

Antoni Nomdedeu Rull

How to select and present cultural data: a challenge to lexicography

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | Introduction | 4 | How to represent cultural data in lexicographic products |
| 2 | The representation of cultural data in lexicographic products. A critical analysis of existing dictionaries | 5 | Conclusions |
| 3 | How to select cultural data for lexicographic resources | 6 | Bibliography |

Abstract: Foreign language learners need to get cultural information during their learning process for their oral and written comprehension and expression activities. Current lexicographic products are not characterized by showing explicit, systematic, and organized cultural data about cultural words or expressions found in their vocabularies. Current lexicographic products are not characterized by showing explicit and/or systematically cultural data about cultural words or expressions found in their vocabularies. Consequently, learners' communicative and cognitive needs are not satisfied when looking up any cultural word and/or expression. One of the challenges of lexicography is how to select and represent cultural data in various lexicographic products. Overcoming this double challenge will depend on how these lexicographic tools cope with the following actions: (1) personalization of the lexicographic product; (2) integration in other tools (e.g. writing assistants); and (3) development of the product as a learning tool and not only a consultation tool. In view of this issue, this paper discusses about how to select cultural data from different sources and how to represent them in *Write Assistant*, a tool created by the Danish language technology company Ordbogen and published in 2019, though still in progress. Special attention will be given to Spanish speakers learning the English language.

Keywords: lexicography; write assistant; cultural data; personalization; language learning

1 Introduction

Lexicographic products should include cultural data for those users in need of using adequate words in their communicative contexts. This is a way that helps users

Antoni Nomdedeu Rull, Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Avenida Catalunya, 35, 43002 Tarragona (Spain),
e-Mail: antonio.nomdedeu@urv.cat

<https://doi.org/10.1515/lex-2020-0003>

improve their autonomy in language usage, a very important factor for communication. This issue is not new. Thirty years ago, Zgusta (1989: 3) said that

“since language is embedded in culture, cultural data are important to the learner not only for steering his linguistic behavior but frequently for choosing the correct lexical equivalent. Such cultural information can be understood in a broad way, so that it can pertain to political and administrative realities of the country or countries whose language is being learned, and so on. Undoubtedly, a good part of this information is of encyclopedic character; be this as it may, it belongs to what the learner has to learn.”

No few lexicographers and scholars have dealt with this important aspect. Stark (1999) has studied cultural information for encyclopedic dictionaries addressed to language learners; Welker (2008: 382) has made contributions from pedagogical lexicography; Cablitz (2011) has considered cultural knowledge in dictionaries of endangered languages; Bergenholtz/Nielsen (2013) have studied cultural information in general lexicography; and Klosa (2015) has put emphasis on pictures inserted in dictionaries. In spite of these studies, the cultural dimension of the vocabulary found in dictionaries has been anecdotal in some lexicographic practices. An example of this may be seen in the case of the Spanish tradition, in which no explicit, no systematic, and no organized attention has been given to cultural data in dictionaries (see Nomdedeu 2018). In English dictionaries the situation may be better, but there are still some aspects to be improved (§2).

Within this scenario, I will argue how lexicographers may select cultural data and how these data can be represented in digital lexicographic tools addressed to foreign language learners who, apart from solving their lexical problems, want to get more information that could enhance their knowledge about the meaning of a word or expression. In doing so, I will analyze how existing dictionaries for Spanish language learners (ELE, in Spanish) and their counterparts, English language learners (learner’s dictionaries) –British monolingual learner’s dictionaries or the “Big Five”, particularly– represent cultural data. The objective of this analysis is to determine whether learners of Spanish/English languages have access to adequate lexicographic tools to satisfy their needs of cultural information. Both types of dictionaries show some similar characteristics (see Nomdedeu-Rull/Barcroft 2020). The results of this analysis will be considered in the fourth section of this paper, about the representation of cultural data in lexicographic products, such as the *Write Assistant*, created by the Danish company Ordbogen, and currently under development.

These two objectives represent a double challenge for lexicography, whose results will influence the evolution of at least three actions that future lexicographic resources should face: (1) personalization of the lexicographic product; (2) integration of the lexicographic product into other tools (e.g. writing assistants); and (3) development of the product as a consultation and a learning tool, that is the least developed by specialized literature related with future lexicography.

2 The representation of cultural data in lexicographic products. A critical analysis of existing dictionaries

Cultural data in dictionaries have been seen as a translation-related problem. Thus, cultural information is normally shown in bilingual dictionaries as language equivalents. However, this does not mean that bilingual dictionaries show more cultural data than monolingual dictionaries (see Szerszunowicz 2011). It seems that not much attention to cultural data has been paid by lexicographers in monolingual dictionaries; therefore, the needs and demands from foreign language learners have not been satisfied. One of the possible reasons may be that cultural data are not addressed to a specific language learner from a given culture. Instead, cultural data would be a complement to translation equivalents or to other language and culture references offered by bilingual resources, since lexical equivalence is partial, imperfect, and/or incomplete, or as Zgusta (1971: 294–297) says, *anisomorphic*, referring to dictionaries.

Cultural data in lexicographic tools are defined in this study as those words and expressions having cultural differences between the source language and the target language, and whose knowledge is essential for getting their complete sense. In translation studies, Nida (1945) was the first translator who dealt with cultural words. Later, other authors also showed interest, such as Newmark (1988), who called them cultural words, and Nord (1997), who referred them to as cultural terms or culturemes, some years after Vermeer (1983) had created the term. A cultureme is a word or expression that refers to specific cultural aspects of a country and/or a cultural area; it does not have an exact equivalent in other languages, and its meaning is only valid in the society this word or expression is used. Some typical examples of Spanish culturemes are *olé*, *siesta*, *llegar y besar el santo*, *las cuentas del Gran Capitán*, *Casanova*, *huevo de Colón*, or *donjuán*. There are many words and expressions that are normally misunderstood because their cultural features are not known. These are idiomatic expressions, since the speaker does not refer to intralinguistic elements found in the expression, such as *¡Mucha mierda!* (meaning ‘good luck’; *break a leg!* in English).

