CENTRAL UNIVERSITY
"MARTA ABREU" OF LAS VILLAS

School of Humanities

DIPLOMA PAPER

Bilingual (English-Spanish) Dictionary App of Phrasal Verbs for Students of the Degree Course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language

Author: Roxana Reyes Manes
Supervisor: Full Professor Mayra Rodríguez Ruiz, PhD

June, 2017

We certify that the present Diploma Paper was carried out at the Universidad Central "Marta Abreu" de Las Villas to fulfill the requirements of the curricula for the training of Bachelors in English Language with a Second Foreign Language: French. We give our approval for it to be partially or totally used by the institution for educational purposes. This Diploma Paper can be neither published nor discussed in any forum without the approval of the University.

_____

Signature of the Author

We, the undersigned, hereby certify that the present Diploma Paper has been carried out with the approval of the institution authorities and that it meets the requirements and regulations established for this activity in the given subject.

_____ _____

Signature of the Supervisor Signature of the Head of Department

Hacemos constar que el presente trabajo fue realizado en la Universidad Central "Marta Abreu" de las Villas como parte de la culminación de los estudios de la especialidad de Lengua Inglesa, autorizando a que el mismo sea utilizado por la Institución para los fines que estime conveniente, tanto de forma parcial como total y que además no podrá ser presentado en eventos ni publicados sin autorización de la Universidad.

_____

Firma de los Autores

Los abajo firmantes certificamos que el presente trabajo ha sido realizado según acuerdo de la dirección de nuestro centro y el mismo cumple con los requisitos que debe tener un trabajo de esta envergadura referido a la temática señalada.

_____ _____

Firma del Tutor Firma del Jefe de Departamento

Table of Contents

Table of contents **Page**

Introduction ---------- **1**

Chapter 1: Theoretical Foundations

1.1 Translation ---------- **6**

1.1.1 Translation typologies ---------- **7**

1.1.2 Translation problems ---------- **9**

1.2 Phrasal verbs: a common lexical translation problem ---------- **10**

1.2.1 History and development of phrasal verbs ---------- **11**

1.2.2 Types of phrasal verbs ---------- **13**

1.2.3 Non-native English learners' challenges when translating phrasal verbs ---------- **15**

1.3 Lexicography ---------- **18**

1.3.1 Lexicography from earliest times to the present ---------- **20**

1.3.2 Lexicographical database ---------- **23**

1.3.3 Lexicography and lexicology ---------- **25**

1.4 The dictionary as a tool for translators ---------- **28**

1.4.1 Dictionary typologies ---------- **29**

1.4.2 Bilingual dictionaries. Macrostructure and microstructure ---- **32**

1.4.3 Bilingualized dictionaries ---------- **34**

1.5 Information and communication technologies (ICTs) in education ------ **36**

1.5.1 Mobile learning ---------- **37**

1.6 Partial conclusions ---------- **40**

Chapter 2: Proposal of a Bilingual (English-Spanish) Dictionary App of Phrasal Verbs: Results and Discussion

2.1 Methodology implemented ---------- **42**

2.2 Characterization of the sample ---------- **42**

2.3 Stages of the process for creating a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs ---------- **43**

2.3.1 Selection of the sample ---------- **43**

2.3.2 Creation of lexicographical entries by using Excel as Database Management System (DBMS) ---------- **44**

2.3.3 Translation into Spanish of all the entries by using dictionaries ---------- **46**

2.3.4 Creation of the dictionary app from the lexicographical database elaborated ---------- **48**

2.3.4.1 Macrostructure of the dictionary app ---------- **48**

2.3.4.2 Microstructure of the dictionary app ---------- **50**

2.3.5 Assessment of the dictionary proposed through specialists' criteria ---------- **51**

2.3.6 Final edition of the dictionary ---------- **54**

Conclusions ---------- **56**

Recommendations ---------- **58**
Bibliographical References
Bibliography
Annexes

"A translator ought to endeavor not only

to say what his author has said,

but to say it as he has said it"

John Conington

DEDICATION

To my grandmother Ofelia Suárez Oquendo

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

To my parents and little brother for their love and support throughout all these years of studies.

To my supervisor Mayra Rodriguez Ruiz Ph.D. for her excellent guidance and advice during the realization of this diploma paper.

To Manuel Llanes Abeijón for his wisdom and advice.

To all the professors from the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, for their effective teaching.

To my boyfriend Pavel Ulacia Villavicencio for his unconditional love and active participation in this diploma paper.

To my special roommates (they know who they are) for helping me when I needed it the most.

ABSTRACT

Mastering phrasal verbs is mandatory for Spanish speakers who are committed to accomplish an accurate command of the English language. Since this linguistic phenomenon is not present in Spanish, students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas, usually encounter many problems while translating them. In line with this research, this paper aims at lessening students’ difficulties when translating phrasal verbs by the elaboration of a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs resulting from the bilingualization of a compilation of 6,130 phrasal verbs taken from monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries. The results led to the creation of the dictionary app English-Spanish Phrasal Verbs Dictionary, which includes Spanish equivalents, grammar patterns, definitions, examples, collocations, synonyms, opposites, idioms, derivatives, as well as usage notes.

KEYWORDS: translation, bilingualization, phrasal verb, linguistic phenomenon, dictionary app

Introduction

INTRODUCTION

As a dynamic and intellectual craft which is developed through experience and maturation, translation can be regarded as a profession with elements of both art and science. With its deep historical roots, it can be an exquisite form of communication, enabling a meeting of minds across civilizations. Hence, translation has the potential humanitarian and political role of crossing linguistic and geo-political frontiers, and of uniting different nations. In a world of rapid and radical social change, no understanding or communication is possible without translation.

Peter Newmark (1988) affirms that translation deals with many different types of texts, from the informative and the vocative to the expressive, and has also taken diverse forms, from the very literal to the very free. Nevertheless, there is a common agreement that the process of translation involves taking a text in one language and using it as the basis for the production of a second, equivalent text in a different language. Therefore, the translator must, as a communicator, possess the knowledge and skills that are common to all communicators but, in two languages. The professional translator has access to five distinct kinds of knowledge: target language (TL) knowledge, text-type knowledge, source language (SL) knowledge, subject area (real world) knowledge, and contrastive knowledge (Bell, 1993).

As Harry Aveling (2006) states, *"translation involves more than linguistic transfer"*. The major significance of translation activities is in fact, cultural. Therefore, the fundamental task of any translation process is to facilitate the understanding between users of different languages and across different cultures. Thus, in order to create an appropriate text in the target language, the translators must have the ability to understand the source language and its culture and they must also possess sufficient linguistic skills to translate texts accurately into the target language. This is referred to as the communicative competence of the translator: the system of knowledge and skills for communication which involves the domain of the working languages.

Mastering these languages entails, among other things, the development of lexical competence, both in the source language and in the target language; what is commonly known as the learning of vocabulary. Nonetheless, this is no easy task.

Learning the vocabulary is a complex mental process that involves linguistic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects.

According to Harry Aveling (2006), the lexical competence represents the knowledge of the structure and functioning of the lexical system of the language, which can then be effectively used by the speakers.

One of the most frequently occurring features in the English vocabulary is the widespread use of phrasal verbs. The term phrasal verb refers, in English grammar, to a combination of a verb and a prepositional or adverbial particle, in which the combination often takes on a meaning, which is apparently not the simple sum of its parts (Olteanu, 2012). By means of phrasal verbs it is described the greatest variety of human actions and relations, so there is hardly any action or attitude of one human being to another which cannot be expressed by means of these phrasal verbs. They are so common in every-day conversation and written documents that non-native speakers who wish to sound natural when speaking this language need to learn their grammar, semantic meanings and appropriate equivalents in order to produce them correctly.

In this regard, it has been detected some lack of lexical competence with respect to phrasal verbs in students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas. To verify this difficulty, a survey was conducted to a probability sample composed by ten students of each year of the above-mentioned degree course (Annex 1). The results from the survey confirmed the necessity to create a tool for the students, in order to improve their lexical competence concerning phrasal verbs (Annex 2). This is what has taken the researcher to state the following **research problem**,

Since phrasal verbs are widely used in everyday-spoken and written English, some difficulties arise when students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas translate them into Spanish, due to several causes such as insufficient bilingual reference sources dealing with phrasal verbs, difficulties while understanding their meaning in a given context and the non-existence of an equivalent linguistic phenomenon in Spanish.

Therefore, this is what led the researcher to the formulation of the following **research question**:

How can we contribute to diminish the difficulties students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas, face when translating phrasal verbs into Spanish?

In order to answer the research question mentioned above, the following objectives were considered:

Overall objective

- To propose a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs for students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language.

Specific objectives

- To establish the theoretical foundations related to translation, phrasal verbs, lexicography, dictionaries and the use of new technologies in education.

- To design a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs for students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language.

- To assess the bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs through specialists' criteria.

For the fulfillment of the previous objectives, the following methods were applied:

Methods:

This study attempts to present a theoretical and practical stand on the issue under research. It is a qualitative, descriptive, synchronic study based on the compilation of 6,130 phrasal verbs from monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries, in order to propose a dictionary app with the grammar pattern, meanings, examples, collocations, synonyms,

opposites, idioms, usage notes, derivatives as well as the Spanish equivalents of these particular verbs.

Theoretical Methods

- Historical and logical: to study the logical and historical development of the main theoretical principles used in this diploma paper.
- Analysis and synthesis: to contrast, analyze, evaluate and then generalize the existing bibliography for the purpose of the research.

Empirical methods

- Preliminary survey: to determine the difficulties students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas face when translating phrasal verbs into Spanish.
- Survey to specialists: to determine specialists' criteria on the validity of the bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs proposed.
- Percentage Analysis: to process data obtained from surveys.

The **object of study** of this diploma paper is the elaboration of the proposal of a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs. The **field of action** is lexicography.

The sample

In order to develop this study, a non-probabilistic sample encompassing three monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries was selected. One of the dictionaries was The Second Edition Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary (2007), which covers more than 6,000 common British and American phrasal verbs. Another dictionary chosen was the Second Edition Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary (2006), which facilitates information on phrasal verbs grammar and usage. The other dictionary was MacMillan Phrasal Verbs Plus (2005), which shows over 1,000 of the most frequently used phrasal verbs in English. This sample was carefully chosen taking into account the following criteria:

currency, number of entries, coverage, source, dictionary type (learner's and monolingual) and regional usage (British or American)

Practical contribution

The contribution of this diploma paper lies in its applied usefulness. The students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas, need to improve their lexical competence with respect to phrasal verbs in order to diminish their difficulties when translating them into Spanish.

From the point of view of translation, it contributes with a new product in Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas, considering not only Spanish equivalents for phrasal verbs used in American English, but also in British English.

Since it is presented as an Android app, the bilingual dictionary of phrasal verbs proposed can be utilized as a vital aid for homework and translation that students can consult either inside or outside the classroom setting by using their mobile devices (smartphones, tablets).

Structure of the diploma paper

This diploma paper is structured into two chapters:

In **chapter I** are outlined the theoretical foundations of the diploma paper. In this first part, general and theoretical definitions and concepts are presented in six main sections including matters concerning translation, phrasal verbs, lexicography and lexicology, dictionary typologies, bilingual and bilingualized dictionaries as well as the use of Information and communication technologies (ICTs) in education.

In **chapter II** are described the macrostructure and microstructure of the dictionary. There are also presented the research stages, results, as well as the specialists' considerations on the validity of the dictionary proposed.

The diploma paper is completed with the conclusions, followed by the recommendations, references and annexes.

Chapter 1:

Theoretical Foundations

Chapter 1 – Theoretical Foundations

This chapter is divided into six main sections. The first section is devoted to translation, its typologies and the main problems translators may encounter during the translation process. The second section deals with phrasal verbs as a common lexical translation problem, their diverse typologies, evolution, and the core translation challenges they pose to non-native English learners. The third section is concerned with lexicography, its link with lexicology, as well as the use of the database for lexicographical purposes. The fourth section elaborates on dictionaries as tools for translators, their typologies, the macrostructure and microstructure of bilingual dictionaries, as well as the advantages of bilingualized or hybrid dictionaries. The fifth section deals with the use of new technologies in education, emphasizing on the pedagogical impact of mobile technology. Finally, the last section presents the partial conclusions of the chapter.

1.1 Translation

Generally, translation is a process of rendering meaning, ideas, or messages of a text from one language to another. This process is mainly related to the accuracy, clarity and naturalness of the meaning, ideas, or messages of the translation. This means that it is crucial to consider whether the readers of the target text accept equivalent information as the readers of the source text do. These considerations are clarified in some definitions of translation stated by some experts.

Peter Newmark in *A Texbook of Translation* (1988) asserts that translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text. This definition stresses on rendering meaning of the source language text into the target language text as what is intended by the author.

Hatim and Munday (2004) define translation as *"the process of transferring a written text from a source language (SL) to target language (TL)"*. In this definition they do not explicitly express that the object being transferred is meaning or message. They emphasize on translation as a process.

Nida and Taber (1982), on the other hand, state that *"translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message"*. This definition is more comprehensive than the previous ones. Nida and Taber explicitly state that translation is closely related to the problems of languages, meaning, and equivalence.

From the definitions mentioned above, it can be concluded that translation is a process which is intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text.

1.1.1 Translation typologies

There are some kinds of translation that have their own characteristics and forms. According to Roda P. Roberts (2013) the existing translation typologies fall into two major categories which have relatively little in common: those which have been established from the point of view of translation studies and those which have been proposed from the point of view of the translation profession. The focus of the former is more on classifying translations on the basis of the source text, while the latter concentrates on classification on the basis of the target text produced by the process of translation.

Jean Delisle (1980) identifies eight classes of translations on the basis of four distinct characteristics. A) According to the function of the source text, he distinguishes between *pragmatic translation* and *literary translation*. The former involves the translation of a predominantly informative text, whereas the latter covers the translation of a text in which the expressive and aesthetic functions predominate. B) According to the degree of specialization in the source text, he differentiates between *general translation*, which requires little or no specialized knowledge, and *specialized translation*, which does call for such specialized knowledge. C) According to the general purpose of translating, he separates *academic translation*, whose goal is language acquisition for the translator, from *professional translation*, whose objective is the transmission of a message to a translation user. D) According to the translation approach used in producing the target text, he makes a distinction between *transcoding*, which results in word equivalence, and *translation* (proper), which produces message equivalence.

More sophisticated is Peter Newmark's classification (1988), in which three of the characteristics identified by Delisle reappear. A) According to the function of the source text, Newmark distinguishes between *translation of an expressive text*, which focuses on the author and his style, *translation of an informative text*, which emphasizes the content, and *translation of a vocative text*, where the focus is on the reader. B) According to the style of the source text, he differentiates between *translation of narration*, *translation of description*, *translation of discussion*, and *translation of dialogue*. C) According to the content or subject matter of the source text, he makes a distinction between *scientific-technological translation*, *institutional-cultural translation*, and *literary translation*. D) According to the general purpose of translating, he separates *translation for language teaching* from *translation for professional purposes*. Finally, E) according to the translation approach used in producing the target text, he distinguishes primarily between two main types of translation: *semantic translation*, which attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning, and *communicative translation*, which attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original.

