford Learner's Dictionary* written by A.S. Hornby.

5) Rufino José Cuervo (1844-1911)

This Colombian lexicographer wrote in 1872 a dictionary named *Diccionario de construcción y régimen de la Lengua Castellana*. This dictionary is considered to be very important, because he included words from all the Spanish varieties.

6) Elio Antonio de Nebrija (1441-1522)

This Andalusian lexicographer is known because he wrote in 1492 a bilingual dictionary of Spanish and Latin named *Diccionario latino-español*, a dictionary that has been used for many centuries to learn Latin.

2) Working on the WebQuest (50 minutes/Group Work)

For the sake of working more efficiently and take the most advantage possible of this session, the teacher will prepare six Word document (one per lexicographer) that will be uploaded before the session begins to the virtual platform of the school including all the links that they will have to use to retrieve the information. Apart from the links, there will be four or five questions that they will need to answer and which will be the basis of the presentation. In other words, what the student will have to say in the oral presentation will be their answers to these questions. You may find below the links for every lexicographer with the respective questions for each of them:

Group 1 → John Sinclair

<https://www.theguardian.com/news/2007/may/03/guardianobituaries.obituaries>

<https://researchers.tistory.com/entry/John-McHardy-Sinclair>

<https://uteroemer.weebly.com/in-memory-john-mch-sinclair.html>

http://www.glottopedia.org/index.php/John_Sinclair

-Where and when was he born?

-Why was he known?

-What contributions did he make?

-Was he an honorary member of any association? List them

Group 2 → Noah Webster

<https://www.notablebiographies.com/Tu-We/Webster-Noah.html>

<https://www.britannica.com/biography/Noah-Webster-American-lexicographer>

<https://noahwebsterhouse.org/noahwebsterhistory/>

<https://noahwebsterhouse.org/noah-websters-story/>

-Where and when was he born?

-Why was he known?

-Did his family and his school days have an impact on him?

-Talk about Noah as a teacher

-Talk about the characteristics of the dictionary that he created.

Group 3 → James Murray

<https://www.britannica.com/biography/James-Murray>

https://reference.jrank.org/biography/Murray_James.html

<https://public.oed.com/history/chief-editors/#james-murray>

https://www.bbc.co.uk/legacies/myths_legends/england/berkshire/article_3.shtml

-Where and when was he born?

-Why was he known?

-How many languages did learn? Were they useful for him when writing the dictionary?

-What was the system that he followed to compile his dictionary?

Group 4 → María Moliner

<https://www.lavanguardia.com/cultura/20110822/54203348641/una-biografia-revela-los-obstaculos-que-tuvo-que-superar-maria-moliner.html>

https://elpais.com/diario/1981/01/23/cultura/349052402_850215.html

<https://cvc.cervantes.es/lengua/mmoliner/biografia.htm>

https://www.ugr.es/~anamaria/mujeres-doc/biografia_maria_moliner.htm

-Where and when was she born?

-Why was she known?

-Did she have any obstacles for publishing the dictionary because she was a woman?

-What other jobs did she do during her life?

-What are the main characteristics of the dictionary that she wrote?

Group 5 → Rufino José Cuervo

<https://www.biografiasyvidas.com/biografia/c/cuervo.htm>

<https://hjck.com/reportajes/rufino-jose-cuervo-un-hombre-que-tomaba-muy-en-serio-las-palabras-y-su-uso/>

<https://www.buscabiografias.com/biografia/verDetalle/3824/Rufino%20Jose%20Cuervo>

<https://www.elspectador.com/el-magazin-cultural/si-hablamos-espanol-no-olvidemos-a-don-rufino-jose-cuervo-article/>

-Where and when was he born?

-Why was he known?

-Is there an Institute named after him? What does this institution do in the present?

-Did his family background have an impact on his life?

Grupo 6 → Antonio de Nebrija

<https://www.biografiasyvidas.com/biografia/n/nebrija.htm>

http://www.cervantesvirtual.com/portales/elio_antonio_de_nebrija/autor_biografia

http://www.xn--espaescultura-tnb.es/es/artistas_creadores/antonio_de_nebrija.html

-Where and when was he born?

-Why was he known?

-Did he make other contributions to Spanish apart from his dictionary?

-Why did he study in Italy?