The Spanish lexicographic tradition has considered the monolingual dictionary as a reference tool with linguistic data only. This has caused cultural data to be excluded from this type of dictionary because they are considered encyclopedic (see Sánchez 2010: 107). The distinction between language and encyclopedic dictionaries is “ill-conceived, irrelevant and potentially confusing” (Fuertes-Olivera 2013: 1069). Then, the distinction between the lexicographic and encyclopedic definition (see, for example, Bosque 1982, Werner 1982, Rey 1988 or Lara 1990) seems to be irrelevant from the perspective of user-based lexicography, because lexicographic classifications should be based on the dictionary functions, where users and needs are the main focus. This is the object of study of a user-oriented lexicographic theory, such as the Lexicographic Function Theory. In this sense, I agree with Tarp (2000), for

whom “the important concern is whether or not the definition or explanation meets the user’s needs and not whether it can be analysed in different parts” (Tarp 2000: 204). A general dictionary is also a cultural dictionary (see Rey 1988); then, the above distinction is unnecessary and futile.

As shown in Nomdedeu-Rull (2018), linguistic data from ELE dictionaries are not enough to satisfy the communicative needs of Spanish language learners. This study analyzed religious expressions, such as *acabar como el rosario de la aurora* (‘to end up in tears’), and words used in different areas of the Spanish culture, most of them widely known, such as those used in Spanish festivals (*sanfermines*, *procesión* or *falla*), food (*tapa*, *gazpacho*, *sangría* or *paella*), gifts (*aguinaldo*), literary tradition (*donjuán*), and entertainment (*olé*). Users may understand their sense easily through the information offered by these dictionaries, but they may also want to know more about the reasons explaining those expressions. None of ELE dictionaries incorporate cultural data on their entries. Only little cultural data is normally shown within the definition area, and sometimes implicitly in the example section, but never in explanatory notes, these notes being uncommon in the Spanish lexicographic tradition. Moreover, if we propose to include in these dictionaries cultural data from Spain, the Americas, and other Spanish-speaking regions, we notice a lack of information. This may be due to the fact that most dictionaries are made in Spain and mainly based on Spanish culture. Regarding English learner’s dictionaries, we see that British culture prevails over other English language cultures (see Algeo 1995), such as the United States of America or Australia.

Here, two examples are used to show the relationship between cultural words or expressions in both English and Spanish and to determine whether dictionaries included in the study offer enough cultural information so that language learners may acquire communicative competence. Then, idiomatic expressions in which the user does not refer directly to intralinguistic elements present in a statement (e.g. *Mucha mierda*, meaning ‘good luck’, *break a leg!* in English, and *hat-trick* or *triplete*, in Spanish) and which could be misunderstood are analyzed in this study.

The expression *¡Mucha mierda!* does not appear in Spanish dictionaries, in spite of its contemporary use and historical importance. This may be explained by the fact that one of the words of the expression is considered taboo: *mierda* (shit) is considered a swear word considered offensive in the Spanish lexicographic tradition (see Nomdedeu-Rull 2011). In spite of this sanction, this expression should be entered in a dictionary together with a brief explanation of its origin. There are at least two explanations of how this expression has the meaning of ‘good luck’ when used in the theater. López (2014) explains that in both cases the expression may come from the time when rich people would go to the theater by carriages. The more excrement, the more rich people attending the stage. Company members would express the wish to each other of finding a lot of excrement at the door of the theater or at the entrance of the village. López also describes how company members would pick up the coins thrown by the public to the stage. This activity also originated the theater-related

expression *rómpete una pierna*, the Spanish equivalent to *Break a leg!* This is an expression of wishing company members to break a leg after many times of picking up money or bowing to thank the public.

The explanation about the excrement at the doors of theaters is also given in Wikipedia (see Wikipedia contributors):

“In Spanish, the phrase is “*mucha mierda*”, or “lots of shit”. In Portuguese, it’s “*muita merda*”, with the same meaning. This term refers to the times when carriages would take the audience to the theatre. A quick look to the street in front of the venue would tell if the play was successful: a lot of horse dung would mean many carriages had stopped to leave spectators”.

Likewise, the explanation about the origin of *break a leg* by López (2014) is similar to the note from Wikipedia: “to ‘break a leg’ may refer to bowing or curtsying, in the sense of bending one’s leg to do so”, and also “to tell a performer to ‘break a leg’ was to wish them the luck to have the opportunity to perform and get paid. The sentiment remains the same today, ‘good luck, give a good performance’”.

It is clear that knowing the culture behind any expression helps to understand its meaning. From the lexical point of view, it would be enough for a dictionary to show the entry *mucha mierda* together with its equivalent *mucha suerte* (‘good luck’). However, if the user wants to get more information about the expression *mucha mierda* meaning “good luck”, the Spanish dictionary would have to offer them explanations such as the above; otherwise, the expression would not be understood. If looking up the expression *break a leg* in English learner’s dictionaries, the explanation offered is similar to Spanish ELE’s dictionaries: *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (OALD) shows: “**break a leg!** (*informal*) used to wish somebody good luck, especially to an actor before they go on stage.” *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (MED) says “used for wishing someone good luck”; *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (CALD) says “used for wishing someone good luck, especially before a performance”; *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary* (COBUILD) points out that the expression is a new suggestion sent on 09/10//2012, whose definition is pending (still?) “New Word Suggestion This is a well known idiom in Theatre which means ‘good luck’ or try your best which is typically said to actors, actresses and musicians before they go on stage. Submitted By: DavedWachsman3 – 09/10/2012 Approval Status: Pending Investigation”. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE) gives the following explanation: “spoken used to wish someone luck, especially just before they perform on stage”. As seen, none of the “Big five” dictionaries gives cultural data. Then, it is impossible to get a plausible explanation of why the expression *break a leg* leads to the definition “to wish somebody good luck, especially to an actor before they go on stage” (OALD). However, LDOCE is the only one of the “Big five” dictionaries that gives the Spanish equivalent *¡mucha mierda!* for *break a leg!*, but without offering more cultural details about the origin of this expression. This equivalent is not found in any bilingual section of the “Big five” dictionaries. If the user

wants to get more information about the meaning of *break a leg!*, they have to consult other sources, such as Wikipedia (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Break_a_leg).

Another problem with cultural expressions is found in English borrowings, such as *hat trick*. No ELE dictionary registers this entry, though

“since the 90s (20th century), the English compound ‘hat-trick’ has been widely used in journalist texts from Spain and less commonly used in Latin American countries such as Peru, Colombia, Chile, Mexico, and Argentina. This compound has been found mainly in football language, and refers to three goals scored by a player in a football match, without considering the goals scored in a penalty shootout” (see Nomdedeu-Rull 2017).

If the user wants to access more data and get cultural information about the term, they should be offered more cultural data.