Nonetheless, Barbara Snell and Patricia Crampton's classification (1983) is based on seven characteristics, six of which focus on the translation itself. A) According to the content, degree of style and function of the source text, they distinguish between *literary translation* (which includes books of all kinds, literary and scientific); *translation of promotional and instructional material* (covering advertising copy, publicity, service manuals, etc.); and *translation of informatory material* (such as legal and official documents and scientific papers). B) According to the general purpose of translating, they differentiate between *non-commercial translation* (which is done for pleasure or as a language acquisition exercise) and *professional translation* (which is undertaken for a customer against remuneration). C) According to the function of the translation, they make a distinction between *translation for publication* and *translation for information*. D) According to the degree of style involved in the translation, they discriminate between *literary translation* (where style is most important), *translation of informatory material* (where style is least important) and *translation of promotional and instructional material* (where style may be important). E) According to the integrality of the translation, they separate *translation* (proper) (e.g. translation of a full text) from *extraction of information*

(e.g. summary translation). F) According to the direction of the translation, they distinguish between *translation into the mother tongue* and *translation out of the mother tongue*. G) According to the medium of the translation, they differentiate between *written translation* and *oral (or spoken word) translation* (the latter covering not only interpreting, but also dubbing, subtitling, and translating aloud for a customer).

Though every author has his/her particular view with respect to translation typologies, the three above-mentioned classifications are, on the whole, very accurate and have many coinciding elements; nevertheless, the present paper follows Delisle's classification, inasmuch as it is in line with the present research.

1.1.2 Translation problems

Translation is essentially a decision-making process that requires a combination of language ability, subject-specific knowledge, intuition, research skills, and judgment. Translators must rely not only on linguistic clues appearing in the document, but also on extra-linguistic knowledge. They must be able to understand and appreciate distinctions made in the source language of the document to be translated, and to make equivalent distinctions in the target language of the translation. Since this is no easy task, during the translation process, translators may encounter many problems that could prevent them from finding the appropriate equivalent in the target language. According to Ghazala (1995), these problems are either phonological, grammatical, stylistic or lexical.

Phonological problems are concerned with sounds. They occur when the translator ignores how to transmit a particular sound, keeping the same meaning, into an appropriate equivalent in the target language. They are strictly encountered in literature and advertising. Grammatical problems arise when two languages have different etymological origins. This disparity in origins causes a difference in grammar and creates wide gaps for learners when translating. Stylistic problems are concerned with style, as it is a part of meaning, and its effect on words and grammar. The degree of formality and informality is a problem in translation, since it strongly affects meaning. Finally, lexical problems occur due to the misunderstanding or the total ignorance of the words meaning. Lexical problems which may be encountered when translating can be classified as synonyms, collocations, idioms, metaphors, etc.

Summing up, we can say that translation is, on the whole, seen as a process which is intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text. This process is generally classified into pragmatic translation, literary translation, general translation, specialized translation, academic translation, professional translation, transcoding, and translation (proper). Furthermore, there are phonological, grammatical, stylistic, and lexical problems which may be encountered during the translation process and therefore prevent translators from finding the appropriate equivalent in the target text.

1.2 Phrasal verbs: a common lexical translation problem

One of the most frequent lexical problems foreign learners of English, particularly Spanish speakers face in the translation process is the translation of phrasal verbs. Therefore, the following section will deal with this common linguistic feature of the English language, its typologies, as well as non-native students' challenges when translating it.

Phrasal verbs have always tended to play a rather marginal role in English linguistics which does not do justice to the facts. Although having been thoroughly defined by researchers as to their special models of expression, semantic and syntactic features, phrasal verbs create problems for language learners, partly because there are so many of them, but also because the combination of verb and particle so often seems totally arbitrary. According to Kiss Katalin (2011), these difficulties are sometimes further increased by the way in which phrasal verbs are presented in course books or by teachers telling students that they will just have to learn them by heart, thereby implying that there is no system. However, if one looks closely at the combination of verb and particle, patterns start to emerge which suggest that the combinations are not so arbitrary after all.

In her thesis, researcher Kiss Katalin (2011) notes that phrasal verbs are also referred to by many other names such as *verb-adverb compound* (Kennedy, 1920), *compound verb* (Kruisinga, 1932), *verb-particle combination* (1976), *multiword verb* (Sag, Baldwin, Bond, Copestake, & Flickinger, 2002), *collocations*, in which "a simplex

verb collocates with a particle" (Lipka, 1972), and in American English *two-part word* (verb) and *three-part word* (verb). The most recent approaches do not regard phrasal verbs as multiword verbs. Most of them are found in the generative camp and attempt a study of phrasal verbs in terms of a small clause interpretation trying to solve some theoretical syntactic problems, but seem to disregard important semantic and communicative implications regarding phrasal verbs (Aarts, 1989).

According to Emilie Riguel (2013), there is no universal definition of phrasal verb. Indeed, as underlined by Gardner and Davies (Gardner & Davies, 2007), *"linguists and grammarians struggle with nuances of phrasal verb definitions"*. One of the reasons for this lack of consensus is that some linguists qualify phrasal verbs as the combination of a verb and a preposition or an adverbial particle whereas others only consider a phrasal verb as a verb followed by an adverbial particle (Sawyer, 2000).

However, in his book *The Oxford Companion to the English Language* (1992), Tom McArthur still uses the widely recognized term "phrasal verb" and describes this linguistic phenomenon as *"a type of verb in English that operates more like a phrase than a word. Such composites derive primarily from verbs of movement and action (go, put, take) and prepositions or adverbial particles of direction and location (up, off, down). The combinations are used both literally and figuratively, and are often idioms or elements in idioms"*.

Overall, the present diploma paper is in accordance with McArthur's definition. Therefore, phrasal verbs are, on the whole, regarded as a type of verb in English in which a verb is followed by a preposition, an adverbial particle or both in order to convey a certain meaning that generally cannot be predicted by the meaning of its constituents.

1.2.1 History and development of phrasal verbs

As Katalin (2011) states, the appearance of phrasal verbs in Old English was quite rare. Much more common was the inseparable *prefix* + *verb*, a form in which the particle was attached to the beginning of the verb. These Old English prefixed forms are directly comparable to current phrasal forms. For example, in present-day English, there is the verb *to burn* and then the phrasal verb *to burn up*. Old English had *bœrman* (to burn)

and *forbœrnan* (to burn up). The prefix *for-* remained affixed to the verb and could not move as modern particles can. Such Old English compound verbs were also highly idiomatic, so the meaning of the compound form did not necessarily reflect the meaning of the root. Denison (1993) provides *berœdan* as an example which meant “to dispossess”, while its root verb, *rœdan*, meant “to advise”.

Prefixed verbs in Old English were no longer productive in Middle English, and the loss of productivity was already evident in Old English, in which certain authors added a post-verbal particle to prefixed verbs, possibly because the prefix was losing meaning (Denison, 1985). Stress patterns also likely account for a shift, as prefixes in Old English compound verbs were unstressed, while post-verbal particles carried stress, making them stronger and thus preserving their lexical value. According to Fischer (1992), the rapid borrowing of French verbs into Middle English slowed the development of phrasal verbs because of competition in semantic fields, as French brought in Romance verbs that could fill the semantic fields of the Old English prefixed verbs.

Middle English underwent a shift in syntax from SOV (Subject + Object + Verb) to SVO (Subject + Verb + Object) as it lost many synthetic inflections (and consequently possible word orders) of Old English, becoming a much more analytic (or word-order based) language (Katalin, 2011). The new VO word order, in the opinion of Akimoto (1999), likely enabled the prefixes of Old English to become post-positioned adverbial particles. In other words, Old English *forbrecan* became *‘to break up’*.

By late Middle English, phrasal verbs could be divided into three categories: (a) Old English-style inseparable prefix + verb (understand, overtake); (b) phrasal verbs including verb + separable particle (take up, write up); and (c) nominal compounds derived from the first two (outcry, write-off) (Fischer, 1992).

By the Modern English period, verbal prefixes were no longer productive and the phrasal verb was fully established in the language. This is the period marked by the appearance of a more complex form, the three-part phrasal-prepositional verb, which includes a verb, a post-positioned particle, and a complementary prepositional phrase (Katalin, 2011). Examples of the first type include *put up with* and *do away with*, which

qualify as phrasal verbs because they can be translated by the single verbs “tolerate” and “abolish”, although their particles are not movable.

A second variation of phrasal-prepositional verbs in Present-Day English takes a movable particle around a noun-phrase direct object as well as a complementary prepositional phrase, as in *She **fixed** her friend **up** with her cousin/She **fixed up** her friend with her cousin*. Thus, particle movement is a useful tool to analyze transitive phrasal verbs (Katalin, 2011).

Overall, the following considerations are highlighted: phrasal verbs developed because Old English prefixes were deteriorating and this deterioration came about because it became impossible to establish clear-cut meanings for them. Post-verbal particles started to increase in Middle English and caused the decline of verbal prefixes. Semantically, the particles started to undergo semantic extensions, for example, shift from concrete directional meaning to less concrete. The expansion of phrasal verbs occurred with the adoption of the Subject + Verb + Object (SVO) word-order. Finally, Present-Day English phrasal verbs became identifiable primarily by particle movement (when transitive) and stress.

1.2.2 Types of phrasal verbs

As stated by Sidney Greenbaum (1996) in her grammar book *The Oxford English Grammar*, phrasal verbs are combinations of verbs with other words that form an idiomatic unit, inasmuch as the meaning of the combination cannot be predicted from the meaning of the parts. There are degrees of idiomaticity. The contribution of both the verb and the particle may be opaque, as in *give in* ('surrender') and *carry on* ('continue'). The most frequent types of phrasal verbs consist of a verb in combination with one or more particles, a term used for words that do not take inflections. The particles in such combinations are either adverbs or prepositions.

Greenbaum (1996) distinguishes seven types of verbs with particles:

1. Intransitive phrasal verbs, e.g. *give in* ('surrender')
2. Transitive phrasal verbs, e.g. *find* (something) *out* ('discover')

3. Mono-transitive prepositional verbs, e.g. *look after* ('take care of')
4. Doubly transitive prepositional verbs, e.g. blame (something) on
5. Copular prepositional verbs, e.g. *serve as*
6. Mono-transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs, e.g. *look up to* ('respect')
7. Doubly transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs, e.g. put (something) down to ('attribute to').

In addition, she calls them multiword verbs and classifies them, on the whole, into phrasal verbs (verbs followed by an adverbial particle), prepositional verbs (verbs followed by a prepositional particle) and phrasal-prepositional verbs (in which the first particle is an adverb and the second is a preposition).

Other grammarians such as L. G. Alexander (1998) employ the widely used term *phrasal verb* to refer to an expression that consists of a lexical verb plus an adverb or a preposition or both and adverb and a preposition. This time, he presents a more comprehensive typology classifying them into four types:

Type 1: verb + preposition (transitive)

- Verb + preposition + object (non-idiomatic) *"**look at** the camera"*
- Verb + object + preposition + object (non-idiomatic). The first object is a direct object and the second object is a prepositional object, introduced by a preposition: *"No-one will **blame** you **for** a genuine mistake"; "**tell** me **about** it"*
- Verb + preposition + object (idiomatic) *"**get over** an illness"*

Type 2: verb + particle (transitive). It consists of a verb and an adverb, but they take a direct object. The adverb is generally separable and may appear either before or after the direct object

- Verb + particle + object (idiomatic): *"What **brought about** this change?"/"What **brought** this change **about**?"; She **gave away** her books/She **gave** her books **away***

Type 3: verb + particle (intransitive). It consists of a verb and an adverb, and they do not have an object

- Verb + particle (intransitive, non-idiomatic): *"I thought you were going to **shut up**"; "**Hurry up!**"*
- Verb + particle (intransitive, idiomatic): *"She **broke down** when she heard the news"*

Type 4: verb + particle + preposition (transitive). They consist of a verb and two particles, the first an adverb and the second a preposition

- Verb + particle + preposition + object (non-idiomatic) *"**Walk up** to the top"*
- Verb + particle + preposition + object (idiomatic) *"How do you **put up with** it?"*

Both typologies are accurate and therefore highly used in many grammar books. Nonetheless, the present paper will follow L. G. Alexander's approach inasmuch as it is in accord with the topic of research.

1.2.3 Non-native English learners' challenges when translating phrasal verbs

There has been considerable discussion about the challenges imposed by phrasal verbs to foreign learners of English, especially Spanish speakers. Indeed, not only may verb-particle constructions have reduced syntactic flexibility, but they may also be semantically more figurative.

Accordingly, for some cases, the meaning of a phrasal verb turns out to be difficult to infer from its component words. For instance, the phrasal verb *'to play something down'* does not have to do with a playing event and it rather means 'to minimize the importance of something'.

In addition, many phrasal verbs are polysemous, making the task of grasping their different meanings even more difficult for learners. Therefore, the interpretation of such ambiguous forms can only be solved by using the context. The following examples illustrate the case of ***'make up'***, a highly polysemous phrasal verb:

1. *"Come on, Annie. Let's **make up**."* (to become friendly with someone again after an argument)

2. *Full of cynical amusement, she continued to stare at herself until inspired, she started to* ***make up*** *her face carefully, emphasizing her brown eyes with liner, and smoky eyeshadow, and dusting her high cheekbones with blusher* (to put makeup on someone's face)
3. *You could* ***make up*** *a whole story. On no real evidence. It would change all sorts of things* (to invent a story, often in order to deceive)
4. *The girl in the chemist's shop said the chemist would* ***make up*** *the prescription the minute he got back from the bank* (to prepare/arrange something)
5. *I understand life, and the family ties that* ***make up*** *almost all of it* (to form/constitute something)
6. *"Give me time to* ***make up*** *my mind. I promise I'll do everything I can to help the rest of you."* (to come to/reach a decision about something)
7. *"I'd be ever so appreciative if you could, lass. And as I'm putting you out on your half-day I'll* ***make*** *it* ***up*** *to you, there will be something extra by way of a thank you in your pay packet on Friday."* (to do something good that helps someone to feel better after you have caused him/her trouble)
8. *Since the plant manager was never able to* ***make up*** *a day's loss of output which pulled down his monthly overall efficiency figures on, which he was judged, it was never difficult for Clasper to prove his point* (to replace something that has been lost, to compensate for something)
9. *"Here's your chance to* ***make up*** *for the naughty things you've done to me."* (to do something that corrects a bad situation)
10. *"You hypocrite, stop* ***making up*** *to my sisters and playing the shining knight, I saw you go to communion today, and it made me sick."* (to be pleasant to somebody, to praise somebody, especially in order to get an advantage for yourself)

All these examples taken from the British National Corpus (BNC) (Mark, 2015) clearly show that the context helps to eliminate ambiguity and makes sense of the various meanings of '*make up'.*

Given their complexity and their unpredictable nature, phrasal verbs can be difficult to both understand and memorize for non-English speakers in the current

language experience (Coady, 1997). They are a source of confusion and ambiguity - in terms of idiomaticity and polysemy, in particular (Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003) - in such a way that Sinclair (1996) called them *'the scourge of the learner'*.