4.9.9. Session 9

- 1) Get to know lexicographers! Oral presentations (55 minutes/Whole class) → 40 % of the final grade.

The presentations will take place at the regular classroom of this group, as there is no need to move to the computer room, as only the teacher's computer will be needed in order to project the presentations of the students in the screen and this room is bigger. Since there are 6 groups in total, students will be given 7 minutes for their presentations and all the components must speak equally. Some extra time may be used for questions. These presentations will be assessed both by the teacher (50 %) and the students (50 %) by means of rubrics. Peer-assessment methodology will be put into practice to ensure that all the students are focused during the whole session and, also, for them to express their opinions about the rest of presentations. Due to the fact that the peer-assessment is 20 % of the final grade, students will be asked to judge the interventions of their peers as objectively as possible. Once all the presentations are over and students have filled in the peer-assessment rubric, they will be asked about their opinion of these sessions in order to obtain feedback from them, which will be much appreciated. You may find the rubrics both for the assessment of the teacher and the peer-assessment in section 4.10.1. (See Figure 25 for the rubric to be used by the teacher. The rubric for the peer-assessment is right under Figure 25).

4.10. Evaluation

4.10.1. Marking criteria

The man who made dictionaries	5 % of the final grade. Session 1.	Listening comprehension.
Expand your technological vocabulary	5 % of the final grade. Session 2.	Reading comprehension.
Technology crossword	10 % of the final grade. Session 3.	Reading comprehension.
Screen-life balance	5 % of the final grade. Session 5.	Reading comprehension.
Living without a smartphone	25 % of the final grade. Session 7.	Writing production.
Get to know lexicographers!	40 % of the final grade. (20 % teacher and 20 % peer-assessment). Session 9.	Oral production.
Observance, positive attitude and commitment	10 % of the final grade. All the sessions.	N/A

Figure 22: representation in a table of the marking criteria.



Figure 23: visual representation of the evaluation tools

Category	Elements	Points
COHERENCE	- Organisation of the text into paragraphs.	0.75 points
	- Correct use of connectors and punctuation.	0.75 points
	- Adequacy to the statement, text type required and numbers of words (80-100 words in 3 rd CSE).	1 point
	- Ability to synthesise the information and argue the point.	1 point
	- The comprehension of the text is clear.	1 point
USE OF THE LANGUAGE	- Orthographic correction.	0.5 points
	- Use of appropriate vocabulary to the level and topic asked	2 points
	- Adequacy of the use of grammatical structures to the appropriate level and topics	0.5 point
	-Grammatical correction (order, concordance, correct use of grammatical constructions, etc.).	2.5 points

Figure 24: Rubric for the writing task *Living without a smartphone*

	EXCELLENT	GREAT	SATISFACTORY	POOR	NEEDS TO IMPROVE
Pronunciation	No significant errors in the pronunciation	Good pronunciation, but with some recurrent errors	Words can be understood, but with some difficulties	Words are mispronounced and the message is barely understood	The message is not understood at all
Fluency	Great fluency, making appropriate pauses	Communication is clear, but no pauses are made	Able to express the message with some difficulties	Needs too much time to express a message	Not able to express a message at all
Clarity	The presentation is clear and easy to understand	Most of the presentation is clear, but some parts are hard to follow	The main idea of the presentation is clear, but it is not well-explained	Just a small part of the presentation is clear; most of it does not make sense.	The presentation is not clear at all.
Content	All the questions have been answered and explained	Most of the research questions have been answered and explained	Half of the research questions have been answered and explained	Few of the research questions were answered and not well explained	The content is not related at all with the expectations of the activity
Non-verbal skills	Holds the attention of the audience	Consistent eye contact, but returns to notes with a bit of tension	Eye contact with the audience but tendency to read the notes	Minimal eye contact very few descriptive gestures and feels tension.	No eye-contact at all with the audience, no descriptive gestures. Evident tension.
Preparedness	No reading at all throughout the presentation	Well-prepared, but occasional reading on the notes	Somewhat prepared, frequent reading. A proper rehearsal is missing	No rehearsal, most of the presentation is read	The whole presentation is read and it is clearly unprepared and improvised.