Besides the definition of *hat-trick* (“three points, goals, etc. scored by the same player in a particular match or game; three successes achieved by one person”), the OALD is the only “Big five” dictionary showing two highlighted tabs, namely “Culture” and “Word Origin”. Under the “Culture” tab, the following explanation is given: “The expression was first used in cricket. It was traditional for a bowler who took three wickets in three balls to be given a new hat by his club”; while the second tab shows this information: “late 19th cent.: originally referring to the club presentation of a new hat (or some equivalent) to a bowler who took three wickets successively in cricket”. The other dictionaries do not show enough solutions. Thus, the CALD shows definitions, examples, and expressions (*the perfect hat-trick*); the COBUILD offers a variety of data by clicking on the following tabs: *hat-trick* (for definition-related data), *Image*, *English: hat-trick*, *American: hat-trick*, *Example sentences*, *Trends*, *In other languages*; the LDOCE shows the definition and examples retrieved from the corpus; and the MED shows lexical variation, definition, synonyms and related words. None of these dictionaries shows relevant cultural details similar to the text below:

“This is a term taken from juggling, which refers to the juggler’s trick of getting a rabbit or a dove from their top hats. In English, this term started to be used in cricket, when the cricketer Heathfield Harman Stephenson, during a match played at the Hyde Park Cricket Ground from Sheffield in 1858, could eliminate three opposing batsmen by taking three wickets in consecutive balls of one of the two crossbars (*bails*) located at the top of each of the three vertical sticks (*stumps*) that make up the goals (*wickets*), located behind the batsman of the opposing team. This was an extraordinary phenomenon and for the spectators similar to the top hat trick used by jugglers—this activity was common during the Victorian era in England—, this action was called *hat-trick*. Stephenson was then awarded a ‘*hat*’ for his feat, an old British custom that consisted in awarding a hat to an outstanding player, a symbol of prestige by the time. Currently, this custom of awarding a gift to a player who has performed a *hat-trick* is still followed in some sports, such as football (the football ball used in the match is signed by the players and awarded to the player) and American ice hockey (fans throw hats onto the ice from the stands to celebrate the hat-trick feat” (see. Nomdedeu-Rull 2017).

Tseng (2003) and Miller (2018) have stated that English learner's dictionaries do not offer enough cultural information. Nomdedeu-Rull (2018) and Nomdedeu-Rull/Tarp (2018) have pointed out that Spanish learner's dictionaries rarely offer this type of data. This study does not differ from them. Apart from the weaknesses just mentioned, there are at least two important drawbacks: (1) absence of dictionary users' profile, and (2) the almost non-existent use of high technology by the publishing houses of dictionaries towards a better customization of their products.

For customizing a lexicographic tool, it is necessary to consider users' needs. After a detailed analysis of dictionaries for ELE learners, I observe that the same information is offered for native and non-native Spanish learners (Italian, Danish, Chinese, Brazilian, Japanese, and Russian speakers, among others). These dictionaries do not consider different kind of users either (children, adolescents, adults, scholars, public in general, and so on). Then, neither users' needs nor profiles are considered. Different groups of users need different cultural data in order to reduce the distance between their language and cultures and Spanish language and cultures. This issue has been discussed for decades as shown in specialized literature (see Zgusta 1989), but no satisfactory solution has been found yet. Learners' dictionaries for non-native English speakers do not make a distinction between users and their cultures, but they offer more cultural information than ELE dictionaries, as well as better possibilities for online access considering current consultation habits. Besides, more research studies on English learners' dictionaries than on Spanish dictionaries have been done, and hence, more results have been obtained (See Lew/Doroszewska 2009, Miller/Kwary/Setiawan 2017). In spite of this, more research studies are necessary to determine the effectiveness of new approaches.

The fact that there is not any online ELE dictionary offering dynamic monolingual and/or bilingual services through new technologies does not mean that cultural data could not be offered as an option or shown dynamically according to users' needs. The only online ELE dictionary that has offered results is *Diccionario de Aprendizaje de Español como Lengua Extranjera* (DAELE), but this is a monolingual dictionary with 363 verb entries that does not take advantage of new technological advances. All other learner's dictionaries are printed: *Gran Diccionario de la Lengua Española* (GDLE-SGEL), *Diccionario para la enseñanza de la lengua española. Español para extranjeros* (DIPELE), *Diccionario Salamanca de la lengua española* (SALAMANCA), *Diccionario de español para extranjeros* (SM), *Diccionario de la lengua española para estudiantes de español* (ESPASA), *Gran diccionario de uso del español actual* (GDUEsA-SGEL). Only two of them, DIPELE and SALAMANCA, changed their printed format, became electronic, and currently are available on the Internet (these types of dictionaries have been called "faster horses", by Tarp 2011). However, this format does not take advantage of technologies, because their data bases were not built for digital use (See Nomdedeu-Rull/Tarp 2018). For English learner's dictionaries, the situation is more promising. All of the "Big five" dictionaries are available on the Internet. Access to the dictionary is through the lemma, but once inside

the lexical entry, some of them permit navigation to other contents. The OALD and COBUILD are the two “Big five” dictionaries that offer more possibilities. The OALD offers the user the option to unfold more information about pronunciation, definitions, and examples by simply clicking on the tabs labeled “Culture”, “Extra Examples”, “Oxford Collocations Dictionary”, or “Word Origin”. The COBUILD shows tabs, such as “Image” for the word searched, “Example sentences”, “Trends”, and “In other languages”. These are, therefore, dictionaries showing typical features of the Faster Horses and Model T Fords, according to the classification made by Tarp (2011: 59–61).

3 How to select cultural data for lexicographic resources

The treatment of culture-related terms is comprehensive and includes going back to the process of lexical unit selection and its processing and publication (See Manukyan 2015). In the general process of dictionary compilation described by Fuertes-Olivera/Tarp (2014: 85), there are three instances when lexicographers may need to access empirical data to have a good final product:

1. When they are looking for information about lexicographic needs of users in order to shape a concept of a dictionary that could help them to satisfy their needs.
2. When they are selecting and preparing lexicographic data for incorporation into the dictionary.
3. When they are evaluating dictionary usefulness in terms of user’s satisfaction.

In a further study, Tarp/Fuertes-Olivera (2016) indicate a fourth moment when external empirical data may be required, though it is more related with the commercial side of the project than with lexicographic data: when analyzing marketing trends to determine product advertising and sales.

In each of these moments there are methods that may help to get high levels of productiveness and quality. During the second moment, for example, it is necessary to consult different types of references. In selecting cultural data for lexicographic purposes, we can take information from different sources. I suggest the use of search engines for retrieving texts from the web: the web used as a corpus. Internet is a huge collection of texts. Therefore, if a lexicographer can take advantage from this huge corpus, the Internet could be considered a kind of lexicographic corpus. This perspective agrees with Kilgarriff/Grefenstette (2003: 334), who state that “The answer to the question ‘Is the web a corpus?’ is yes”.