Accordingly, second language learners of English tend to adopt an avoidance strategy with respect to phrasal verbs, preferring most of the time using single-word verbs of Latin origin. This idea of avoidance has been clearly emphasized by Bywater (1969): *"The plain fact is that what distinguishes the writing and, above all, the speech of a good foreign student from those of an Englishman is that what an Englishman writes or says is full of these expressions, whereas most foreigners are frightened of them, carefully avoid them, and sound stilted in consequence. Foreign students who enjoy being flattered on their English can best achieve this by correctly using masses of these compound verbs."*

Furthermore, in her paper *Phrasal Verbs, "The Scourge of the Learner"* (2014) Emilie Riguel highlights other difficulties such as style deficiency, lack of collocational awareness, as well as syntactic errors. Regarding style deficiency, she points out that non-English learners are somewhat unaware of the existing differences between informal speech and formal writing. As a result, they tend to use phrasal verbs belonging to the informal or colloquial register, or even slang, in formal contexts and/or writings (and vice versa).

Non-native learners of English are also unaware of the special and privileged relationships which naturally exist between certain words within a statement, and they tend to combine awkwardly and in an inappropriate manner some phrasal verbs with other words, as illustrated by the following statements: *"Usually they had to marry and **set up** a family"; "Anyway, it is also true that others problems have showed up as consequences of the fights that have been **carried out**"*. In the first example, the student should have used the singe-word verb *start* in this context (start a family) instead of the phrasal verb *set up*. In the following example, the student should have used the phrasal verb *put up* instead of *carry out*. Indeed, the phrasal verb *put up* something means "to show a particular level of skill, determination, etc. in a fight or contest". As a result, *put up* perfectly fits with the given context (Riguel, 2014).

Lastly, non-native learners of English are unaware of the syntactic properties of phrasal verbs and they transitively use phrasal verbs, and vice versa, as the following sentences illustrate: *"Although parents use light or heavy manners in* ***growing up*** *their children, they are not able to control the future and the idea of having to pay a large sum of money for their children's offences"; "Then, the hormones having ceased to be excessively produced, which is only after two or three years, he or she begins to look for another love,* ***splitting up*** *the relationship"*. In the first example, the student transitively used the phrasal verb *grow up*, which is, however, intransitive. He should have used the transitive phrasal verb *bring up*. In the second example, the student transitively used the intransitive phrasal verb *split up*. He should have used the transitive one-word verb *end* or the transitive phrasal verb *end up* (Riguel, 2014).

In short, phrasal verbs are also referred to as verb-adverb compound, compound verb, verb-particle combination, multiword verbs, collocations, two-part verb, and three-part verb. They are generally regarded as the combination of a verb and a preposition or an adverbial particle or both, and are generally classified into verbs + preposition (transitive), verbs + adverb (transitive and separable), verbs + adverb (intransitive), and verb + adverb + preposition (transitive). Phrasal verbs had no significant incidence in Old English; however, in Modern English they were completely established in the language. This linguistic phenomenon poses many difficulties to non-native learners of English especially due to style deficiency, lack of collocational awareness, as well as syntactic errors.

1.3 Lexicography

It is widely recognized that one of the best strategies to avoid encountering lexical problems while translating phrasal verbs is using dictionaries, fundamentally dictionaries specialized on this linguistic phenomenon. Therefore, it is pertinent to refer to lexicography as the process and theory of making dictionaries.

Several definitions have been provided for the word *Lexicography*. Whereas the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary (Eleventh Edition)* (2004) defines it as simply "the

practice of compiling dictionaries", *Merriam-Webster's 11th Collegiate Dictionary* (2003) facilitates a more explanatory definition: "the editing or making of a dictionary; the principles and practices of dictionary making". However, none of these definitions is satisfactory since no provision for the theoretical component is made and no details regarding the compilation process are given. Perhaps a more accurate explanation of lexicography is illustrated in the *Dictionary of Lexicography* (Hartmann & James, 1998), in which the scholarly discipline is defined as: *"the professional activity and academic field concerned with dictionaries and other reference books. It has two basic divisions: lexicographic practice, or dictionary-making, and lexicographic theory, or dictionary research"*.

In *Lexicography: A Dictionary of Basic Terminology* (Burkhanov, 1998) an extensive treatment of lexicography is found. Lexicography is regarded as a domain of applied linguistics, a branch of information science, a subject field whose theoretical aspect falls within the realm of theoretical linguistics, whereas its practice pertains to the sphere of applied linguistics. Burkhanov (1998) also refers to the fact that lexicography has been successfully developing its own theory. He also argues that the term lexicography refers to the process, result, and theoretical evaluation, of the making of reference works which represent a wide range of heterogeneous knowledge structures.

Many authors consider lexicography to be divided into two related areas. The act of writing or editing dictionaries is known as Practical Lexicography, whereas the analysis or description of the vocabulary of a particular language, and the meaning that link certain words to others in a dictionary, is known as Theoretical Lexicography. Theoretical Lexicography is particularly concerned with developing theories regarding the structural and semantic relationships among words in the dictionary. Since it involves theoretical analysis of the lexicon, Theoretical Lexicography is also known as Metalexicography (Bergernholtz & Gouws, 2012).

The present diploma paper regards lexicography as the theory and process of making and editing dictionaries, which can be divided into Practical Lexicography and Theoretical Lexicography.

1.3.1 Lexicography from earliest times to the present

Lexicography, the art and craft of dictionary making, has an important place in the history of language study. We find that dictionaries and glossaries of various types (monolingual and bilingual, general and technical, etc.) were compiled and used extensively from the early age of civilization in China, India, Middle East, Greece, and Rome. The earliest known prototypes of dictionary were the West Asian bilingual word lists, dating from the Second Millennium BC. The word list contained the Sumerian and Akkadian words inscribed in parallel columns on clay tablets in cuneiform writing. The contents were organized thematically, as thesauruses, for easy and quick reference.

The Chinese tradition of dictionary making is very old. The first known lexicographic work in China is *Shizhou*, which dates back to the 9th century BC. Unfortunately, this work did not survive. After a gap of centuries, during the Han Dynasty (206 BC – 220 AD), the art of lexicography was revived as a part of resurgence in literature. At that time, dictionaries such as *Shuōwén Jiězì* and *Erya* were valuable reference works for understanding the ancient classics. In the later period, particularly during the Tang (618 AD – 907 AD) and the Song dynasties, a few more dictionaries like *Yupian*, *Qieyun*, and *Guangyun* were compiled (Shiqui, 1982).

An altogether different style of dictionary preparation flourished in ancient India. It started with the collection of obscure words as exemplified in the *Nigahntus*, continued with formation of one of the bases of *Nirukta* and the *Padapatha* during the first millennium BC, and ended with a large group of *Kosas* composed during the past fifteen to seven hundred years after the Christian era began. Thus, a continuous activity of dictionary making in ancient India provided models for later lexicographical works in the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages in India (Katre, 1980).

Although there was a rich Indian tradition of lexicographical works, it was hardly ever adopted for modern Indian languages. The advent of European scholars (missionaries as well as non-missionaries) helped the Indian scholars to adapt an altogether new method for dictionary compilation in modern India. In fact, the production of several bilingual and trilingual dictionaries in various Indian languages with direct involvement of the Western missionaries, had a lasting impact on Indian scholars who

applied the westernized lexicographical tradition to the Indian languages. The format of presentation, ordering of lexical entries, and the composition of dictionaries were more or less modeled after the dictionaries produced in the West (Dash, 2005).

The lexicographic tradition in Iran dates back to the pre-Islamic period. The oldest dictionaries are the *Qim* and *Pahlavic* dictionaries, both of which were compiled during the Sassanian Dynasty between the first and seventh centuries. The first dictionaries of modern Persian (or Farsi) were compiled in the 9th century due to the growth and spread of Persian literature (Nafisi, 1999). The history of Persian lexicography is divided into three periods. In the first, prior to the 14th century, Iran and Central Asia were the main centers of dictionary making, and Persian dictionaries were compiled in Farsi-speaking regions. With the spread of Persian to neighboring countries and its acceptance as the language of the Royal court and literature in the subcontinent and Turkey, India became the major center of lexicographic activity. This second period lasted from the 14th century to the 19th century. Since the second half of the 19th century, there has been continuous growth of lexicographic work and research in Iran. Different kinds of dictionaries have been compiled and published, their main characteristic being a strong encyclopedic orientation. These efforts have resulted in the formation of hundreds of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries (Taherian, 1998).

Dictionaries are not only vast, systematic inventories of minutiae concerning lexical items; they are also vehicles that disseminate such information, thereby encouraging the growth and preservation of cohesive cultural and linguistic conventions in a language community. This disseminative role only began to realize its full potential with the invention of printing, so that identical copies of a work, however large, could be printed off and distributed within a very few days. Before the invention of printing in the mid fifteenth century, each copy of a work had to be laboriously written out by hand. Thus, the invention of printing is of the greatest importance in the history of lexicography (Dash, 2005).

In Europe, “the earliest ‘list of words’ that might be said to constitute the beginnings of English lexicography were the glossaries of Anglo-Saxon priests and schoolmen, compiled to enable those whose competence in Latin was lacking to read in

Latin manuscripts" (Jackson, 1988). These glossaries were essentially lists of words of Latin words with English glosses. The *Promptorium Parvulorum* ('Storehouse [of words] for children'), published around1440, was an English-Latin dictionary that contained around twelve thousand entries in alphabetical order with verbs and nouns listed separately. One of the first printed English-Latin lexicons is known as John Withals' *Shorte Dictionarie for Young Begynners* (1553) which had a thematic arrangement of words. The term 'dictionary' in the title of this book was a sixteenth-century borrowing from the Latin *dictionarium* ('the collection of words'). It is in these English-Latin dictionaries of the Renaissance period that we should perhaps recognize the beginnings of the English lexicography (Jackson, 1988).

The first monolingual English dictionary is attributed to Robert Cawdrey, the author of *A Table Alphabeticall* (1640). It contained nearly 3,000 lexical items with short definitions. Other monolingual dictionaries followed, including John Bulloker's *An English Expositor* (1616), Henry Cokerman's *The English Dictionary* (1623), Thomas Blount's *Glossographia* (1656), Edward Phillips's *The New World of English Words* (1658), John Kersey's *A New English Dictionary* (1702), and Nathan Bailey's *Dictionarium Britannicum* (1730) (Dash, 2005).

Nonetheless, as Niladri Sekhar Dash (2005) states, the credit for the first most comprehensive, reliable and exemplary dictionary in English always goes to Samuel Johnson's *The Dictionary of The English Language* (1755). It was followed by a series of dictionaries published in English during the 18th and the 19th century. Some of the most notable examples were James Buchanan's *Linguae Britannicae* (1757), William Johnston's *Pronouncing and Spelling Dictionary* (1764), John Entick's *Spelling Dictionary* (1764), and Thomas Sheridan's *A General Dictionary of the English Language* (1780). This history of English lexicography took a completely new turn with the publication of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1882) under the competent editorship of John Murray (Dash, 2005). Another worth mentioning exemplary of English lexicography are the Merriam-Webster's dictionaries (Hanks, 2013). These dictionaries trace their history back to the *American Dictionary of the English Language* which contained no less than 70,000 entries and were compiled by the polemical lexicographer Noah Webster in 1828.

1.3.2 Lexicographical database

It was previously mentioned the impact of the invention of printing on Renaissance lexicography. Nevertheless, Patrick Hanks (2013) states that a comparable impact was achieved in modern lexicography with the creation of computational databases.

About 30 years ago, much dictionary making was done without the use of a database. From the selected data, which was typically stored on written cards collected in boxes, one and only dictionary was produced. At that time, dictionaries were mainly polyfunctional dictionaries containing almost all the selected data (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013). Nowadays, the situation has changed, since there is no current dictionary project that does not use a database. This is reflected in the lexicographical literature, but in quite a disappointing way as you are never really told what a database is or how the specific database is structured.

Many contributions about lexicographical databases have in common that you can see that lexicographers use the term database without demonstrating a clear understanding of what a database really is. In reality, many, perhaps most lexicographical discussions of databases in theoretical contributions are not really informative; sometimes they are even misleading. The following quotation gives the impression that the database and the dictionary are the same:

“The Multilingual Dictionary of Lexicographical Terms (MDLT) is an electronic dictionary available on the Internet. The content of this database and the detailed description of the entries serve many purposes. For translators, the system has term equivalents in different languages and related terms, which may help them make adequate translations from one language into other(s). Beginners can find many interesting facts in the introductory part, which is available in both English and Russian. Transcriptions will help users to pronounce terms correctly” (Krestova & Nürnberg, 2015).

If the user interface for the lexicographers is exactly the same as the user interface for the dictionary users, it could be said that a database and a dictionary is the same. In reality, the user interface is not the database, but this term is often used as a

practical expression for the presentation of the fields from the database. Normally, the user interface is not the same for lexicographers and users, however, it seems that no real differentiation is made between a database, the dictionary planning, the dictionary production and the dictionary.

Nevertheless, some specialists such as Bergenholtz and Nielsen have elaborated on the description of a database by providing definitions of a more technical kind, but still in a way so that non-specialists can understand them. They regard a database as *a structured collection of values. (…) A structured collection could be a table, but other options exist. For lexicographical applications, tables would be the preferred choice. A directory structure that only consists of text files could also be a database. (…) By values, we refer to the entities that you could choose to store in the database. These might take the form of strings, numbers, dates, etc.* (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013)

By saving these values in a structured manner, the database management system can search for given values, retrieve all values of a certain kind or sort a given collection of values. A Database Management System (DBMS) is *a software designed to allow the definition, creation, querying, update, and administration of databases*. To clarify this definition: if you were to choose Excel, the files created by Excel (even before the first amount of data is put in and before it is saved) would be the database, and Excel itself would be the DBMS. The structure enforced on the data is the *database schema* (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013).

Nonetheless, the DBMS does not provide a way of accessing and modifying data for anyone but specialists. Therefore, there is still a missing piece: the User Interface (UI), which is *the space where interaction between humans and machines occurs* (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013).

The three above-mentioned definitions together form what most people call a "database": The database provides useful data through the DBMS to the user in a UI. This more granular definition allows us to talk about the process of creating, modifying and using a database in new ways. A database contains data, and this data can be searched for and presented in different ways. For lexicographical databases, this means

that a database is not a dictionary. From one database, you can create different information tools (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013).

Every database is constructed for use within a narrow or a broad field. If a database is used for its designed function, we can speak about a genuine use of the database; if not, we speak about a non-genuine use. For example, Excel is conceived as a spreadsheet processor; this is the genuine use of Excel. But Excel can also be used and is used in dictionary projects; this is a non-genuine use of Excel. Different databases designed to be used in lexicographical work will be different according to the need of the lexicographical project. From these considerations, it can be said that a Lexicographical Database is a database constructed to contain lexicographical data (Bergenholtz & Nielsen, 2013).

Because the text is compiled in a database or structured text file and because each dictionary entry has a basic uniformity of structure, the dictionary text can be run through a typesetting program and output page proofs in a matter of hours rather than months. This aspect of lexicographical technology encouraged the editors of such dictionaries to ride roughshod over the traditional distinction between a dictionary and an encyclopedia, and to take the view instead that a dictionary is a sort of collective cultural index, which must summarize, for the practical benefit of users, all the most salient cognitive and social features associated with the meaning of every word and name that is in common currency.

