

Sofia K. ZERDELI

Democritus University of Thrace Greece

sofizedeli@yahoo.gr

PRINCIPLES OF PEDAGOGICAL LEXICOGRAPHY IN THE PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM: TEACHING DICTIONARY SKILLS AND STRATEGIES TO PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

According to the conclusions of certain theoretical studies and empirical research of educational lexicography, not only of the Greek but also of the international literature, dictionaries are considered to be a valuable tool and a necessary guide throughout the receptive and productive language process, with undeniable pedagogical, linguistic and educational values. The goal of this paper is to present, firstly, at a theoretical level, the design principles, the compilation methodology and the basic structural features of an educational dictionary in primary education. Therefore, a typology of children/school dictionaries concerning the explanations, the examples, the headwords, the meta-language, the etymology, the grammar and syntax information, the illustration etc. is presented, in order to contribute to the teaching of certain linguistic expressions to primary school students. Secondly, the main reasons for using a pedagogical/educational dictionary as a vocabulary learning strategy by the students/learners of a language as a mother tongue or as a second/ foreign language (L2/ FL) are investigated. Consequently, not only should the educational systems adopt methods and techniques for the cultivation of strategic uses of the dictionary, but also we have to educate students on how to use dictionaries in an effective way through activities and special exercises relevant to their use.

Keywords: lexicography, microstructure macrostructure, megastructure, learning strategies

Introduction

The goal of this paper is to present the principles of pedagogical lexicography and the basic structural features of a school dictionary (macrostructure, microstructure, mega structure). Therefore, we examine how to make the dictionary an advantage throughout the educational practice, contributing to the vocabulary enrichment and the cultivation of students' linguistic expression.

The need of the dictionary is considered imperative, both for students and teachers, in order to be used during any language teaching. The dictionary is considered to be one of the most basic vocabulary learning strategies. In order to make an effective use of it, students need to practice specific strategies / techniques to enable them to handle it correctly, to find the words they are looking for and to incorporate them into their speech. In this case the dictionary could become the most accessible and useful means of learning. Consequently, apart from the principles of pedagogical lexicography, vocabulary learning strategies are also described.

Principles of pedagogical lexicography

Lexicography for children, also known as pedagogical or school lexicography provides a frame for the application of modern theories from the fields of theoretical linguistics, applied linguistics, lexicography and calculative linguistics and is considered to be the most representative type of modern lexicography (Rundell 2008: 221–243).

Cowie (1980), as quoted by Iordanidou, Mantzari (2006: 1–2), points out that the design of a pedagogical tool compels the establishment of principles and methods of syntax, which will take into consideration both the circumstances under which a dictionary is used during the reception and production of a text, and the peculiarities that describe the given category of users, i.e. the students. The design must satisfy their need for access to information pertaining to words of various kinds and empower their referential skills, which means their ability to search, detect and use this information via lexicographical tools. Therefore, teaching should be based on tools that have been designed in a way that stimulate the knowledge and use of a dictionary and the development of referential skills (Cowie 1999: 198).

Macrostructure

Lexicography, besides being involved in the constructional methods of the various dictionaries, also studies the planning and structure of a dictionary, its type, purposes, used methods, results and importance.

Every dictionary provides specific information in the form of a catalogue. The catalogue of lexical entries found in a dictionary is called *macrostructure*. According to Hartmann (2001: 64), *macrostructure* is defined by Hausmann and Wiegand (1989: 328) as «a layout of all the lexical entries (keywords) and comprises the basis for the sorting of words in a catalogue or list in an alphabetical or thematic order».

The alphabetical sorting of headwords can be disturbed by the concentration of lexical entries under the same headword, e.g. the lemmatization of derivatives, such as *hide* (verb), *hidden* (participle), *hideout* (noun), called interior lemmas at the end of the text for the lexical entry *hide* (Hartmann 2001: 64).