Figure 25: Rubric to be used by the teacher for the oral presentation

Regarding the rubric that is to be used for the peer-assessment, students will be asked to grade the performance of the group as a whole by grading the following items in a scale from 1 to 5 (1 is the lowest and 5 the highest) for every presentation. As explained before, students will be asked to be as honest and objective as possible and to grade the presentations based exclusively in their performance (that is to say, they will be asked not to grade the presentations based on how much they like their classmates). The result of every student in this point is to be calculated by means of an arithmetic mean. Please note that the rubric is to be provided to the students in Spanish in order to make the process simpler and to ensure that everything is easily understandable, as the results obtained are part of the evaluation. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this MA dissertation it will be translated into English. You may find the rubric below:

- 1) Is the information provided by the group clear?
- 2) Did you understand the information that they talked about?
- 3) Was the presentation enjoyable?
- 4) Did you learn much about the lexicographer that they were speaking about?
- 5) Do you think that they interacted well with the audience? (They were speaking to the audience while speaking, they did not read the presentation, etc.)
- 6) Further comments: please comment anything that you would like to add. This field is not mandatory, but the information provided here will be much appreciated.

4.10.2. Evaluation criteria and Assessable Learning Standards

Evaluation Criteria BOJA (15 th January 2021: 826-832)	Assessable Learning Standards BOE (Royal Decree 1105/2014, 3 rd January 2015: 430-435)
Section 1. Comprehension of oral texts. 1.1 → To identify essential information in short and well-structured oral texts in a slow or normal speed and in a formal, informal or neutral register (CCL, CD).	Section 1. Comprehension of oral texts 1.1 → Understands the main and the most relevant aspects of an oral message.

1.2 → To know and apply the most adequate strategies for the general comprehension of the text (CCL, CA).	1.6 → Distinguishes, with visual or written help, the principal ideas in an oral presentation about topics of his/her interest or related to educational topics.
Section 2. Production of oral texts: expression and interaction. 2.2 → To know and apply proper strategies to produce oral texts using lexical elements (CCL, CAA, SIEP). 2.7 → To pronounce and intonate in a clear and understandable manner with punctual mistakes that do not interfere in the communication (CCL, CAA).	Section 2. Production of oral texts: expression and interaction. 2.1 → Makes brief and well-structured presentations previously rehearsed and with visual support (i.e: PowerPoint) about specific academic topics organising the information in a coherent manner and answering sufficiently easy questions.
Section 3. Comprehension of written texts. 3.1 → To identify the essential information and the most relevant points in brief and well-structured texts that deal with topics of his/her interest (CCL, CMTC, CD). 3.2 → To know and apply the most adequate strategies for the comprehension of the text (CCL, CAAL SIEP).	Section 3. Comprehension of written texts. 3.6 → Understands specific information on Websites and other reference materials (i.e: dictionaries) when consulting them for the sake of obtaining information about academic or leisure purposes.
Section 4. Production of written texts: expression and interaction. 4.1 → To write brief compositions with a clear structure about topics of his/her interests by utilising properly basic connectors and punctuation (CCL, CD, SIEP). 4.2 → To know and apply adequate strategies for the elaboration of brief compositions and with a clear structure (CCL, CAA, SIEP).	Section 4. Production of written texts: expression and interaction. 4.4 → Writes brief compositions in which s/he transmits information about his/her opinion based on topics of his/her interest, highlighting the most relevant information.

Figure 26: Evaluation Criteria and Assessable Learning Standards

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6. Annexes

Annex 1: the questionnaire in Spanish language, as distributed to the students.

Edad:

Sexo: H / M

Curso en el que empezaste a estudiar inglés: _____

¿Acudes a clases extraescolares de inglés? Sí No

Rodea el grado de acuerdo con cada una de las siguientes preguntas, ten en cuenta que 1 significa “totalmente en desacuerdo” y 5 significa “totalmente de acuerdo”. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas, así que rodea la opción que más se adecúe a lo que piensas con total libertad y sinceridad.