1.3.3 Lexicography and lexicology

Another key feature in dictionary making is lexicology, which many specialists regard as being closely related to lexicography. Both words derived from Greek *lexikos*, an adjective derived from the noun *lexis* meaning “speech” or “word”. While lexicology means “science of words” (*lexicos* ‘of word’ + *logos* ‘science’), lexicography means “writing of words” (*lexicos* ‘of word’ + *graphē* ‘writing’) (Dash, 2005). Although both fields are interrelated due to their common concerns for words or lexical units, lexicography depends heavily on lexicology in many ways.

Words and their features are studied by both lexicology and lexicography. The sum total of all the words available in a language forms the vocabulary or the lexical stock of that language. Although each word is an independent linguistic entity, it is indirectly related to other lexical items both paradigmatically and syntagmatically. While the paradigmatic relation is based on the interdependence of words within the lexical system, syntagmatic relations show words in their patterns of arrangement. The vocabulary of a language is not an arbitrary frame of diversified phenomena; it is a well-defined system that consists of elements which, although independent, are interrelated in some ways or others (Dash, 2005).

As a phonological, grammatical and semantic unit, a word is made of by a particular group of sounds, and it has grammatical and semantic functions. Lexicology studies a word in all these aspects exploring the patterns of its phonological, morphological and contextual behavior as well as semantic relationships. A word often undergoes changes in its form and meaning with respect to its origin resulting from its development and current usage. Since a word does not occur in isolation, its combinatory possibilities are also studied in lexicology including phrasal, idiomatic and proverbial functions (Dash, 2005).

The domain of lexicology is both diachronic (historical) and synchronic (descriptive). From the diachronic viewpoint it deals with the origin and development of the form and meaning of lexical units in a particular language across the time scale. From the synchronic perspective it studies various aspects of the vocabulary of a language at a particular point of time (Dash, 2005). This implies that in lexicology words cannot be studied in isolation without close reference to other fields.

Form another point of view, the lexicological study of words can be general and special. While general lexicology is concerned with general features of words common to all languages, special lexicology studies words with reference to a particular language. Furthermore, lexicological studies can be comparative and contrastive, based on the lexical systems of any two languages (Dash, 2005). Functionally, lexicology fulfills the needs of different branches of applied linguistics such as lexicography, stylistics, etc.

Lexicography also studies lexicon but from a different angle. While lexicology concentrates on the general properties and features that can be viewed as systematic, lexicography typically deals with the individuality of each lexical unit (Zgusta L. , 1973). Whereas lexicology studies words as elements of a system, lexicography approaches words as individual units with respect to their meaning and usage. We use a dictionary in order to learn about words in the process of language learning, comprehending a text in a better way or checking correct spellings and pronunciations of words, etc.

A word may have varied sets of characteristics, all of which may not be needed to a dictionary maker, since his work is mostly guided by the purpose of the dictionary and the type of users. Words are presented in a dictionary in such a way that they can be accessed in real life situations. Whereas a lexicologist presents materials according to his view of the study of vocabulary, a lexicographer is guided by the principle of convenience in the retrieval of data (Dash, 2005).

In principle, lexicology provides a theoretical basis to lexicography. A dictionary maker may know all the semantic details of a lexical unit, but he has to decide which details will be included in the definition. Lexicological study of words is governed by theories of semantics and word formation. In lexicography, on the other hand, definitions are often subjective and are not free from the bias of a dictionary maker (Dash, 2005).

Lexicology is not language specific, since it deals with universal features of words. Lexicography is more or less language specific is spite of its universal theoretical background. Lexicography has no other relevance except for its practical applicability. Lexicology is more theory orientated while lexicography is more concrete in application of theories (Doroszewski, 1973).

Lexicology usually covers a wide range of interests and approaches to lexical study. It includes reconstruction of meaning and semantic change of words, lexical variation and change across time scale, evolution of vocabulary over centuries, neologism and word-loss within languages, lexical borrowing and derivation over time, structural an etymological analysis of lexical items, etc. with close interface between semantics, syntax, and pragmatics (Coleman & Key, 2000). Lexicography, in contrast, serves as a storehouse of information. In order to perform this task adequately, it

collects information from different sources and presents them within the scope of dictionary users.

Therefore, it can be concluded that lexicography is defined as the process of editing or compiling dictionaries, which has two basic divisions: Practical Lexicography or dictionary-making and Theoretical Lexicography or dictionary research. Its origins are found in the early age of civilization in China, India, Middle East, Greece and Rome, but it began to fully develop with the invention of printing in the Renaissance period. At present, it is completely linked to computer technology, especially in the creation of lexicographical databases for dictionary production. Like the discipline of lexicology, it focuses on words or lexical units. However, the most evident link between the two is that lexicology provides a theoretical basis to lexicography.

1.4 The Dictionary as a Tool for Translators

As it was discussed in the previous section, lexicography is generally approached as the process of compiling or editing dictionaries. Therefore, the following section elaborates on these extraordinary tools for translators, highlighting their typologies, macrostructure and microstructure.

Dictionaries play a vital role in language learning and teaching, not least because they promote learner autonomy. Since asking the teacher is not always an option, a well-chosen dictionary may well be the appropriate choice when it comes to tackling lexical problems encountered in the process of language learning. The ability to solve such problems quickly is generally believed to be the primary advantage of using dictionaries.

A dictionary, as Trench (1958) observed, is an inventory of the words of a language (with explanations of meaning and other information). All the world's major literary languages, as well as some less common ones, have evidently felt the need for such an inventory, and the trend has spread to rare and endangered languages. According to this view, lexicographers are, first and foremost, linguistic inventory clerks.

More accurate definitions can be found on Merriam-Webster's 11th Collegiate Dictionary (version 3.0, 2003), which also include computerized lexicography:

1. *A reference source in print or electronic form containing words usually alphabetically arranged along with information about their forms, pronunciations, functions, etymology, meanings, and syntactic and idiomatic uses.*
2. *A reference book listing alphabetically terms or names important to a particular subject or activity along with discussion of their meanings and applications.*
3. *A reference book listing alphabetically the words of one language and showing their meanings or translations in another language*
4. *A computerized list (as of items of data or words) used for reference (as for information retrieval or word processing)*

As it was previously stated, all the above-mentioned definitions are very accurate. Nonetheless, the present paper follows the first meaning provided by Merriam Webster, inasmuch as it is in line with the topic of research of this diploma paper.

1.4.1 Dictionary typologies

The classification of dictionaries is a very important aspect of lexicography bearing a direct practical significance to the preparation of dictionaries. The entire work of dictionary making from the planning stage to the preparation of press copy, at its different stages, such as collection of materials, selection and setting of entries, and arrangement of entries and their meanings is largely governed on the basis of which the dictionary is classified.

In his *Manual of Lexicography* (1971), Ladislav Zgusta distinguished "the most important types of dictionaries", using a handful of parameters, such as linguistic and encyclopedic data (e.g., linguistic versus encyclopedic dictionaries); the time span (e.g., synchronic versus diachronic dictionaries); the degree of completeness (e.g., general versus restricted dictionaries); the number of languages represented (e.g., monolingual versus bilingual dictionaries); dictionary aims; and dictionary size (e.g., big, medium, and small dictionaries).

More elaborate is Landau's classification (1984) based on 11 criteria: (1) the languages covered; (2) the manner of financing; (3) the age of users; (4) size; (5) the scope in terms of subject range; (6) the scope in terms of lexical coverage; (7) the complexity of the lemma; (8) the primary language of the market; (9) the period of time covered; (10) the linguistic approach; and (11) means of access. Still, like the previous typology, it is not holistic in its approach, being only "a convenient way to highlight significant differences among dictionaries" (Landau, 2001).

Since there is no unique consensus among lexicographers and specialists, the present paper will introduce the main types of dictionaries taking into account different specialists' criteria:

1. Encyclopedic dictionaries: include encyclopedic information having the following features: the inclusion of names of persons, places, and literary works; coverage of all branches of human knowledge; and extensive treatment of facts. The items presented are more of denotational character including names of plants, animals, diseases. They also give historical events, geographical features, and biographical sketches of important personalities. Many items found in linguistic or general dictionaries do not find place in them (function words, verbal forms, and a variety of other words). The information provided is more detailed and relates to the history and the description of the item (Zgusta L. , 1971).
2. Linguistic dictionaries: deal with only the lexical stock, for instance, words as speech material and may be roughly called "word book" (Zgusta L. , 1971).

a) Diachronic dictionaries: Diachronic dictionaries are concerned with the development or change in the form and meaning which the lexical stock of a language underwent during the course of its history (Zgusta L. , 1971).
b) Synchronic dictionaries: Synchronic dictionaries deal with the lexical stock of a language at a given time of its development. First, the concept of synchronic is not synonymous with *contemporary*. Any epoch in the development of language can, at least ideally, be treated synchronically (Zgusta L. , 1971).
c) Restricted or specialized dictionaries: contain either only a limited selection of the vocabulary of a language (e.g., only terminology or only idioms) or provide only

restricted grammatical information on the selected lemmas (e.g., only pronunciation, collocations or meaning), or are restricted in both these aspects (Hausmann, 1989). Restricted dictionaries can be compiled on the basis of certain special lexicon of the total stock of the vocabulary. Some of the important types of dictionaries based on this criterion are: dictionary of obsolete and archaic words, dictionary of borrowed words, dictionary of neologisms, dictionary of proper names, place names, among others (Zgusta L. , 1971).

3. General dictionaries: deal mainly with the general language (in contrast to restricted dictionaries), for instance, with the standard national language as it is generally used (Hausmann, 1989).
4. Monolingual dictionaries: describe the vocabulary of a language by means of one and the same language. In other words, both left-hand side and the right-hand side of the entries make use of one and the same language. It is normally intended for the users who are native speakers of the language (Hausmann, 1989).
5. Bilingual dictionaries: show how lexical units of one language (source language) can be coordinated with those lexical units of another language (target language) which are equivalent in their lexical meaning (Hartmann & James, 1998).
6. Multilingual dictionaries: coordinate the lexical units of more than two languages which are equivalent in lexical meaning (Hartmann & James, 1998).
7. Reverse dictionaries: in reverse dictionaries the entry words are arranged in the alphabetical order of their final letters. In these dictionaries words with similar endings appear at one place which give a sort of grammatical specification. Identical word forming suffixes and identical compound forming components are put at one place. These are very useful for preparing teaching materials and manuals (Zgusta L. , 1971).
8. Glossaries: show a list of terms with their meanings, arranged in an alphabetical order. A glossary as such refers to vocabulary of a specific “domain of knowledge”. One can look up the glossary to find definitions of newly introduced terms within a book or meaning of any specialized or specific terms (Zgusta L. , 1971).

1.4.2 Bilingual dictionaries. Macrostructure and microstructure

R.R.K Hartmann and Gregory James in their book *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998) regard bilingual dictionaries as *"a type of dictionary which relates the vocabularies of two languages together by means of translation equivalents"*. However, the reality is not that simple, because it is not always possible to find an equivalent of a word in other languages with different cultures.

According to Zgusta (1971) the basic aim of bilingual dictionaries (or translation dictionaries) is *"to coordinate with the lexical units of one language those units of another language which are equivalent in their lexical meaning"*. Nonetheless, to offer the most efficient way of helping translators get what they expect from a bilingual dictionary, the latter needs to have a well-designed structure. This structure is divided into two aspects: macrostructure and microstructure.

"The macrostructure of a dictionary is the organization of the lexical entries in the body of a dictionary" (Gibbon, 2006), that is, whether the lexemes are sorted alphabetically or by concept, etc. Gibbon also includes as part of macrostructure the front and back matter of a dictionary (the covers of a dictionary, the author's preface, the key to pronunciation and other parts), as well as the page layout, graphics and macrostructural word organization. Overall, the macrostructure applies to a dictionary as a whole, rather than to a single part of it (i.e. word list). This means that it does not concern the internal structure of each lemma but it does concern for instance the structure of lemma organization.

Whereas macrostructure is concerned virtually only with what should be included in the dictionary, microstructure is much more specific. It deals, among others, with word organization, pronunciation transcription, metalanguage of a dictionary and mainly with the structure of the lemma itself (Meiner, 2012).

On the microstructural level, Landau (1984) specifies the following as the kind of information that bilingual dictionaries should (ideally) provide:

- a translation equivalent for every word in the source language

- full coverage of the vocabulary of the source language
- grammatical, syntactic and semantic information
- information on language variation
- proper names
- special vocabulary items
- guidance on spelling
- guidance on pronunciation

Generally, though, bilingual dictionaries often do not include all the information listed above, or do so in an inconsistent way.

Piet van Sterkenburg (2003) underlines that the fact that dictionaries often do not conform to these requirements is brought about because lexicographers are led in their decisions on the macro- and microstructural level of a bilingual dictionary by such considerations as:

- The assumed linguistic proficiency of target users in the target language (What words in the target language will they not know? What information will they need to choose the correct translation equivalent in the target language?)
- The intended functions of the dictionary (Will it only be used to decode texts in the target language or also to encode texts in the target language?)
- To whether the dictionary will be used only in one direction (from source to target language or also bidirectionally from target language to source language)

As should be obvious, these considerations set different adequacy requirements with regard to the macrostructural and microstructural design elements of bilingual dictionaries. For example, users with a high proficiency in the target language will most probably only encounter translation problems in the case of the less frequently used vocabulary of the target language; for the correct translation of a text in a target language the dictionary user requires more grammatical disambiguating information for choosing the correct translation equivalents and for using it in an idiomatically and grammatically correct way.

Where more than one translation equivalent exists for a lemma from a source language, these equivalents are listed with or without further disambiguating grammatical information (syntactic class, style, fixed collocations) or usage notes. The more polysemic a word in the source language is, the more translation equivalents it may have in the target language and the more there may be a need on the user's part for such disambiguating information (Sterkenburg, 2003).

Dictionaries, therefore, constitute a fundamental tool in helping translators improve their lexical competence and as a result deliver an accurate translation. Bilingual dictionaries are, on the whole, organized in two separate structures: the macrostructure (that refers to the list an organization of the lexical items entered in the dictionary, the lemmas or headwords) and the microstructure (that refers to the lexicographic information on the lemmas contained in the dictionary).

1.4.3 Bilingualized dictionaries

A dictionary is amongst the first things a foreign language learner purchases; nonetheless, there has been a great deal of discussion as to which dictionary type is a better educational tool for foreign learners; monolingual, bilingual or bilingualized. Some teachers prefer their students to use a monolingual dictionary, and others such as Atkins (1985) believe that learners prefer L2-L1 (second language-first language) bilingual dictionaries because they satisfy learners' immediate needs.

A fairly recent development in lexicography is bilingualized or semi-bilingual dictionaries. Nakamoto (1995) states that the bilingualized dictionary combines explanations in L2 with translation equivalents. Thus, it should satisfy both language teachers who insist that foreign learners should use dictionaries of the target language and learner-users who complain that such monolingual dictionaries are too difficult.

Raudaskoski (2002) in his paper about bilingualized dictionary points out that: "The bilingualized dictionary is, of course, the supposedly happy marriage of the two above-mentioned paradigms. It contains the source language definitions and examples of the monolingual dictionary and the easy-to-use target language equivalents of the bilingual dictionary. The emphasis in the entries is on the source language material, and

for this reason the equivalents are often called ‘keys’, as they are rather aids for understanding than stand-alone translations of the headword. The user is supposed to turn the definitions and examples first, and if the meaning of the headword still remains somewhat unclear, the key is there to provide clarification and reassurance … In short, the bilingualized dictionary can be seen as an all-in-one solution to the needs of a learner’s dictionary user”.