Iordanidou, Mantzari (2006:2) specify: “The main issue we come across during the process of constructing the dictionary’s macrostructure is: “How many and which lemmas should be included in a dictionary for children?”. A long catalogue of lexical entries may be covering the need for completion in the case of dictionaries for adults, however, in the case of children’s dictionaries, it may be a hindrance towards the tool’s accessibility (therefore the obligatory use of a smaller font, the overly concentrated presentation etc.). On the other hand, a fixation on a basic dictionary concept, which is vague and disputed anyway, has a negative impact when it comes to supporting the teaching of a lingual course». Besides the words that comprise the main body of lexical entries, a pedagogical dictionary’s catalogue must also take shape through the processing of school books, magazines and works of children’s literature (Sarafidou 2000: 40).

From the aforementioned, we come to the conclusion that the index of a children's dictionary should be open in order to follow modern linguistics, to be able of covering the learning needs of the students it is aimed at (Efthimiou, Mitsiaki 2007: 238)

Microstructure

The term *microstructure* describes the sum of sorted information of every lexicographical article, whose kind is steadily repeated in every article and are read horizontally after the lemma (Anastasiadi-Simeonidi 1997: 152). The term microstructure describes the grouping of information within the lemmas.

According to Wiegand (1991: 44), as described by Hartmann (2001: 65), *microstructure* is comprised of the main word or headword, usually highlighted in bold text and two affiliate structures, the main left "*typical annotation*" and the main right "*conceptual*" or "*semantic annotation*". The main left annotation provides the grammatical information, as well as, spelling, morphology and pronunciation of the main word. The right annotation provides the conceptual information, such as the use within certain boundaries of the headword, its definition and notes on use, such as contextual examples (Hartmann 2001: 65).

In reference to the citation, the layout of lexicographical text, international and local practice provides the following sequences: a) example – definition, b) definition – example and an intermediary form, which provides the example and immediately, in the form of an equivalent, a paraphrase, which describes the meaning of the word under that particular use e.g for the lemma *import*: *They import tobacco from Greece, they bring tobacco to their country from Greece* (Akritopoulos 1993: 4).

Every dictionary has its own microstructure, which can sometimes be thorough or limited. This is determined by the needs and purposes it aims to fulfill. However, within a children's dictionary, explanations should be given through sentences written in simple text and comprehensible examples taken from everyday life, instead of complex and strictly accurate conceptual definitions, as used in an adult's dictionary (Telopoulos 1997: 196). In order to achieve that, the type and size of the information must be compatible with the students' linguistic skills and it has to serve the teaching goals any children's dictionary aims to fulfill. Consequently, the explanations must be akin to the children's language in order to convey the information in a way that is familiar to their previous experiences (Sarafidou 2000: 42).

Megastructure

Besides macrostructure and microstructure, dictionaries also contain other information outside of macrostructure. This information is known as the *outside matter*, which consists of the front matter, middle matter and back matter. The outer part, i.e. the title page, prologue, study method used in the dictionary, user's guide,

abbreviations and commentary on a distinct lemma, is called *front matter*. *Middle matter* describes the content that disrupts the continuum of the macrostructure. It can be various tables, pictures or clarifications. Following the macrostructure is the *back matter* i.e. the bibliography. The macrostructure combined with the middle matter of the dictionary comprise its *Megastructure* (Hartmann 2001: 57–62, Landau 2001: 99, Xidopoulos 2008: 295–297).

The Word-list

A dictionary's lexicon should be in tune with the communicative and learning needs of the students, be based on their knowledge and enrich their vocabulary. It should also result from the combination of basic student book vocabulary, children's literature books and magazines and a specifically designed electronic corpus of texts (Efthimiou, Mitsiaki 2007: 238, Sarafidou 2000: 40, Valetopoulos 2000: 27).

We can provide the lemma's literal and metaphorical definition with short, well-phrased sentences. The language used should be plain, immediate and adjusted to the children's experience and knowledge. Through a creative play of words, the child grasps the different meanings it acquires depending on the way it is used in the text (Greziou 1997: 206).

The criteria for a lemma to be included in the final catalogue should be frequency of occurrence in student books and other children's books, as well as the level of difficulty.

In most children's/school dictionaries, lemma development is vertical, while in other dictionaries, it is horizontal.

Sorting of lemmas

The lemmas are sorted alphabetically, for the convenience of the user (Tzivonopoulou 1997:187). Alphabetical order is the ideal choice for sorting lemmas, since the student can conveniently use the dictionary on his/her own (Sarafidou 2000: 41).