In this sense, there are mainly two ways to use the web for a lexicographic project: (1) by building a corpus out of texts from the web, and (2) by using the web directly as a corpus (see Webcorp Live). In both cases, the use of search engines and other

search tools would be necessary. Obviously, each type of lexicographic corpus has both advantages and disadvantages (see Tarp/Fuertes-Olivera 2016: 277–278).

For the selection of cultural elements for each lemma, the same methodology used by the *online dictionaries* of Spanish *Valladolid-Uva* for selecting semantic features may be followed (see Fuertes-Olivera 2019). These dictionaries follow a methodology similar to Danish dictionaries (see Bergenholtz/Agerbo 2014), but with particular characteristics. Generally, the methodology for selecting units of meaning for each lemma includes the following fifteen steps, as described by Tarp/Fuertes-Olivera (2016: 280–283), and by Tarp (2018: 64–67):

1. A lemma from the data base is chosen through the user interface of the lexicographer.
2. The “Google” button on the left side of the lexicographer’s interface is activated.
3. A Google search result page by default appears on the interface.
4. The first 1–3 search result pages are omitted because they show lexicographic irrelevant data.
5. Snippets are shown in each page to have a general idea of the page content.
6. Relevant sections of the snippets are copy-pasted on a Word document.
7. Simultaneously, collocations, examples, synonyms, antonyms, and word-formation explanations are selected and incorporated into those field names of the file representing the meaning on the lexicographer’s interface. Idioms and fixed expressions are sent to the editor-in-chief for additional evaluation.
8. Google result pages are revised until new data get exhausted. Then, the process is repeated. The number of pages depends on the features of each lemma and on the lexicographer’s intuition based on his/her experience.
9. Once enough empirical data have been selected, they are grouped according to their meanings.
10. Based on group data, the first definitions are made following the lexicographical instructions previously prepared by the editor-in-chief.
11. At this step, the lexicographer decides if the process is adequate or if it is necessary to repeat the process or a section of it, so that enough empirical evidence may be obtained.
12. Once the lexicographer has finished the selection of meanings and written the definitions of a lemma, he/she sends a message to the editor-in-chief.
13. The editor-in-chief revises the definitions and compares them with those included in four Spanish dictionaries. If something is missing, a new search process begins, because one of the principles of the project is based on not copying any definition from any dictionary.
14. If definitions are related with specialized terms used in general language, it is possible to consult subject field experts for terminological control.
15. If the editor-in-chief is satisfied with the work done, and other relevant data are included such as grammar explanations, synonyms, antonyms, word-formation notes, collocations, and usage examples, the lemma is ready for online publication.

This same methodology may be followed to incorporate cultural data, as previously commented. Though explicit references about cultural information are not found, we can assume that these data require the consultation of specialized sources (step 14). In these cases, I also propose to consult other sources on language and cultural aspects, such as the dictionary project called *Diccionario lingüístico-cultural*, edited

by Luque Durán. This dictionary “aims at including all relevant data from a culture and its language to establish scientific analyses that could help to understand each culture and each vision of the world” (Luque 2009: 19). Though this is a tool applied to Translation theory and practice, it includes products such as the *Diccionario fraseológico-cultural del árabe* (DFCA) and the *Diccionario fraseológico-cultural de la lengua china* (DFCLC).

For the English language, there are some cultural dictionaries, such as the *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture* (OGBAC) and the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (LDELIC) (See Uzhova 2010); however, they are directed at British and American cultures. Another English dictionary of culture is the *Australian Cultural Dictionary* (ACD) created by Julia Miller/Ardian Setiawan/Deny Kwary (See Kwary/Miller 2013 for more details about the dictionary). There are cultural data (words and expressions) found in terminological dictionaries. An example of this is the compound *hat-trick*, which can be found in the *Dictionary of cricket*, by Rundell (1985), the *Diccionario de fútbol*, by Nomdedeu-Rull (2009), or the article named “Hat-Trick” (Nomdedeu-Rull 2017), where a historical description of this compound is found, together with its morphological and semantic evolution based on historiographic documentation.

4 How to represent cultural data in lexicographic products

The way in which cultural data are shown will depend on at least three factors: (1) tool functions; (2) whether the user is a foreign language speaker reading an English text for a specific purpose or a foreign language learner writing a text and thinking s/he knows what s/he is writing; and (3) whether the tool includes various learning methods. These three factors will influence the following actions mentioned at the beginning of this paper: (1) personalization of the lexicographic product; (2) integration of the lexicographic product into other tools (e.g. writing assistants), and (3) development of the product as a consultation tool and as a learning tool.

Regarding the tool functions, representing cultural data will depend on the type of lexicographic product. If, for example, it is a digital dictionary having access to data from the lemma, then actions similar to OALD’s are adequate. These should be done systematically and cultural data should be representative of the majority culture of the language. For Spanish, this majority culture does not only have to be the culture of Spain. The same happens for English, it does not only have to represent British culture. However, these type of dictionaries are not personalized because cultural information does not take cognizance of the user’s source language and culture. In contrast, if this data is to be offered by a tool such as the *Write Assistant*, from the Danish company Ordbogen – seen as an example of the new possibil-

ities and challenges of lexicography in data personalization –, some solutions for improving the tool should be offered. *Write Assistant* (<http://www.writeassistant.com/>) is a series of bilingual writing assistants designed to help users to write texts in a foreign language. This tool has been conceived following the criteria proposed by the lexicographic function theory (see Tarp 2008). As Tarp (2019a: 18) explains, this tool is based on two principles: (1) “lexicographic help should be offered directly through smartphones, tablets, and PCs”; 2) “lexicographic and non-lexicographic help should be offered in other tools and directly within texts written by the users”. Features and functions of *Write Assistant* have been described by Tarp et al. (2017) and Tarp (2019b).