Nakamoto (1995) compares monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Then, he tries to distinguish the bilingualized dictionary and shows the superiority of this kind of dictionary to the other types. He points out that: “against this background of mono- and bilingual learners’ dictionaries and their contested merits and demerits, a new type of learners’ dictionary has recently appeared. It is called ‘bilingualized’, ‘semi-bilingual’, ‘glossed’, ‘hybrid’, or ‘translated’. It is usually partially (only occasionally thoroughly) translated from a monolingual learners’ dictionary into the intended users’ mother tongue. They are different from monolinguals because they supply translation equivalents and also from bilinguals because they provide semantic equivalents (definitions) of the original text”.

It is important to note that translation equivalents given in a bilingualized dictionary are intended to play a different role from those given in a bilingual dictionary. Basically, they are keys for the source language definitions in the former, while immediately insertable elements in the latter. Nakamoto (1995) quotes Atkins (1985) who imagined, a hybrid dictionary could conceivably bridge the present gulf between the bilingual and the monolingual; by crossing the bridge of the bilingualized dictionary, the learner would no longer have to jump from the bilingual to the monolingual.

In short, a dictionary is a reference source in print or electronic form containing words usually alphabetically arranged along with their forms, pronunciations, etymology, meanings, idiomatic uses, etc. It is generally classified into encyclopedic, linguistic, diachronic, synchronic, restricted (specialized), general, monolingual, bilingual, multilingual, reverse, and glossaries. Bilingual dictionaries, on the whole, exhibit a wide range of variation both with respect to their macrostructure and their microstructure depending on the needs of the target user. The bilingualized dictionary, a dictionary

containing the source language definitions and examples of a monolingual dictionary, as well as the target language equivalents of the bilingual dictionary, is regarded by several experts as an all-in-one solution to the needs of a learner's dictionary user.

1.5 Information and communication technologies (ICTs) in education

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) have become, within a very short time, one of the basic building blocks of modern society. Many countries now regard the understanding of ICTs and the mastery of its basic skills and concepts as part of the core of education, alongside writing, reading and numeracy. ICTs have the potential to motivate and engage students, and therefore enhance the learning process.

Information and communication technologies (ICTs)—which include radio and television, as well as newer digital technologies such as computers and the Internet—have been touted as potentially powerful enabling tools for educational change and reform. When used appropriately, different ICTs are said to help expand access to education, strengthen the relevance of education to the increasingly digital workplace, and raise educational quality by, among others, helping make teaching and learning into an engaging, active process connected to real life (Tinio, 2002).

In recent years, there has been a groundswell of interest in how computers and the Internet can best be harnessed to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of education at all levels and in both formal and non-formal settings. However, ICTs are more than just these technologies; older technologies such as the telephone, radio and television, although now given less attention, have a longer and richer history as instructional tools (Tinio, 2002).

In her book *ICT in Education* (2002), Victoria L. Tinio underlines three forms of ICTs, which are commonly used in education: these are e-learning, open and distance learning, and blended learning.

Although most commonly associated with higher education and corporate training, e-learning encompasses learning at all levels, both formal and non-formal, that

uses an information network—the Internet, an intranet (LAN) or extranet (WAN)—whether wholly or in part, for course delivery, interaction and/or facilitation. Others prefer the term *online learning. Web-based learning* is a subset of e-learning and refers to learning using an Internet browser (such as Netscape or Internet Explorer) (Tinio, 2002).

Open and distance learning is defined as "a way of providing learning opportunities that is characterized by the separation of teacher and learner in time or place, or both time and place; learning that is certified in some way by an institution or agency; the use of a variety of media, including print and electronic; two-way communications that allow learners and tutors to interact; the possibility of occasional face-to-face meetings; and a specialized division of labor in the production and delivery of courses". (Tinio, 2002)

Another term that is gaining currency is blended learning. This refers to learning models that combine traditional classroom practice with e-learning solutions. For example, students in a traditional class can be assigned both print-based and online materials, have online mentoring sessions with their teacher through chat, and are subscribed to a class email list. "Blending" was prompted by the recognition that not all learning is best achieved in an electronically-mediated environment, particularly one that dispenses with a live instructor altogether. Instead, consideration must be given to the subject matter, the learning objectives and outcomes, the characteristics of the learners, and the learning context in order to arrive at the optimum mix of instructional and delivery methods (Tinio, 2002).

According to Meenakshi (2013) ICTs can enhance the quality of education in several ways: by increasing learner motivation and engagement, facilitating the acquisition of basic skills, and enhancing teacher training. ICTs are also transformational tools which when used appropriately, can promote the shift to a learner-centered environment.

1.5.1 Mobile learning

Smartphones put powerful, user-owned computing devices into the pockets of students and academic staff. The student ownership of these multifunctional mobile devices is

growing exponentially (Dixit, Ojampera, Nee, & Prasad, 2011); whilst ways of making use of smartphones in higher education have been explored since they first became available in 2007, building upon interest and innovation in the use of mobile technologies for learning (Kukulska-Hulme & Traxler, 2005).

Smartphones, such as the iPhone, emerged as hybrids of PDAs (Personal Digital Assistants) and mobile phones in the 1990s, bringing together connectivity and a diverse collection of hardware and software-based functionality. Smartphones have developed considerably since then, becoming increasingly commonplace following the release of Apple's iPhone in 2007 (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

The mobile operating systems found on smartphones allow users to run software, commonly known as "apps", which deliver highly usable and tightly focused functionality enabling myriad applications. In some cases, apps come pre-installed on smartphones, though many others are freely and cheaply available. This means devices become highly customized personalized platforms for communication, organization, information production and content management. Whilst smartphones are only pocket size, they incorporate computing power and memory capable of running complex software and storing huge amounts of data. Functionality including full keyboards, cameras, audio recorders, gesture-based input, and high-resolution displays, is complemented by a wide range of apps that include support for office productivity, location-based interactivity, media production, web browsing, social media, communication and entertainment (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

Smartphones can conveniently and directly connect to the Internet through protocols including Wi-Fi and 3G and indirectly through Bluetooth. This connectivity allows data to be accessed from anywhere in a timely way, while it also allows the user to distribute content in various media to others. A smartphone, therefore, offers a rich set of mobile computing functions with connectivity; this combination frees the user from desk-based ICT associated with traditional computing in education. Smartphones are ubiquitous and accessible devices that travel with the user, so empowering them to respond to situations, ideas and needs as they emerge (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

Smartphones used to support learning need to be considered in the context of the literature on mobile learning (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

Mobile learning (m-learning) is described in numerous ways, but these descriptions all consider the nexus between working with mobile devices and the occurrence of learning: the process of learning mediated by a mobile device (Kearney, Schuck, Burden, & Aubusson, 2012).

Formal learning is traditionally characterized by two constants or boundaries: *time and space*. Learning places occupy fixed, physical spaces which are defined by relatively impermeable boundary objects such as walls, classrooms and school buildings. Similarly, traditional learning is situated in permanent temporal slots such as teaching periods (timetables or semesters) which are relatively immutable (Traxler, 2009). M-learning has the potential to transcend these spatial and temporal restrictions, overcoming “the need to tie particular activities to particular places or particular times” (Traxler, 2009).

With “space”, m-learning offers a variety of alternatives including “virtual” or non-geographical spaces, such as virtual world environments created for mobile devices. In temporal terms, the requirement to learn in fixed, scheduled time spaces (which characterize current schooling) are also relaxed enabling the individual to be more flexible about when they learn. Previously fixed engagements or appointments can now be readily rescheduled and fixed notions of linear time are increasingly making way for a softer version of what some authors have termed “socially negotiated time” in which each party to an event is able to create and rearrange their schedules without excessive detrimental effect to either side (Ling & Donner, 2009).

The prevalence of smartphone devices, and latterly tablets like the iPad, demands that higher education explores the potential for enhancing learner engagement and prepares itself to address student expectations for a more mobile learning experience (Woodcock, Middleton, & Nortcliffe, 2012).

Summing up, it can be said that Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are powerful tools for educational change and improvement. Some of these tools

are the radio and the desktop computer. Nowadays, the rapid technological changes have provided students with new ICTs such as smartphones and tablets that can facilitate a mobile learning experience either inside or outside the classroom setting.

1.6 Partial conclusions

Translation, as a process intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text, can adopt diverse typologies making, on the whole, distinctions between general and specialized, as well as literary and pragmatic translation. This key process for communication, demands not only linguistic skills, but also extra-linguistic knowledge that can prevent translators from encountering difficulties due to phonological, grammatical, stylistic or lexical problems.

A common lexical translation problem is encountered when dealing with phrasal verbs, since they are combinations of verbs with other adverbial particles or prepositions in which the meaning of the combination cannot be predicted from the meaning of its constituents. Therefore, non-native English learners face many difficulties generally due to style deficiency, lack of collocational awareness, as well as syntactic errors.

In order to facilitate the work of the translator, it was created the science of lexicography which was originated in the early age of civilization. As the process of editing and compiling dictionaries, this science is closely related to lexicology. At present, it is completely linked to computer technology, especially in the elaboration of dictionaries from lexicographical databases.

With the purpose of avoiding lexical problems during the translation process, the translator must rely on dictionaries. These reference sources are crucial tools providing translators with a wide range of information encompassing etymology, pronunciation, idiomatic use, equivalents in two or more languages, as well as terminology. By providing source language definitions and examples and the easy-to-use target language equivalents, bilingualized dictionaries are a recent advance providing an all-in-one solution to the needs of a learner’s dictionary user.

As being immerse in a digital era, students facing translation problems can save time by consulting electronic or digital dictionaries instead of looking words up in printed ones. This strong connection between technology and education has been consolidated by the creation of new Information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as smartphones and tablets, which are accessible devices empowering learners to respond to situations, ideas and needs as they emerge.

Chapter 2: Results and Discussions

Chapter 2 – Proposal of a Bilingual (English-Spanish) Dictionary App of Phrasal Verbs: Results and Discussions

This chapter describes the methodology employed in this diploma paper for the proposal of a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs, which describes all the features of this lexicographical product. In addition, the different stages for elaborating the product are also described as well as it macrostructure and microstructure. In the final part, the assessment of its validity through specialists' criteria is provided.

2.1 Methodology implemented

The methodology of the research followed a mixed-method approach inasmuch as the quantitative and qualitative methods were applied. The research herein presented was carried out at the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas, at the School of Humanities, in the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language. It was focused on the proposal of a bilingual dictionary app of phrasal verbs to help students of the above-mentioned degree course diminish the lexical problems they face when translating these linguistic units.

In order to fulfill this aim, 6,130 phrasal verbs were compiled from three monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries (PDF format) and further bilingualized to provide students with a new tool (Android app) illustrating phrasal verbs with examples, meanings, collocations, synonyms, opposites, idioms, derivatives, usage notes and Spanish equivalents.

Through six major stages, a dictionary app named *English-Spanish Phrasal Verbs Dictionary* was created from the lexicographical database elaborated.

2.2 Characterization of the sample

For the purposes of this study, a non-probabilistic sample comprising three monolingual phrasal verbs learner's dictionaries was used. One of the dictionaries was **Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus** (2005), a corpus-based dictionary of 523 pages with over 1,000 of the most frequently used phrasal verbs in English. Another dictionary used was **The Second Edition Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary** (2007), which in 432 pages

provides students with the information they need to understand over 6,000 common British and American phrasal verbs, and use them correctly. It also facilitates opposites, idioms, derivatives, along with common subjects and objects for collocational understanding. The other dictionary was **The Second Edition Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary** (2006), which covers around 6,000 phrasal verbs currently used in English, and facilitates clear information on grammar and usage.

2.3 Stages of the Process for Creating a Bilingual (English-Spanish) Dictionary App of Phrasal Verbs

As commented in the introduction, the lack of lexical competence with respect to phrasal verbs in students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, as well as the limited bilingual reference sources dealing with this linguistic phenomenon, were the reasons for the creation of this dictionary. The creation of the bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs presented is a process consisting of different stages particularly interrelated:

1. Selection of the sample
2. Creation of lexicographical entries by using Excel as Database Management System
3. Translation into Spanish of all the entries by using dictionaries
4. Creation of an Android app from the lexicographical database elaborated
5. Assessment of the dictionary proposed through specialists' criteria
6. Final edition of the dictionary

2.3.1 Selection of the sample

In order to create the lexicographical product herein provided, it was essential to select the appropriate monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries from which the author of this diploma paper compiled 6,130 phrasal verbs to be translated into Spanish.

For the selection of the most representative sample, the following criteria were followed:

- Currency (updated list of entries)

- Number of entries (more than 1,000 entries)
- Coverage (examples, meanings, collocations, synonyms, opposites, idioms, derivatives and usage notes)
- Source (reliable)
- Dictionary type (learner's and monolingual)
- English variant (British and American phrasal verbs)

Therefore, after analyzing the above-mentioned criteria, a sample of three monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries was selected: **Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus** (2005), **The Second Edition Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary** (2006) and **The Second Edition Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary** (2007).

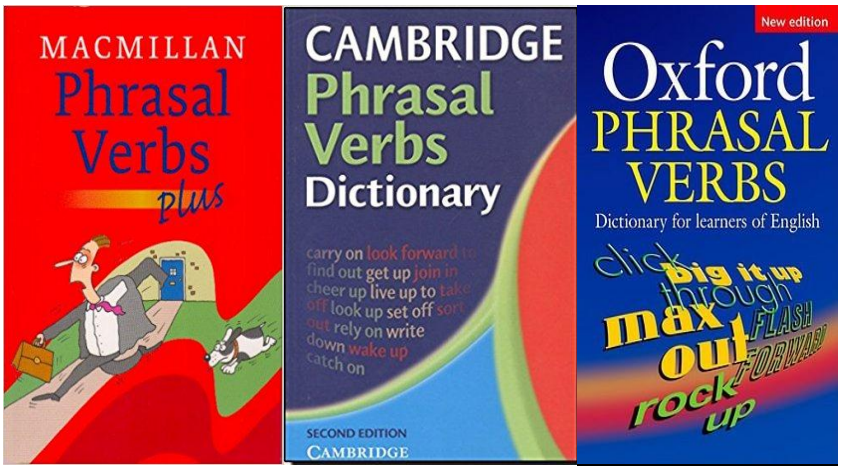


Image 1: Monolingual phrasal verbs dictionaries selected

2.3.2 Creation of lexicographical entries by using Excel as Database Management System (DBMS)

At this stage, the phrasal verbs to be included in the dictionary app were selected considering the following criteria:

<u>Frequency of use:</u> As new phrasal verbs are constantly being coined, recently created phrasal verbs were considered (*sex sth up:* to make sth seem more exciting and interesting; or *click through*: to visit a website by clicking on an electronic link or advertisement on another web page). Only 25 old-fashioned phrasal verbs were included due to their high occurrence in literature.

Coverage: The lexicographical entries to be included in the present diploma paper must provide the grammar patterns, meanings, examples, and at least one of the following features: synonyms, opposites, idioms, derivatives and usage notes.