- | | | | | | |
|--|------------|----|---|----------|---|
| 1) ¿Te gusta la asignatura de inglés? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2) ¿Te motiva aprender inglés? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3) Considero que el diccionario es una buena herramienta para aprender inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4) Me gustaría utilizar diccionarios en los exámenes de inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5) Creo que necesito más entrenamiento para sacar mejor provecho del diccionario | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6) Rodea qué tipo de diccionario prefieres utilizar | Monolingüe | | | Bilingüe | |
| 7) Soy consciente de la existencia de diccionarios monolingües de inglés adaptados a hablantes extranjeros | | Sí | | No | |
| 8) Utilizo el diccionario cuando hago los deberes de inglés | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9) En caso de utilizarlo, utilizo un diccionario monolingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10) En caso de utilizarlo, utilizo un diccionario bilingüe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11) Si no entiendo una traducción en un diccionario bilingüe, consulto a un diccionario monolingüe para comprobar su significado | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12) Creo que los ejemplos en los diccionarios son importantes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13) El ejemplo me ayuda a entender mejor el significado de una palabra que la definición o la traducción que ofrece el diccionario. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14) Creo que las imágenes en los diccionarios son útiles | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15) Prefiero utilizar diccionarios en línea a los diccionarios impresos | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16) Prefiero utilizar traductores en línea antes que diccionarios | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17) Utilizo diccionarios en papel frecuentemente | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18) Ordena del 1 al 5 los posibles defectos que puedan tener los diccionarios impresos (1 es el mayor defecto que consideras que tienen estos diccionarios y 5 el menor) | | | | | |

Tardo mucho tiempo en encontrar las cosas/Precio/Peso/No sé cuál comprar/No suelo encontrar lo que busco.

¡Muchas gracias por tu colaboración!

Annex 2: Transcription of the questions and possible answers from the activity *The man who made dictionaries (session 1)*:

- 1) What is the name of this man? (corresponds to 0:14 in the video)
 - a) Albert Einstein
 - b) Albert Sidney Hornby**
 - c) Albert Camus
- 2) What is the name of the dictionary that A. S Hornby created? (0:31 in the video)
 - a) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary**
 - b) Merriam-Webster
 - c) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
- 3) To what country did A.S Hornby move in the year 1924? (1:04 in the video)
 - a) China
 - b) Thailand
 - c) Spain
 - d) Japan**
- 4) What was the job of A.S Hornby? (1:25 in the video)
 - a) Doctor
 - b) Writer
 - c) Teacher**
 - d) Engineer
- 5) Why did A.S Hornby use English magazines? (2:00 in the video)
 - a) To find definitions of words for his students
 - b) To find real examples for his students**
 - c) To read about the II World War
- 6) What was the objective of the dictionary created by A.S Hornby? (2:55 in the video)
 - a) That the dictionary was easy to understand**
 - b) That everyone used a dictionary
 - c) That everyone read a dictionary
- 7) The dictionary created by A.S Hornby is not used anymore to learn English (3:10 in the video)
 - a) True
 - b) False**
- 8) When was the first edition of the dictionary printed (6:16 in the video)
 - a) 1946
 - b) 1947
 - c) 1948**
 - d) 1949
- 9) Part of the income obtained from the dictionary was donated to improve education (7:26 in the video)
 - a) True**
 - b) False

10) How many learners have used this dictionary? (8:04 in the video)

- a) Over 50 million learners
- b) Over 100 million learners**
- c) Over 400 million learners
- d) Over 1,000 million learners

Annex 3: Lyrics of the song *The Outside* (Taylor Swift)

I didn't know what I would find
When I went lookin' for a reason
I know I didn't read between the lines
And baby I've got nowhere to go

I tried to take the road less traveled by
But nothing seems to work the first few times, am I right?

So, how can I ever try to be better?
Nobody ever let's me in
And I can still see you, this ain't the best view
On the outside looking in
I've been a lot of lonely places
I've never been on the outside

You saw me there but never knew
That I would give it all up to be
A part of this, a part of you
And now it's all too late so you see

You could have helped if you had wanted to
But no one notices until it's too late to do anything

How can I ever try to be better?
Nobody ever let's me in
And I can still see you, this ain't the best view
On the outside looking in
I've been a lot of lonely places
I've never been on the outside

...

How can I ever try to be better?
Nobody ever let's me in
And I can still see you, this ain't the best view
On the outside looking in
I've been a lot of lonely places
I've never been on the outside
Oh oh oh

(Taken from: <https://www.metrolyrics.com/the-outside-lyrics-taylor-swift.html>)