Building these tools requires a change in the approach many dictionaries have followed so far. I do not agree with some lexicographers and, especially, with some English and Spanish publications about dictionaries (See Bensoussan/Sim/Weiss 1984, Hernández 1991, Atkins/Varantola 1998a, 1998b, Bogaards 1998, Maldonado 1998, Miller 2006a, 2006b), which state that foreign language learners should acquire more competences for using dictionaries. It is the tool that should be adapted to the user, not the user to the tool. In this sense, some study results have been inconsistent. Atkins/Varantola (1998b: 36) determined that direct instructions do not have much impact on the students when using a dictionary, while Miller (2006a) concluded that the incorporation of the dictionary as an aid tool in a foreign language teaching course made Australian students improve their academic writing skills. Based on my own experience and that of other colleagues, the results of previous studies are not satisfactory enough because most of them included paper format and/or digitalized dictionaries, and are of little help for today’s online dictionaries, no matter whether the dictionary is a stand-alone product or embedded into other systems. Previous studies on the use of existing dictionaries are considered retrospective studies, but they scarcely make contributions for future challenges (Tarp 2019a: 30). Current ELE learner’s dictionaries do not take advantage of new technologies (See Nomdedeu-Rull/Tarp 2018). It seems that there has not been much interest in including strategies of information searching used by current and prospective users as well as their digital skills. Today, users require fast and effective answers to their information needs (Domínguez/Valcárcel 2015, and Nomdedeu-Rull 2019). Then, it is necessary to adapt to users’ consultation habits. If current technological products are user-friendly, why can’t lexicographic products then have the same characteristics? The conservative approach of lexicography does not consider the lexicographer as the responsible person of dictionary use, but the user. The study by Nomdedeu-Rull (2019) about information retrieval habits of 188 Chinese university students learning the Spanish language shows that online dictionaries should be user-centered for better language learning. Consulting a free, fast, and user-friendly tool is more important for the user than the quality of data offered.

Offering particular data in different formats to a foreign language speaker reading an English text for a specific purpose or to a foreign language learner writing a text

and thinking s/he knows what s/he is writing, means that the tool should warn the user about the possible errors that may occur.

For representing cultural data in the *Write Assistant* tool, I will use the expression *break a leg!* as an example. In the case of the Spanish learner of English who writes in English thinking s/he knows what s/he is writing, the tool could (1) warn them about the error by using international expressions (e.g. *Error!*, *Warning!*, *Attention!*, and so on), and by highlighting in red the written text – still not included in dictionary products; (2) show correct answers; and (3) permit the user to get more knowledge. The tool should, then, offer the user more solutions and a bridge to language learning. For example, if a Spanish learner of English writes the expression “Before going on scene, the theater owner told me: **A lot of shit!**”, they are doing a literal translation of the Spanish expression “*Antes de entrar a escena, el dueño del teatro me dijo: “¡Mucha mierda!*” Its meaning is idiomatic because the theater owner is wishing that person all the best (§2) (See Muñoz-Basols et al. 2017, 241, for other lexicalized expressions in English and Spanish). As shown in Figure 1, the *Write Assistant* tool does not warn about the error, though the context is quite clear:

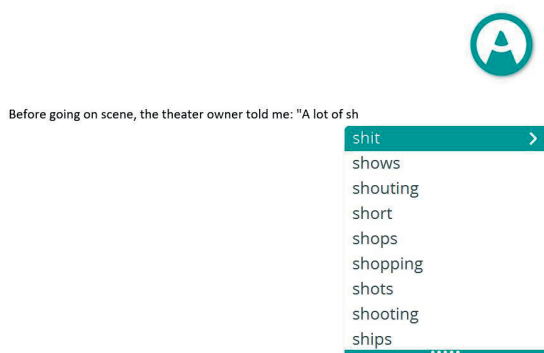


Figure 1: Lack of correction of cultural expressions in *Write Assistant*

The adequate expression is not *a lot of shit*, but *break a leg!*. *Write Assistant* could warn about the error and offer a solution, as shown in Figure 2:



Figure 2: A speech bubble warning about an error at *Write Assistant*

For the tool to be able to display this warning presupposes advanced progress in artificial intelligence. I am aware of the fact that this proposal may not be feasible at the current stage of development but it is a possibility for the near future.

Moreover, the tool could also ask the user whether more cultural information should be given (See Fig. 3):



Figure 3: Possible design of a speech bubble on a cultural expression on *Write Assistant*

If the user wants to know why *break a leg!* is used within the context shown above, they can have the possibility of accessing a window (Figure 4) that displays a brief cultural and pragmatic note. This could be explained in depth, if desired, by clicking on a “more information here” link at the bottom of the window (linking it to a Wikipedia article). Thus, information overload so often present in dictionaries would be avoided (See Gouws/Tarp 2016). Likewise, all necessary data for adequate comprehension and expression skills could be collected (Figure 4):

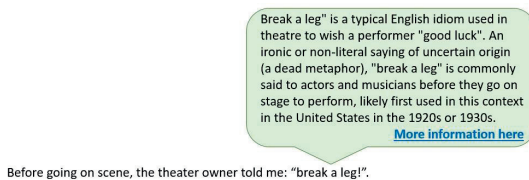


Figure 4: Speech bubble with cultural data on *Write Assistant*

If the user does not require more information about the expression, they may ignore the note and continue writing.

I agree with Tarp (2019a: 22) when stating that “today’s challenge consists in filling this window so that the user needs are satisfied”. Through the examples used here, I have proposed a series of steps that can be used, so that the user may know the correct meaning of an idiomatic expression, and get cultural information about it. According to Tarp’s proposal (2019a: 28, Fig. 10), the user may access some metatexts (cultural and pragmatic notes, synonyms and antonyms, syntactic information, collocations, fixed expressions, and so on) and click on any of them for further details that could satisfy an information need. This is currently under construction in the *Write*

Assistant tool. My proposal shows how the *Write Assistant* tool could offer a solution after detecting the need of the user consulting the tool. Thus, this tool would “think” about the best steps towards a better learning experience. What would then happen if the user has further consultation needs? In this case, they could always click on the word/expression (*break a leg!*, the example explained here) and get a window with some choices and some metatexts, as proposed by Tarp (2019a).

My proposal is based on the relevance criteria applied to lexicography, explained by Bothma/Tarp (2014), in which all relevant data for users are shown first, while other less relevant data are shown only if the user requires more information. By showing Figures 2, 3, and 4, I have assumed that what matters to a user in this situation is that the tool, once the error has been resolved, allows him/her to know the reason for the use of one expression rather than another while accessing cultural data, since that is precisely what he/she does at that very moment. Finding a technical solution to this proposal may require the intervention of recent advances in artificial intelligence towards lexical and cultural data processing. This could open a way to lexicografiction – though more likely not now but rather in the near future. Interdisciplinary collaboration (computer programmers, graphical designers, digital marketing experts, linguists, lexicographers, and so on) is an increasing need and a challenge for developing a lexicographical tool based on user’s needs.