Field of knowledge: Phrasal verbs belonging to different fields were considered in order to create a more comprehensive phrasal verbs dictionary. The target users of the dictionary app proposed can find phrasal verbs used in various fields of knowledge such as:

- Sports (*be rained off/out*: if an event such as a sports game is rained off, it stops or it does not take place because of rain; *reel sth off* : to win a series of games or a number of points)
- Finance (*buoy up*: to make or keep prices at a high or satisfactory level)
- Law (*find against sb*: to decide in a court of law that sb is guilty)
- Mathematics (*take sth away from sth*: to take one number from another; *divide by sth*: if a number divides by another number, the second number is contained in the first an exact number of times)
- Geology (*carve sth out*: to make a physical feature in the earth's surface over a long period of time through the action of water, ice, weather, etc.)
- Sailing (*keel over*: -of a boat- to turn on its side)
- Computing (*scroll down/up*: to move down/up or backwards/forwards in the text on a computer screen so that you can read different parts of it)
- The military (*march past*: (of soldiers) to march past an important person or building)
- Music (*blare out*: if music blares out, or a radio, etc. blares out music, it is produced or played very loudly)
- Business (*retail at/for sth*: to be sold at a particular price)
- Fishing (*reel sth in/out*: to wind sth on/off a special round device (a reel), for example on a fishing rod)

English variant: Taking into account that many phrasal verbs used in American English are not employed in British English and vice versa, phrasal verbs from both variants were included emphasizing on spelling variations, for instance: *bring sb along*

(AmE)/*bring sb on* (BrE); *cozy up to sb* (AmE)/*cosy up to sb* (BrE); *face off* (AmE) (sport) to start a game such as ice hockey; *bugger about (with sth)* (BrE) to waste time doing stupid or unimportant things; to behave in a silly way.

Overall, it was compiled an entire list of 6,130 phrasal verbs in Excel (DBMS) along with their grammar patterns, meanings, collocations, synonyms, opposites, usage notes, idioms and derivatives. Since the DBMS selected permitted the organized storing of the entries in well-structured columns, it was ideal for the creation of the lexicographical database that would serve as the basis for the dictionary app proposed.

2.3.3 Translation into Spanish of all the entries by using dictionaries

Each phrasal verb was carefully translated into Spanish by means of different sources: English-Spanish Collins Dictionary (online version), Reverso Diccionario (online version), Oxford Study Genie Plus (software) and Oxford Dictionary Third Edition (software).

Overall, the lexicographical database created is composed of eleven columns organized as illustrated in table 1:

Phrasal verbs	Grammar pattern	Definitions	Examples	Objects/Subjects (collocations)	Synonyms	Opposites	Usage Notes	Spanish equivalents	Idioms	Derivative nouns or adjectives

Table 1: Columns present in the lexicographical database

The eleven columns are more thoroughly shown on screenshot 1. The lexicographical database presented serves as the basis for the dictionary app proposed. The author of this paper also intended this lexicographical database to lexicographers, since other tools can be created from it, such as online dictionary versions. Therefore, the most relevant elements are highlighted with colors, italics or in bold.

I1323 | contar con algn

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1322			3 to be conce:	This newspap	x	x	x	x	ocuparse de a	x	x
1323	Deal sb in	v + n/pron +	(informal, es	It sounds like	x	Syn count sb	Opp deal sb	x	contar con al	x	x
1324	Deal sb out; c	v + n/pron +	(AmE, inform	You can deal	x	Syn count sb	Opp deal sb	x	no contar con	x	x
1325	Deal sth out (	1,2 v + adv +	1 to share sth	The profits w	x	Syn distribut	x	x	distribuir alg	x	x
1326			2 (in a game	She dealt out	x	x	x	Note Deal s	(naipes) repa	x	x
1327			3 to give sb a	She dealt out	Obj punishm	Syn adminis	x	x	imponer algo	x	x
1328	Deal with sb	v + prep	1 to look after	Her job invol	x	Syn handle s	x	x	ocuparse de a	x	x
1329			2 to take app	Can you deal	x	x	x	x	atender a alg	x	x
1330			3 to take app	Your father u	x	Syn sort sb o	x	x	castigar a alg	x	x
1331	Deal with sb/	v + prep	1 to do busine	We prefer to	Obj business	x	x	x	hacer negocio	x	x
1332			2 to talk to sb	I prefer to de	x	x	x	x	tratar con alg	x	x
1333	Deal with sth	v + prep	1 to solve a pr	The police de	Obj problem	x	x	x	ocuparse de a	x	x
1334			2 (of a book,	The next proc	Obj subject,	Syn cover sth	x	x	tratar de algo	x	x
1335			3 if you deal	He is beginni	Obj anger, g	Syn cope (wi	x	Note Deal v	hacer frente a	x	x
1336	Debar sb fro	v + n/pron +	(formal) to p	Students who	x	x	x	x	prohibir algo	x	x
1337	Decide on sb/	v + prep	(also decide	We haven't d	x	Syn settle on	x	Note Decid	decidirse; opt	x	x
1338	Deck sb out;	v + adv + n -	to put on inte	A lot of suppo	x	Syn dress up	x	Note Deck s	ataviar a algn	x	x

Screenshot 1: lexicographical database created (Excel)

As it is also illustrated in screenshot 1, when an entry (phrasal verb) does not show certain kind of information (synonym, opposite, etc.), this absent information is marked by a letter ***x***.

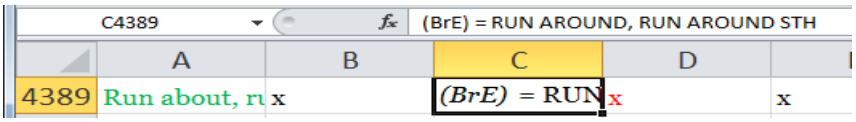
Screenshot 2 shows how polysemous phrasal verbs are organized in the lexicographical database created. For instance, the verb ***put on*** is explained by ten different definitions. Collocations, synonyms, opposites, usage notes, idioms and derivatives for each definition are illustrated or marked (x) when absent. Nonetheless, examples and Spanish equivalents are always shown in accordance to the definition.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
4112	Put sth on	v + n/pron +	1 to put an ite	Aren't you go	Obj coat, sho	x	Opp take sth	x	(ropa) poner	x	x
4113			2 to apply sth	She's putting	Obj lipstick,	Syn apply st	Opp take sth	x	aplicarse, por	x	x
4114			3 (especially	Let's put the l	Obj the light	Syn switch st	Opp put sth	x	encender, por	x	x
4115			4 to begin to	I need to get i	x	Syn get sth o	x	x	hacer algo, p	x	x
4116			5 to make a t	She put on a	Obj some mu	x	x	x	poner algo (n	x	x
4117			6 to operate t	Don't forget t	Obj the brak	Syn apply st	x	x	hacer funcion	x	x
4118			7 to grow hea	He's put on a	Obj weight	Syn gain sth	Opp lose sth	Note Put st	engordar...	x	x
4119			8 to provide s	They put on e	Obj bus, trai	Syn lay sth o	Opp take sth	x	(transporte p	x	x
4120			9 to produce	The museum	Obj play, exh	Syn stage st	Opp take sth	x	montar, repre	x	x
4121			10 to pretend	Can you put	Obj accent, e	Syn assume	x	x	fingir, poner	x	**put-on** *n* [us

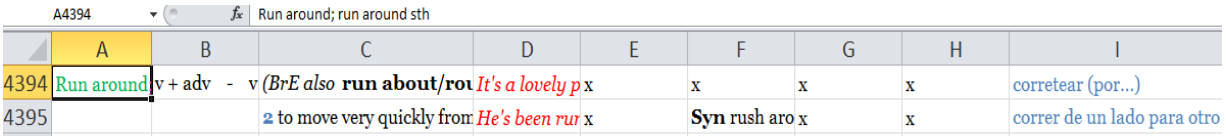
Screenshot 2: How polysemous phrasal verbs are illustrated in the lexicographical database

Most phrasal verbs not only may have different meanings, but also various spellings depending on the region they are used. The most striking difference is made between American and British English. Therefore, as the following screenshots illustrate, the distinctions *(BrE)* and *(AmE)* were used when the phrasal verb targeted is only

employed in one of these variants. Then, it was added an equal sign (=) meaning that the targeted phrasal verb is exactly the same as the one illustrated after the equal sign, which would therefore be used in the opposite variant. For instance, on screenshot 3, the targeted verb is ***run about***. The user can see the distinction showing this verb is only used in British English and also its American counterpart ***run around***. The equal sign means they both have the same meaning; therefore, as ***run around*** is highlighted with capital letters, the user can look it up and see all the information related to it, along with the Spanish equivalent, as screenshot 4 shows:



Screenshot 3: Entry *run about, run about sth* and its American counterpart *run around, run around sth*



Screenshot 4: Entry *run around, run around sth*

2.3.4 Creation of the dictionary app from the lexicographical database elaborated

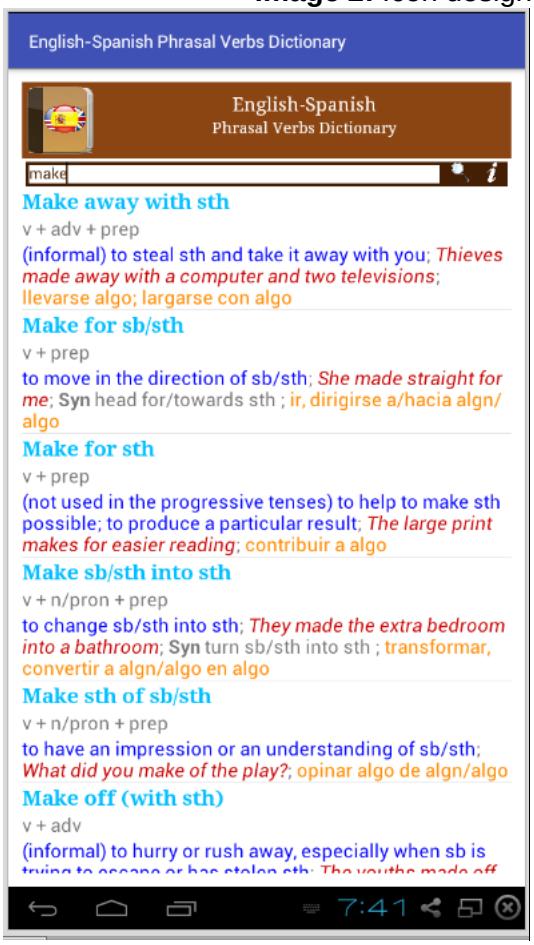
Once the lexicographical database was elaborated, a Computer Science graduate from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas developed the dictionary app. This specialist has assisted and worked together with the author of this diploma paper throughout the whole process of research.

The dictionary app proposed was called *English-Spanish Phrasal Verbs Dictionary* and was designed for Android. This decision was based on the dominant position of the Android operating systems in the Cuban mobile market. It is also the most common among students of the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas. In addition, it was considered the minimum requirement for its installation the Android version 3.2 (HoneyComb).

2.3.4.1 Macrostructure of the dictionary app

The dictionary herein proposed is regarded as a restricted dictionary, since the words listed (phrasal verbs) belong to certain part of the total lexicon of a language (English language). Its general organization is designed to be user-friendly; that is, easy to follow, clear and easy to understand (See screenshot 5). As a dictionary app, it is presented by an icon (See image 2) created to introduce the name of the dictionary. The dictionary also provides users with a link (*About*) to a small introduction (See screenshot 6) with the description of the organization of entries, number of entries, authors, sources, target users as well as minimum requirements.

Image 2: Icon designed for the dictionary app



Screenshot 5: Entry with "make"

Screenshot 6: Information in *About*

The main screen of the app contains the status bar, a search bar, a few standard icons and a text field. As shown in the previous screenshots, the user interface of the app is mainly brown (different shades) and white in order to be perceived as stylistically clean and aesthetically pleasing. The aim of the design is also to relate the app to the icon created.

The entries of the dictionary are organized alphabetically to facilitate its use. Only phrasal verbs are included and there are no sub-entries. As a unidirectional bilingual dictionary, it is composed of a single section containing the phrasal verbs, along with grammar patterns, definitions, examples, collocations, synonyms, opposites, usage notes, Spanish equivalents, idioms and derivative nouns or adjectives. Each entry is bold typed in blue with a bigger font to differentiate it from the information about the entry. Grammar patterns, definitions, examples, Spanish Equivalents, etc. are placed one space below the entry in a smaller font.

2.3.4.2 Microstructure of the dictionary app

Since this dictionary is designed to be user-friendly, the entries are organized as follows:

All the lexicographic information on a specific lemma is shown one space below the entry in paragraph form. Therefore, once the user looks up a phrasal verb, this verb is followed by: first, a grammar pattern illustrating how the verb is syntactically used. Second, the original definition (colored in blue) of the phrasal verb included in the same language of the entry (English). Third, an example (colored in red) in italics to contextualize the phrasal verb targeted. Fourth, subjects or objects (**Subj** or **Obj**) combined with the verb for collocational awareness. Fifth, synonyms (**Syn**) and opposites (**Opp**) which can either be single-word verbs or phrasal verbs. Sixth, usage notes (**Note**) providing specific details for learners, for instance, whether certain phrasal verb is used in the passive voice or not. Seventh, the Spanish equivalent of the verb highlighted in dark yellow to make it more noticeable. Finally, bold typed idioms related to the phrasal verb in question, along with derivative nouns or adjectives to enrich students' vocabulary.

2.3.5 Assessment of the dictionary app proposed through specialists' criteria

Once the bilingual dictionary app of phrasal verbs was completed, the author of this research asked some specialists to assess its validity. Taking into account the presentation of the dictionary as an Android app, the researcher decided to select seven specialists working for the English Language Department of the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas with knowledge on translation, as well as three specialists experienced in Android technology.

For the assessment of the validity of the proposal from the viewpoint of translation, a copy together with a survey (Annex 3) was given to each specialist working for the English Language Department and they were asked to work according to the given indicators and scale. The indicator/categories in the survey were adapted from the ones given by Singh (2003).

According to Singh (2003), each source of reference information needs to be reviewed on a number of criteria in order to assess its value. This author proposes the following criteria:

- Purpose (what is the purpose of the dictionary)
- Authority (identification of author or publisher)
- Accuracy of information
- Objectivity (information should not be biased)
- Currency (how current is the publication and its updates)
- Reliability (of sources)
- Coverage (information presented should be comprehensive)
- Format and presentation (source format and how easy is information retrieval)

From the above principles, the author of the present paper established the following evaluation criteria:

- **Social pertinence** (impact on target users)
- **Coverage** (comprehensive information about phrasal verbs)
- **Format and presentation** (source format and how easy is information retrieval)
- **Reliability** (of sources)

- **Originality** (new and appealing dictionary design)

The scale selected to assess these indicators were **very adequate, adequate** and **inadequate**.

Following these criteria, the dictionary app was assessed by seven professors with knowledge in translation from the English Language Department: Daima Perdomo Espinosa, Dainiel Rodríguez Mesa, Dianaleis Maza Amores M.Sc., Humberto Miñoso Machado M.Sc., Nosley Pérez Castellano M.Sc., Full Professor Juana Idania Pérez Morales PhD, and Osvaldo Betancourt Rodríguez M.Sc.

The following results were obtained (Annex 4):

Social pertinence, all professors (100%) assessed the dictionary with the highest criterion (very adequate) and emphasized on the great social impact of the app.

Coverage, the seven specialists (100%) also coincided in assessing the proposal as very adequate since they considered that the information given on phrasal verbs is very comprehensive.

Format and presentation, was also assessed as very adequate and all specialists (100%) agreed that the dictionary app is well designed and user-friendly.

Reliability, six specialists (86%) assessed the dictionary with the highest criterion (very adequate) and one specialist (14%) assessed it as adequate.

Originality, five specialists (71%) assessed the dictionary with the highest criterion (very adequate) and two specialists (29%) assessed it as adequate.

In general, the specialists from the English Language Department assessed the dictionary app as a useful tool to improve the students' performance in translation.

Since the dictionary proposed is presented as an Android app, it was also pertinent to assess its validity taking into account the considerations of specialists experienced in Android technology. Therefore, a copy together with a survey (Annex 5) was given to three Computer Sciences specialists and they were asked to work according to given indicators and scale. The indicators/categories in the survey were adapted from the ones given by Javier Cuello and José Vittone (2013).

According to Cuello and Vittone (2013), a mobile app needs to be reviewed on a number of criteria in order to assess its value. These authors propose the following criteria:

- Experiencia del usuario (basadas en la simplicidad, conocimientos y costumbres, y el modo de navegación intuitiva)
- Interacción y formas de sostener el móvil
- Orientación del terminal
- Patrones de interacción (navegación, acciones, cuadros de diálogo, notificaciones y gestos)
- Estilo de la interfaz
- Interfaces nativas o personalizadas
- Identidad visual
- Pantalla inicial e iconos
- Retícula de maquetado
- Color y detalles visuales
- Tipografía, lenguaje y ortografía
- Animación de la App

From the above principles, the author of the present paper established the following evaluation criteria:

- **Estilo de la interfaz** (diseño atractivo y simple para los usuarios)
- **Identidad visual** (icono de la app)
- **Color y detalles visuales** (en estrecha relación con el icono de la app)
- **Tipografía** (estilo de caracteres claro y legible)
- **Originalidad** (app nueva)
- **Patrones de interacción** (navegación entre contenidos fácil e intuitiva)

The scale selected to assess these indicators were **muy adecuada, adecuada** and **inadecuada**.

Following these criteria, the dictionary app was assessed by three specialists with knowledge in Android technologies. One specialist was Mario Enrique Landin Álvarez, Android developer from Villa Clara's Desoft office. Another specialist was Frank

Reyes García, professor and developer from the Department of Bioinformatics (CEI) at the Central University “Martha Abreu” of Las Villas, and current head of the Android projects at the university. The other specialist who assessed the dictionary app was Pedro Alejandro Sánchez Pérez, software developer from the Development Group of Technological Service and Assistance at the university Máximo Gómez Báez in Ciego de Ávila.

The following results were obtained (Annex 4):

Estilo de la interfaz, all the specialists (100%) assessed the dictionary app with the highest criterion (muy adecuada) and regarded it as very user-friendly.

Identidad visual, two specialists assessed the app with the highest criterion (67%) and one specialist (33%) assessed it as adequate.

Color y detalles visuales, two specialists assessed the app with the highest criterion (67%) and one specialist (33%) assessed it as adequate, highlighting that the colors selected were successfully related to the app icon.

Tipografía, the three specialists (100%) coincided in assessing the proposal with the highest criterion (muy adecuada).

Originalidad, was also assessed with the highest criterion (muy adecuada) by all specialists (100%).

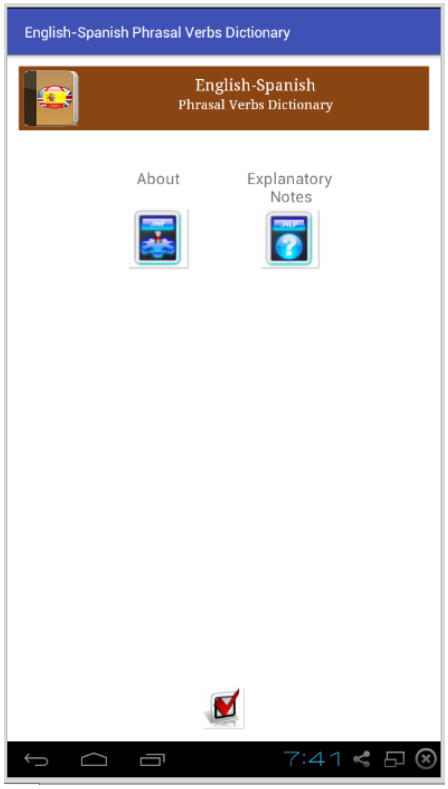
Patrones de interacción, was also assessed with the highest criterion (muy adecuada) by all specialists (100%).

Overall, all specialists assessed the dictionary app as very user-friendly and easy-to-use.

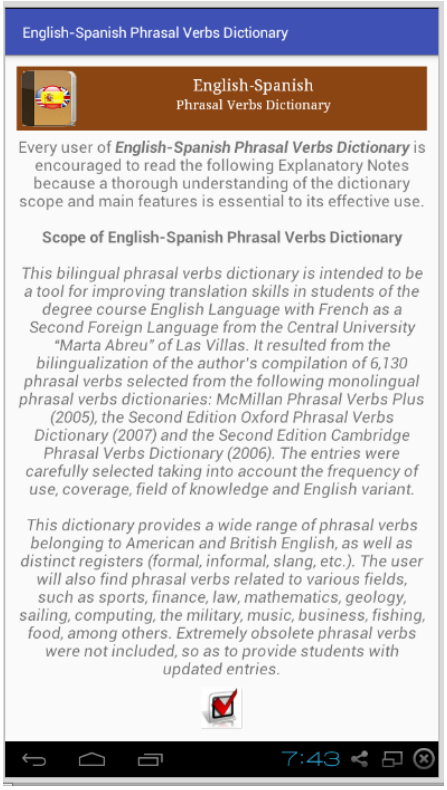
2.3.6 Final edition of the dictionary

After following all the stages for the creation of the bilingual phrasal verbs dictionary app, the next step was the final edition of the dictionary taking into consideration the specialists’ criteria. Following their suggestions, new blue icons were added (see screenshot 7), as well as a link to *Explanatory Notes* (see screenshots 8 and 9)

explaining the scope of the dictionary, as well as specifications on the use of abbreviations.



Screenshot 7: new blue icons added



Screenshot 8: Explanatory notes (first part)

Screenshot 9: Explanatory notes (second part)

Conclusions

CONCLUSIONS

Although there is still much to do in the use of phrasal verbs and their equivalents in Spanish for the development of the lexical competence of students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas, the present diploma paper represents an important step towards this goal.

Therefore, it is possible to draw these conclusions:

- In the comprehensive literature review carried out on the topic of research, the core concepts translation, phrasal verbs, lexicography, dictionaries, lexicology, and Information and communication technologies (ICTs) in education were discussed. It was concluded that translators, as communicators, need to attain full command of phrasal verbs in order to achieve communicative competence effectively. Establishing, therefore, the interrelation between translation and lexicology. Moreover, the characteristics of phrasal verbs were described as well as the main challenges they pose to non-native English learners, key elements to understand the practical contribution of the dictionary app herein presented. For that reason, the relation between lexicography, lexicology and translation, as the three main disciplines involved in the creation of dictionaries addressed to translators, was established.
- The methodology employed for the design of a bilingual dictionary app of phrasal verbs was carefully described in this diploma paper. It was concluded that the creation of the dictionary app proposed, was a process consisting of different stages particularly interrelated. These were: selection of the sample, creation of lexicographical entries by using Excel as DBMS, translation into Spanish of all the entries by using dictionaries, creation of Android app from the lexicographical database elaborated, assessment of the dictionary proposed through specialists’ criteria, and finally, the final edition of the dictionary.
- Following the assessment criteria established by the author, seven specialists from the English Language Department and three from Computer Sciences assessed the dictionary app herein presented. They agreed that the dictionary

was accurate, user-friendly and easy-to-use. They considered that it could become an effective tool to improve the lexical competence of students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language.

Recommendations

RECOMMENDATIONS

Since this diploma paper was intended to propose a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs for students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, suggestions for future research are the following:

- To validate the application of the dictionary app after one academic year to confirm its validity and usefulness for its intended users.
- To conduct similar studies taking one step further by including equivalents in French so as to design a comprehensive tool for students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language.
- To include the bilingual phrasal verbs dictionary app created in the Android UCLV page so as to be easily accessed and downloaded by the students.

Bibliography

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

Aarts, B. (1989). Verb-preposition constructions and small clauses in English. *Journal of Linguistics*, 277-290.

Akimoto, M. (1999). Collcations and Idioms in Late Modern English. En L. J. Brinton, & M. Akimoto, *Collocational and Idiomatic Aspects of Composite Predicates in the History of English* (págs. -). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Alexander, L. G. (1998). *Longman English Grammar Practice (Intermediate Level).* England: Longman Group UK Limited.

Atkins, B. (1985). *Monolingual and bilingual learner's dictionaries: A comparison.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Aveling, H. (2006). Ethical Issues in Translation. *IDEYA*, 73-81.

Bell, R. T. (1993). *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice.* New York: Longman Group UK Limited.

Bergenholtz, H., & Nielsen, J. S. (2013). What is a Lexicographical Database? *Lexikos 23*, 77-87.

Bergernholtz, H., & Gouws, R. H. (2012). What is Lexicography. *Lexikos 22*, 31-42.

Burkhanov, I. (1998). *Lexicography: A Dictionary of Basic Terminology.* Rzeszów: Wydawnictwo.

Bywater, F. (1969). *A Proficiency Course in English.* London: University of London Press.

Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition: A synthesis of research. En J. Coady, & T. Huckin, *Second Language vocabulary acquisition* (págs. 225-237). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Coleman, J., & Key, C. (2000). Lexicology, Semantics and Lexicography. *Selected Papers from the 4th G.L. Brook Symposium* (págs. -). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Cuello, J., & Vittone, J. (2013). *Diseñando apps para móviles.* -: XcUiDi.

Dash, N. S. (2005). The Art of Lexicography. *Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems (EOLSS)*, 103-107.

Delisle, J. (1980). *L'analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction.* Ottawa: University of Ottawa.

Denison, D. (1985). The Origins of Completive Up in English. *Neuphilologische Mitteilungen*, 37-61.

Denison, D. (1993). *English Historical Syntax: Verbal Constructions.* London/New York: Longman.

Dixit, S., Ojampera, T., Nee, R., & Prasad, R. (2011). Introduction to globalization of mobile and wireless communications: today and in 2020. En R. Prasa, R. Dixit, R. S. Nee, & T. Ojampera, *Globalization of Mobile and Wireless Communications Signals and Communication Technology* (págs. 1-8). -: Springer Science and Business Media.

Doroszewski, W. (1973). *Elements of Lexicology and Semiotics.* The Hague: Mouton.

Fischer, O. (1992). Syntax. En F. B. Norman, *The Cambridge History of the English Language* (págs. 207-408). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fraser, B. (1976). *The Verb-Particle Combination in English.* New York: Academic Press.

Gardner, D., & Davies, M. (2007). Pointing out frequent phrasal verbs: A corpus-based analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 339-359.

Ghazala, H. (1995). *Translation as Problems and Solutions.* Syria: Dar El Kalem El-Arabi.

Gibbon, D. (2006). *How to Make a Dictionary: The Architecture of a Dictionary.* Bielefeld: Universität Bielefeld.

Greenbaum, S. (1996). *The Oxford English Grammar.* New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

Hanks, P. (2013). Lexicography from Earliest Times to the Present. En K. Allan, *The Oxford Handbook of the History of Linguistics* (págs. 503-536). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hartmann, R., & James, G. (1998). *Dictionary of Lexicography.* London/New York: Routledge.

Hatim, & Munday. (2004). *Translation, An Advanced Resource Book.* London: Routledge.

Hausmann, F. J. (1989). *Dictionaries. An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography.* Berlin: De Gruyter.

Jackson, H. (1988). *Words and Their Meaning.* London: Longman.

Katalin, K. (2011). *Contributions to a Semantico-Contrastive Analysis of Verb Particle Constructions in English and Verbs with Coverbs in Hungarian.* Budapest: BTK.

Katre, S. (1980). Current trend in Indian lexicography. En L. Zgusta, *Theory and Method in Lexicography: Western and non-western Perspectives* (págs. 177-189). Columbia: SC: Hornbeam Press.

Kearney, M., Schuck, S., Burden, K., & Aubusson, P. (3 de February de 2012). *Viewing mobile learning from a pedagogical perspective.* Recuperado el 8 de December de 2016, de Research in learning technology: http://www.researchinlearningtechnology.net/index.php/rlt/article/view/14406

Kennedy, A. G. (1920). *The Modern English Verb-Adverb Combination.* Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Krestova, S., & Nürnberg, P. (23 de May de 2015). *Multiligual Dictionary of Lexicographical Terms*. Obtenido de Papillon Dictionary: http://www.papillon-dictionary.org/static/info_media/42808981.pdf

Kruisinga, E. (1932). *A Handbook of Present-Day English, Part II: English Audience and Syntax.* Groningen: P. Noordhoff.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Traxler, J. (2005). *Mobile learning: a handbook for educators and trainers.* New York: Taylor & Francis.

Landau, S. I. (1984). *Dictionaries. The Art and Craft of Lexicography.* New York: Scribners.

Landau, S. I. (2001). *Dictionaries. The Art and Craft of Lexicography.* Cambridge: CUP.

Ling, R., & Donner, J. (2009). *Mobile communications.* London: Polity.

Lipka, L. (1972). *Semantic Structure and Word-Formation. Verb-Particle Constructions in Contemporary English.* München: Wilhelm Fink Verlag.

Mark, D. (10 de Mayo de 2015). *BYU-BNC*. Obtenido de BYU-BNC: http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/

McArthur, T. (1992). *The Oxford Companion to the English Language.* Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press.

Meenakshi. (2013). Importance of ICT in Education. *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 3-8.

Meiner, R. (2012). *Comparison of the second Oldest English-Czech Dictionary with its Model.* Masaryk: Masaryk University.

Nafisi, S. (1999). Persian dictionaries. En M. M. S.J. Shahidi, *Preface to the Dehkhoda Encyclopedic Dictionary* (págs. 189-190). Tehran: Tehran University Press.

Nakamoto, K. (1995). Monolingual or bilingual, that is not the question: the bilingualized dictionary. *Kernerman Dictionary News*, 2-13.

Newmark, P. (1988). *A Texbook of Translations.* New York: Prentice Hall.

Nida, A. E., & Taber, C. R. (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Translation.* Leiden: E.J.Brill.

Olteanu, A.-R. (2012). *A Holistic Approach to Phrasal Verbs.* Sfântul: Sfântul Ierarh Nicolae.

Raudaskoski, S. (2002). Translation, the key or equivalent? A study of the dictionary use strategies of Finnish senior secondary school students. *Kernerman Dictionary News*, 10-20.

Riguel, E. (2013). Phrasal Verbs: usage and acquisition. *The European Conference on Language Learning 2013* (págs. -). Paris: La Sorbonne Nouvelle.