In summary, different language learning methods could also be managed by an online lexicographical tool. The tool should serve to learn. Suggestions given in this study – computer experts may suggest other solutions provided that they understand user’s needs – have the purpose of not only offering solutions to user’s needs but helping them to learn languages. The examples shown in Figure 1, 2 and 3 are just possible solutions. Obviously, learning methods should be considered (incidental vs intentional learning of vocabulary as opposed to integrated vs isolated learning of vocabulary), but a learning processes through visual warning/correction notes are normally effective and should be considered (See Barcroft 2019).

5 Conclusions

Generally, each word and/or expression included in a dictionary and used in a language is strongly related to culture (see Bergenholtz/Nielsen, 2013: 480). It can be concluded that some words and/or expressions may require more data due to their cultural importance, the quantity of data related, and the need of suggesting more data that could be used adequately and codified/decodified in the contexts in which they appear. There should be more emphasis on the fact that the inclusion and an adequate treatment of cultural information improves linguistic, pragmatic, and intercultural competence of users. Besides, an adequate lexicographical description of cultural information found in words and/or expressions promotes cultural learning

and interlinguistic autonomy in language learners. A challenge to lexicography has already been launched. I have proposed how to select and represent cultural data in lexicographic products, especially in *Write Assistant*, a product created by Ordbogen. The purpose of lexicography is not to offer finished products because there are no final solutions. We ask questions and propose some solutions that may benefit users, so that they may satisfy their communication needs.

6 Bibliography

6.1 Monographs and articles

- Algeo, John (1995): British and American biases in English dictionaries. In: Kachru, B. B./Kahane, H. (eds.): *Cultures, Ideologies and the Dictionary*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, 205–212.
- Atkins, B. T. Sue/Varantola, Krista (1998a): Monitoring dictionary use. In: B. T. Sue Atkins (ed.): *Using dictionaries: studies of dictionary use by language learners and translators*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, 84–122.
- Atkins, B. T. Sue/Varantola, Krista (1998b): Language learners using dictionaries: The final report on the EURALEX/AILA research project on dictionary use. In: B. T. Sue Atkins (ed.): *Using Dictionaries: Studies of Dictionary Use by Language Learners and Translators*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, 21–82.
- Barcroft, Joe (2019): Key Issues in Teaching Single Words. In: Webb, Stuart (ed.): *The Routledge Handbook of Vocabulary Studies*. London: Routledge, 479–492.
- Bensoussan, Marsha/Sim, Donalds/Weiss, Razelle (1984): The effect of dictionary usage on EFL test performance compared with student and teacher attitudes and expectations. In: *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 2(2), 262–276. [<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED232436>; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Bergenholtz, Henning/Agerbo, Heidi (2014): Extraction, selection and distribution of meaning elements for monolingual information tools. In: *Lexicographica* 30, 488–512. [<https://doi.org/10.1515/lexi-2014-0015>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Bergenholtz, Henning/Nielsen, Sandro (2013): The treatment of culture-bound items in dictionaries. In: Gouws, Rufus H./Heid, Ulrich/, Schweickard, Wolfgang/Wiegand, Herbert Ernst (eds.): *Dictionaries. An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography. Supplementary Volume: Recent Developments with Focus on Electronic and Computational Lexicography*. Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter, 469–481.
- Bogaards, Paul (1998): What Type of Words do Language Learners Look Up? In: Atkins, B.T. Sue (ed.): *Using Dictionaries: Studies of Dictionary Use by Language Learners and Translators*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, 151–158.
- Bosque, Ignacio (1982): Sobre la teoría de la definición lexicográfica. In: *Verba* 9: 105–123. [<https://minerva.usc.es/xmlui/handle/10347/4963?show=full>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Bothma, Theo J.D. Tarp, Sven (2014): Why Relevance Theory is Relevant for Lexicography. In: *Lexicographica* 30, 350–378. [<https://doi.org/10.1515/lexi-2014-0013>]; last access: March 12, 2020].

- Cablitz, Gabriele H. (2011): Documenting Cultural Knowledge in Dictionaries of Endangered Languages. In: *International Journal of Lexicography* 24(4): 446–462. [<https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/ecr017>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Domínguez Vázquez, M^a. José/Valcárcel Riveiro, Carlos (2015): Hábitos de uso de los diccionarios entre los estudiantes universitarios europeos: ¿nuevas tendencias? In: Domínguez Vázquez, María José/Gómez-Guinovart, Xavier/Valcárcel-Riveiro, Carlos (eds.): *Lexicografía de las lenguas románicas. Aproximación a la lexicografía moderna y contrastiva*. Berlín/Boston: De Gruyter, 165–191.
- Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A. (2013): Electronic encyclopedias. In: Gouws, Rufus H./Heid, Ulrich/Schweickard, Wolfgang/Wiegand, Herbert Ernst (eds.): *Dictionaries. An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography. Supplementary Volume: Recent Developments with Focus on Electronic and Computational Lexicography*. Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter, 1069–1081.
- Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A. (2019): Designing and Making Commercially Driven Integrated Dictionary Portals: the Diccionarios Valladolid-Uva. In: *Lexicography* 6(1): 21–41. [<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs40607-019-00056-8>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A./Tarp, Sven (2014): *Theory and Practice of Specialised Online Dictionaries: Lexicography versus Terminography*. Berlin/New York: De Gruyter.
- Gouws, Rufus H./Tarp, Sven (2016). Information overload and data overload in lexicography. In: *International Journal of Lexicography* 30(4), 389–415. [<https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/ecw030>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Hernández Hernández, Humberto (1991): “De la teoría lexicográfica al uso del diccionario: el diccionario en el aula”. In: Montesa-Peydró, Salvador/Garrido-Moraga, Antonio: *El español como lengua extranjera: de la teoría al aula*. Málaga: Asele, 189–200.
- Kilgarriff, Adam/Grefenstette, Gregory (2003): Introduction to the Special Issue on the Web as Corpus. In: *Computational Linguistics* 29, 333–347. [<https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/J03-3001.pdf>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Klosa, Annette (2015): Illustrations in Dictionaries; Encyclopaedic and Cultural Information in Dictionaries. In: Durkin, Philip (ed.): *The Oxford Handbook of Lexicography*, 515–531.
- Kwary, Denny A./Miller, Julia (2013): A model for an online Australian English cultural dictionary database. In: *Terminology. International Journal of Theoretical and Applied Issues in Specialized Communication* 19(2), Jan 2013, 258–276. [<https://doi.org/10.1075/term.19.2.05kwa>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Lara, Luis Fernando (1990): Diccionario de lengua, enciclopedia y diccionario enciclopédico: el sentido de sus distinciones. In: *Dimensiones de la lexicografía*. México: El Colegio de México, 213–231.
- Lew, Robert/Doroszevska, Joanna (2009): Electronic Dictionary Entries with Animated Pictures: Lookup Preferences and Word Retention. In: *International Journal of Lexicography* 22(3), 239–257. [<https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/ecp022>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- López, Alfred (2014): Ya está el listo que todo lo sabe: Una curiosidad para cada día del año [<https://blogs.20minutos.es/yaestaellistoquetodolosabe/tag/rompete-una-pierna/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Luque Nadal, Lucía (2009): Los diccionarios lingüístico-culturales y el estudio de los fraseologismos. In: *Boletín Hispánico Helvético* 11, 5–23. [<https://vdocuments.mx/los-diccionarios-lingueistico-culturales-y-el-estudio-de-los-fraseologismos-lucia-luque-nadal.html>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Maldonado González, Concepción (1998): *El uso del diccionario en el aula*. Madrid: Arco/Libros.
- Manukyan Vardanyan, Lilit (2015): *Culture-bound terms en los diccionarios bilingües (español-ruso y español-armenio)*. PhD Thesis. Barcelona: UAB. [<https://ddd.uab.cat/record/148809>]; last access: March 12, 2020].

- Miller, Julia (2006a): English learners' dictionaries: An undervalued resource. In: *TESOL in Context*, 15(2), 30–37. [<https://search.informit.com.au/fullText;dn=612888044619003;res=IELHSS>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Miller, Julia (2006b): An investigation into the effect of English learners' dictionaries on international students' acquisition of the English article system. In: *International Education Journal* 7(4), 435–445. [<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ854299>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Miller, Julia (2018): Learners' dictionaries of English. In: Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A. (ed.): *The Routledge Handbook of Lexicography*. New York: Taylor & Francis, 353–366.
- Miller, Julia/Kwary, Deny A./Setiawan, Ardian W. (2017): Koalas, Kiwis and Kangaroos: The Challenges of Creating an Online Australian Cultural Dictionary for Learners of English as an Additional Language. In: *Lexikos* 27, 310–345. [<http://www.scielo.org.za/pdf/lexikos/v27/14.pdf>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Muñoz-Basols, Javier/Moreno, Nina/Taboada, Inma/Lacorte, Manel (2017): *Introducción a la lingüística hispánica actual: teoría y práctica*. London/New York: Routledge.
- Newmark, Peter (1988): *A Textbook of Translation*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.
- Nida, E. A. (1945): Linguistic and Ethnology in Translation Problems. In: *Word* 1(2), 194–208.
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2009): *Diccionario de fútbol*. In: *Anexos de Revista de Lexicografía* 11, A Coruña, Servizo de Publicacións-Universidade da Coruña.
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2011): Las voces malsonantes. In: San Vicente, Félix/Garriga, Cecilio/Lombardini, Hugo E. (eds.): *Ideolex. Estudios de Lexicografía e Ideología*. Monza: Polimetrica International Scientific Publisher, 172–187.
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2017): Hat-trick. In: *Martes neológico*. [<http://blogscvc.cervantes.es/martes-neologico/hat-trick/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2018): El desafío del tratamiento de los datos culturales en un diccionario en línea para aprendices de español como LE/L2. In: *Revista de Filología de la Universidad de La Laguna* 36, 279–308. [<https://riull.ull.es/xmlui/handle/915/8621>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2019): Hábitos de consulta de diccionarios en estudiantes universitarios chinos de español. In: Calvo Rigual, Cesáreo/Robles i Sabater, Ferrán (eds.): *La investigación en lexicografía hoy: Diccionarios bilingües, lingüística y uso del diccionario*, vol. I, en Anejo n.º 85 de *Quaderns de filologia*, 143–164.
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni (2020 in press): Lexicography perspectives and L2 Spanish Vocabulary. In: Barcroft, Joe (ed.): *Spanish Vocabulary Learning in Meaning-Oriented Instruction*. (Routledge Advances in Spanish Language Teaching). New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni/Tarp, Sven. (2018): Hacia un modelo de diccionario en línea para aprendices de español como LE/L2. In: *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching* 5(1). [<https://doi.org/10.1080/23247797.2018.1459279>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Nomdedeu-Rull, Antoni/Barcroft, Joe (2020, in press): Los diccionarios de ELE. In: Torner, Sergi/Battaner, Paz/Renau, Irene (eds.). *Lexicografía hispánica / The Routledge Handbook of Spanish Lexicography*. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Nord, Christiane (1997): *Translation as a Purposeful Activity*. Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Rey, Alain (1988): *Enciclopedias y diccionarios*. México: Fondo de Cultura Económica.
- Rundell, Michael (1985): *The Dictionary of cricket*. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- Sánchez, Aquilino (2010): The Treatment of Cultural and/or Encyclopaedic Items in Specialised Dictionaries for Learners. In: Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A. (ed.): *Specialised Dictionaries for Learners*. Berlin/New York: De Gruyter, 107–129.
- Stark, Martin (1999): *Encyclopedic Learners' Dictionaries. A Study of their Design Features from the User Perspective*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Szerszunowicz, Joanna (2011): The cultural component in bilingual dictionaries of phraseological units. In: Akasu, Kaoru/Uchida, Satoru (eds.): *LEXICOGRAPHY: Theoretical and Practical*