Riguel, E. (2014). Phrasal Verbs, "The Scourge of the Learner". *9th Lancaster University Postgraduate Conference in Linguistics & Language Teaching* (págs. 1-19). Lancaster: University Sorbonne Nouvelle - Paris 3.

Roberts, R. P. (2013). Towards a Typology of Translations. *Hieronymus*, 69-78.

Rudzka-Ostyn, B. (2003). *Word Power: Phrasal Verbs and Compounds. A Cognitive Approach.* Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Sag, I. A., Baldwin, T., Bond, F., Copestake, A., & Flickinger, D. (2002). Multiword Expressions: A Pain in the Neck for NLP. *Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Computational Linguistics and Intelligent Text Processing*, 1-15.

Sawyer, J. (2000). Comments on Clayton M. Darwin and Loretta S. Gray's "Going after the phrasal verb: An alternative approach to classification": A reader reacts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 151-159.

Shiqui, X. (1982). Chinese Lexicography: past and present. *Dictionaries: Journal of the Dictionary Society of North America*, 151-169.

Sinclair, J. (1996). The search for units of meaning. *TEXTUS*, 75-106.

Singh, S. (2003). Evaluation of Electronic Reference Sources. *DESIDOC Bulletin of Information Technology*, 43-47.

Snell, B., & Crampton, P. (1983). Types of Translations. En C. Picken, *The Translator's Handbook* (págs. 109-120). London: Aslib.

Sterkenburg, P. v. (2003). *A Practical Guide to Lexicography.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Taherian, A. (1998). Lexicography and lexicocomputing in the Persian language. En I. K. T. McArthur, *Lexicography in Asia* (págs. 143-148). Tel Aviv: Tel Aviv: Password.

Tinio, V. L. (2002). *ICT in Education.* New York: -.

Traxler, J. (2009). Learning in a mobile age . *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning*, 1-12.

Trench, R. C. (1958). On some deficiencies in our English dictionaries. *Proceedings of the Philological Society*, -.

Woodcock, B., Middleton, A., & Nortcliffe, A. (2012). Considering the Smartphone Learner: an investigation into student interest in the use of personal technology to enhance their learning. *Student Engagement and Experience Journal*, -.

Zgusta, L. (1971). *Manual of Lexicography.* Praha: Academia Print.

Zgusta, L. (1973). Lexicolgy, generating words. En R. McDavid, & A. Duckert, *Lexicography in English* (págs. 14-28). New York: Academy of Sciences.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary. (2006). 2nd ed. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Concise Oxford English Dictionary (Eleventh Edition). Software by Tony Smith, 2004.

García, Geraldo. (2016). Multimedia for Computer Assisted English Literature for the 4th Academic Year of English Language Studies.

Granados, Ariadna. (2016). A Bilingual Glossary (English-Spanish, Spanish-English) of Socioeconomic Terms.

Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus. (2005). Macmillan Publishers.

Mazorra, Greta. (2016). Elaboration of a digital bilingual glossary (English-Spanish) in Bioinformatics.

Merriam-Webster's 11th Collegiate Dictionary. Version 3.0, 2003.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. New 8th Digital Edition, 2010.

Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary. (2007). 2nd ed. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Rundell, Michael. (2005). Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus. Macmillan Education. Oxford.

Sampieri, R.H., Fernández, C., & Batista, P. (1991). Metodología de la Investigación. Naucalpán de Juárez: McGraw-Hill Interamericana de México.

Annexes

Annex 1: Survey to students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas

Encuesta para estudiantes de la carrera Lengua Inglesa con Segunda Lengua Extranjera: Francés

Universidad Central "Marta Abreu" de Las Villas

Año académico: ____ Curso: 2016-2017

Objetivo de la encuesta: determinar las principales dificultades que presentan los estudiantes de la carrera al traducir *phrasal verbs* al español, así como su conocimiento en torno a este fenómeno lingüístico.

La siguiente encuesta se presenta como parte del trabajo de diploma de la estudiante Roxana Reyes Manes, el cual tiene como título: *Bilingual (English-Spanish) Dictionary App of Phrasal Verbs for Students of the Degree Course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language from the Central University “Marta Abreu” of Las Villas*. El mismo ofrece una colección de 6 130 *phrasal verbs* incluyendo además: significado en inglés, ejemplos, patrón gramatical, equivalente en español, sinonimia, antonimia, colocación, frases idiomáticas, palabras derivadas (sustantivos, adjetivos) y notas aclaratorias para los estudiantes. El producto terminado se presentará en una aplicación androide que tendrá por nombre ***English-Spanish Phrasal Verbs Dictionary***.

Muchas gracias por su colaboración

1. ¿Qué entiende usted por ***phrasal verb***?

2. El aprendizaje de este fenómeno lingüístico le resulta:

a) __muy fácil

b) __un poco difícil

c) __muy difícil

2.1 Si su respuesta fue b) o c), fundamente su respuesta. Puede referirse al significado (idiomático o no idiomático), el patrón gramatical (separable o no separable), etc.

3. Como estudiante de Lengua Inglesa, usted se expresa con estos verbos

__frecuentemente

__algunas veces

__raras veces

__casi nunca (trato de evitarlos siempre que puedo utilizando verbos de una sola palabra)

4. El tiempo que se dedica en la carrera la enseñanza de estos verbos es/ha sido para usted:

__suficiente

__insuficiente

5. La bibliografía bilingüe con que usted cuenta para el aprendizaje de estos verbos es:

__muy actualizada y accesible

__no muy actualizada

__muy poca

__ninguna

6. ¿Cuenta usted con herramientas actualizadas en el aula que le ayuden en la traducción al español de estos verbos?

__sí __no

7. Como estudiante de Lengua Inglesa, ¿qué beneficios podría brindarle tener a su alcance un diccionario bilingüe de ***phrasal verbs*** con las características propuestas por la autora?

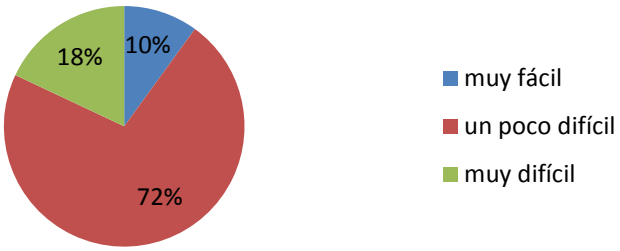
Annex 2: Results obtained from the survey applied to students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas

1. ¿Qué entiende usted por *phrasal verb*?

-Es un verbo que se complementa con una preposición al final, la cual puede variar el significado original del verbo.
-Verbos y preposiciones que se utilizan juntos en una frase.
-Verbo formado por más de una palabra.
-Unión de un verbo con otra partícula adverbial o preposicional donde generalmente el verbo adquiere otro significado.
-Verbo compuesto por dos o más palabras.
-Verbo del inglés constituido por dos o más componentes.
-Frase idiomática compuesta por un verbo y un adverbio o una preposición.
-Verbos y preposiciones que se utilizan juntos en una frase.

2. El aprendizaje de este fenómeno lingüístico le resulta:

Porcentaje de Estudiantes



2.1 Si su respuesta fue b) (un poco difícil) o c) (muy difícil), fundamente su respuesta. Puede referirse al significado (idiomático o no idiomático), el patrón gramatical (separable o no separable), etc.

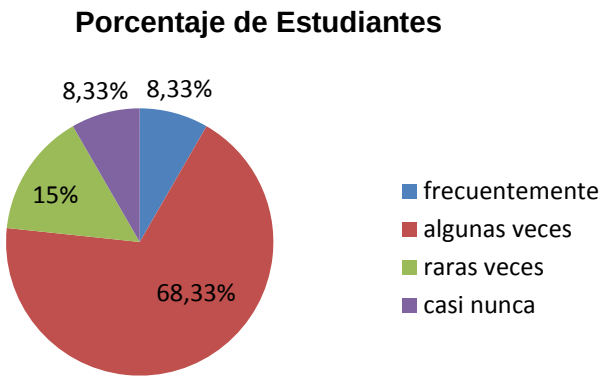
-No sé bien cuando separarlos o bien cuando utilizarlos, pues su significado en español no lo tengo claro.
-Existen muchos y a veces resulta contradictorio cuando van unidos o separados.
-El verbo en su estado original no significa lo mismo que cuando va acompañado de una partícula.
-Requieren de mucha memoria.
-En muchos *phrasal verbs* su significado no tiene nada que ver con las partículas que lo forman.

-Muchos tienen un significado idiomático.

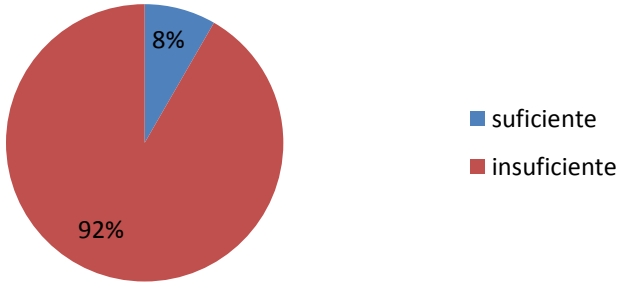
-No existe un fenómeno lingüístico como este en español.

-Su traducción al español no se encuentra fácilmente.

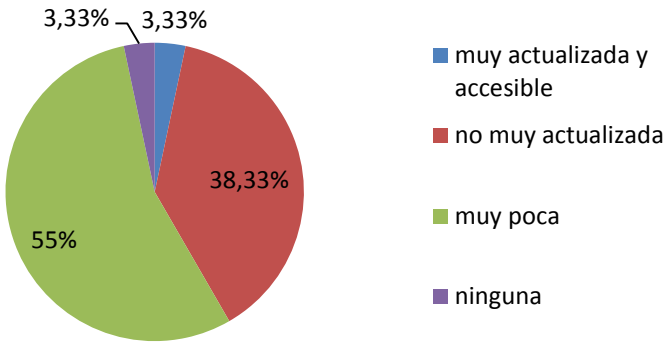
3. Como estudiante de Lengua Inglesa, usted se expresa con estos verbos…



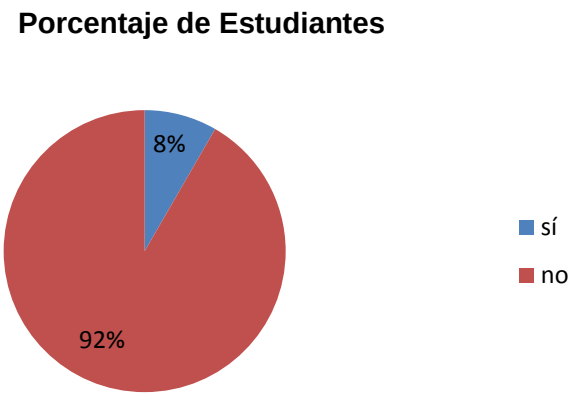
4. El tiempo que se dedica en la carrera la enseñanza de estos verbos es/ha sido para usted:



5. La bibliografía bilingüe con que usted cuenta para el aprendizaje de estos verbos es:



6. ¿Cuenta usted con herramientas actualizadas en el aula que le ayuden en la traducción al español de estos verbos?



7. Como estudiante de Lengua Inglesa, ¿qué beneficios podría brindarle tener a su alcance un diccionario bilingüe de *phrasal verbs* con las características propuestas por la autora?

-Podría tener un acceso más rápido y eficaz a la hora de traducirlos.

-Podría ayudarme a buscar el significado y el uso de estos para entenderlos y usarlos.

-Sería una vía para adquirir nuevo vocabulario.

-Una gran herramienta que se podría utilizar durante las clases y para uso personal.

-Facilitaría el estudio y aprendizaje de *phrasal verbs*.

-Considero vital el desarrollo y distribución de la aplicación para una mejor calidad de las clases.

-Una excelente herramienta para traducción.

-Buenísima, ya que la podría consultar en cualquier lugar.

Annex 3: Request for English Language specialists' evaluation of the bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs

This is a bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary of phrasal verbs presented as an Android app which resulted from the bilingualization of the author's compilation of 6,130 phrasal verbs obtained from monolingual phrasal verbs learner's dictionaries: The Second Edition Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary (2007), MacMillan Phrasal Verbs Plus (2005) and the Second Edition Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary (2006). This vast collection of phrasal verbs along with their Spanish equivalents, grammar patterns, meanings, examples, collocations, synonyms, opposites, usage notes, idioms, and derivative nouns or adjectives serves as a tool for improving the translation skills in students of the degree course English Language with French as a Second Foreign Language, from the Central University "Marta Abreu" of Las Villas. Taking into account your experience and your high instructional level, I would like to submit this dictionary to your evaluation. Thanks in advance, and it is important for you to know that your criteria will be really valuable for this diploma paper.

Names and last names:

Scientific degree:

I would appreciate if you sent me some comments for improvement.

Indicators	Very adequate	Adequate	Inadequate
Social pertinence (impact on target users)			
Coverage (comprehensive information about phrasal verbs)			
Format and Presentation (source format and how easy is information retrieval)			
Reliability (of sources)			
Originality (new and appealing dictionary design)			

Annex 4: Results obtained from the survey applied to specialists from the English Language Department

Indicators	Very adequate	Adequate	Inadequate
Social pertinence	7 (100%)		
Coverage	7 (100%)		
Format and Presentation	7 (100%)		
Reliability	6 (86%)	1 (14%)	
Originality	5 (71%)	2 (29%)	

Annex 5: Request for Computer Sciences specialists' evaluation of the bilingual (English-Spanish) dictionary app of phrasal verbs

La presente aplicación androide se realizó como parte de la tesis de grado de la estudiante de la carrera de Lengua Inglesa Roxana Reyes Manes. La misma es un diccionario que reúne una vasta colección de 6 130 ***phrasal verbs*** (verbos típicos del idioma inglés seguidos de una o dos partículas: *take down, make out*, etc.) muy utilizados en este idioma. Dentro de la información de las entradas, se incluye: el patrón gramatical, la definición, ejemplos, colocaciones, sinónimos, antónimos, notas aclaratorias para los usuarios, frases idiomáticas, sustantivos y adjetivos derivados de estos verbos, así como los equivalentes en español, elemento que convierte esta app en una gran herramienta para el mejoramiento de las habilidades de traducción en los estudiantes de la carrera Lengua Inglesa con segunda lengua extranjera: Francés, de la universidad "Marta Abreu" de Las Villas. Teniendo en cuenta su experiencia y profesionalidad, le presento esta aplicación androide para conocer su evaluación sobre la misma. Ante todo, muchas gracias y es muy importante que sepa que su criterio será muy valioso para esta tesis de grado.

Nombre y apellidos:

Grado científico:

Centro de Trabajo:

Parámetros	Muy adecuada	Adecuada	Inadecuada
Estilo de la interfaz			
Identidad visual			
Color y detalles visuales			
Tipografía			
Originalidad			
Patrones de interacción (acciones)			

Apreciaría mucho sus consideraciones:

Annex 6: Results obtained from the survey applied to Computer Sciences specialists

Parámetros	Muy adecuada	Adecuada	Inadecuada
Estilo de la interfaz	3 (100%)		
Identidad visual	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	
Color y detalles visuales	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	
Tipografía	3 (100%)		
Originalidad	3 (100%)		
Patrones de interacción (acciones)	3 (100%)		