- Perspectives*. ASIALEX, 628–637. [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/308522330_The_cultural_component_in_bilingual_dictionaries_of_phraseological_units_in_LEXICOGRAPHY_Theoretical_and_Practical_Perspectives_Papers_submitted_to_the_Seventh_ASIALEX_Biennial_International_Conferenc]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tarp, Sven (2000): Theoretical Challenges to Practical Specialised Lexicography. In: *Lexikos* 10, 189–208. [[10.5788/10-0-894](https://doi.org/10.5788/10-0-894)]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tarp, Sven (2008): *Lexicography in the borderland between knowledge and non-knowledge. General lexicographical theory with particular focus on learner's lexicography*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer (Lexicographica: series Maior).
- Tarp, Sven (2011): Lexicographical and Other e-Tools for Consultation Purposes: Towards the Individualization of Needs Satisfaction. In: Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A./Bergenholtz, Henning (eds.): *e-Lxicography: The Internet, Digital Initiatives and Lexicography*. London/New York: Continuum, 54–70.
- Tarp, Sven (2018): ¡Adiós a los corpus para fines lexicográficos? In: Ruiz Miyares, Leonel (ed.): *Estudios de Lexicología y Lexicografía: Homenaje a Eloina Miyares Bermudez*. Santiago de Cuba: Ediciones Centro de Linguística Aplicada, 57–77.
- Tarp, Sven (2019a): La ventana al futuro: Despidiéndose de los diccionarios para abrazar a la Lexicografía. In: *RILEX. Revista sobre investigaciones léxicas* 2(2), 5–36. [<https://revistaselectronicas.ujaen.es/index.php/RILEX/article/view/4964/4563>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tarp, Sven (2019b): Connecting the dots: tradition and disruption in lexicography. In: *Lexikos* 29, 224–249. [<https://lexikos.journals.ac.za/pub/article/view/1519/911>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tarp, Sven/Fuertes-Olivera, Pedro A. (2016): Advantages and Disadvantages in the Use of Internet as a Corpus: The Case of the Online Dictionaries of Spanish Valladolid-Uva. In: *Lexikos* 26 (AFRILEX-reeks/series 26), 273–295. [[10.5788/26-1-1349](https://doi.org/10.5788/26-1-1349)]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tarp, Sven/Fisker, Kasper/Sepstrup, Peter. (2017): L2 Write Assistants and Context-aware Dictionaries: New Challenges to Lexicography. In: *Lexikos* 27, 494–521. [<https://doi.org/10.5788/27-1-1412>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- Tseng, T.H.T. (2003): The Cultural Component in an Ideal Monolingual English Learner's Dictionary. In: Ming, L/Hue-Feng, H./Zhuang, Z. J. (eds.): *Aspects of English Language Teaching and Research*. Suzhou, P.R. China: Suzhou University Press, 215–226.
- Uzhova, Olga (2010): Examples in Cultural Dictionaries. In: Karpova, Olga/Kartashkova, Faina (eds.): *New Trends in Lexicography: Ways of Registering and Describing Lexis*, 35–47.
- Vermeer, Hans J. (1983): Translation theory and linguistics. In: Roinila, Pauli/Orfanos, Ritua/Tirkkonen-Condit, Sonja (eds.): *Näkökohtia kääntämisen tutkimuksesta*. Joensuu, Joensuu University, 1–10.
- WebCorp Live. Research and Development Unit for English Studies (RDUES). Birmingham City University. [<http://www.webcorp.org.uk/live/guide.jsp>]; last access: May 12, 2020].
- Welker, Herbert A. (2008): *Panorama Geral da Lexicografia Pedagógica*. Brasília: Thesaurus Editora.
- Werner, Reinhold (1982): La definición lexicográfica. In: Haensch, Günter/Wolf, Lothar/Ettinger, Stefan/Werner, Reinhold (eds.): *La lexicografía*. Madrid: Gredos, 259–328.
- Wikipedia contributors (2020, March 15). Break a leg. In: *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. [https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Break_a_leg&oldid=945677248]; last access: May 12, 2020].
- Zgusta, Ladislav (1971): *Manual of lexicography*. The Hague/Paris: Mouton.
- Zgusta, Ladislav (1989): Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow; or, Vaticinations on the Learners' Dictionary. In: M. L. Tickoo (ed.): *Learner's Dictionaries: The State of the Art*, Singapore: SEAMO Regional Language Centre, 1–9.

6.2 Dictionaries

- ACD = Julia Miller/Arlian Setiawan/Deny Kwary: *Australian Cultural Dictionary*. [<http://www.culturaldictionary.org/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- CALD = *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary)*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. (2003). *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (CALD)*. [online] = Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. [<http://dictionary.cambridge.org>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- COBUILD = *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary (Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary)* (4th ed.). London: HarperCollins. (2003).
- COBUILD. (2016) *COBUILD*. [online] Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers. [<http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english-COBUILD-learners>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- DAELE = Battater Arias, Paz y Janet DeCesaris (en línea): *Diccionario de Aprendizaje de Español como Lengua Extranjera*. Barcelona: Institut Universitari de Lingüística Aplicada, Universitat Pompeu Fabra. [<http://www.iula.upf.edu/rec/daele/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- DFCA = Al Jallad, Nader: *Diccionario fraseológico-cultural del árabe*. Granada: Granada Lingüística, Educatori. (2012).
- DFCLC = Jia, Yongsheng: *Diccionario fraseológico-cultural de la lengua china*. Granada: Granada Lingüística, Educatori. (2013).
- DIPELE = Alvar Ezquerro, Manuel (dir.) (1995¹): *Diccionario para la enseñanza de la lengua española*. Barcelona: Bibliograf y Universidad de Alcalá de Henares. / Alvar Ezquerro, M. dir. 2000². *Diccionario para la enseñanza de la lengua española. Español para extranjeros*. Alcalá de Henares. VOX, Universidad de Alcalá de Henares / Spes Editorial. [<http://www.diccionarios.com/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- ESPASA = Villar, Celia. (coord.): *Diccionario de la lengua española para estudiantes de español*. Madrid: Espasa-Calpe. (2002).
- GDLE-SGEL = Sánchez, Aquilino (dir.): *Gran Diccionario de la Lengua Española*. Madrid: SGEL. (1995).
- GDUEsA-SGEL = Sánchez, Aquilino (dir.): *Gran diccionario de uso del español actual*. Madrid: SGEL. (2001).
- LDELCL = *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*. London: Longman. (2003).
- LDOCE = *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Summers, Della. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (4th Edition.). London: Pearson Education Ltd.). 2003.
- LDOCE. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. [online] = Harlow: Longman. (2013) [<http://www.ldoconline.com>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- MED = *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. MED. *Macmillan English Dictionary*. (2016). [online] = London: MacMillan. [<http://www.macmillandictionary.com>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- OALD = *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Wehmeier, Sally (eds.) (2005). *Oxford Advanced Learners' dictionaries of Current English* (7th edition.). London: Oxford University Press.).
- OALD. (2016) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. [online] = Oxford: Oxford University Press. [<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- OGBAC = Dewey, Joseph: *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (2001).
- SALAMANCA = Gutiérrez Cuadrado, Juan (dir.): *Diccionario Salamanca de la lengua española*. Madrid: Santillana / Universidad de Salamanca. (1996). [<http://fenix.cnice.mec.es/diccionario/>]; last access: March 12, 2020].
- SM = Maldonado González, Concepción (dir.): *Diccionario de español para extranjeros*. Madrid: Editorial SM. (2002).