Lemmas are also sorted according to what is known as lexical/semantic fields, which is their shared attributes. Dictionaries adopting this approach are called thematic, semantic or thesaurus and by nature do not make use of the alphabetical order in sorting lemmas. Their macrostructure is instead organised thematically (Xidopoulos 2008: 303). A thematic sorting of lemmas is convenient when it comes to connecting one word with others related to a subject, allowing a holistic validation of a concept as part of a bigger whole, which provides substantial help in quickly recalling the lexicographical information. Thematic dictionaries should cover the students' basic daily, linguistic, communicative and cultural needs (Antipa 2000: 11–12).

Metalinguage

In order to be easily understood, a children's dictionary metalanguage should be free of complex terms. Meta language is anything that follows a lemma's intro-

duction (example, definition, picture, symbol). It is a dictionary's most important factor of success, or failure. Lexicographers should research every facet of the lexicographical text layout, for the sake of better communicating the information to the child.

Definition

The phrasing of lexicographical definitions is a complicated process that requires considerable skills. Definitions should be precise, brief, comparable to others of related words in the dictionary and, most importantly, easy for the children to understand them (Bauer 1998: 62–8).

If it is decided for a dictionary to include definitions, then the phrasing should be child-friendly, just like the interaction between a child and its parents. This way, the dictionary, replaces the parent and impresses the young user. The classic form of a definition uses the conjunction “when”, to present an original circumstance from which the word's meaning will emerge i.e. for the word “disappointed”. “*When you expect something pleasant to happen but it never does, then you are disappointed*” (Telopoulos 1997: 196).

It is known that a text's level of difficulty is mostly related to the language's natural wealth. Between two interjections of the same meaning, the largest one is easier in the way it communicates information. Despite the consensus, the briefer the definition, the harder it is. Therefore, text addressed to children should be, by nature, analytical and circumlocutory (Rey–Debove 1989: 20–21).

In *Petit Robert des Enfants dictionary*, the definition was kept as absolutely necessary for the access to the meaning and conceptual code (language as a form of communication code). Keeping in mind the difficulty of the utterance given as a definition, it is commonly presented along its circumlocutory objective, since the phrase is the natural unit of communication: “Ecailler un poisson, c'est lui enlever ses écailles”-“scaling a fish, means removing its scales”.

In the illustrated dictionary of A', B', C' Elementary school classes “*my first Dictionary*” by of the Organism Publication of Teaching Books, definitions are written as complete sentences in a natural manner of speech, which provides the following advantages: a) They are easily understood by the children of the target age group. e.g *cotton* (Efthimiou, Mitsiaki 2007: 238):

Cotton is a plant that grows in warm countries like Greece. Its fruit is fluffy, white, soft and very light. and b) provide indirect syntactical information on the lemmas (e.g. The adjective, the objective etc.) for example, *kick* (Efthimiou, Mitsiaki 2007: 239):

When you kick, you hit hard someone or something with your foot.

In their work *My first Dictionary for Elementary School*, A. Vakalopoulou and A. Iordanidou use situational definitions, whose goal is to integrate the meaning into the context of a situation. They describe the familiar attributes of a concept without trying to convey its entire array of possible characteristics or derivative relation to

other concepts. This tactic is quite common in conceptual definitions often used by monolingual dictionaries for adults. Here's an example of conceptual definition regarding that matter. Lemma: *getting sick*:

When we get sick, our health's condition is bad and, usually, we have fever or feel pain. (Iordanidou, Mantzari 2004: 8).

According to Landau (1984), as quoted by Iordanidou, Mantzari (2004:7), a definition is considered successful when it efficiently and quickly conveys enough information to the reader, so he/she can grasp the meaning of the word within its context. If the definition fails to do so, it has no value.

Examples

The instructive role of examples in a dictionary is multifaceted and indisputable. Examples connect the meaning and the form of a word and support the communication of the information given in the definition through text extracts. Moreover, examples can be used not only in speech reception but also in speech production (Iordanidou, Mantzari 2004: 9). Hence, the student realizes that the meaning of a word is a product of the way it is used within its contextual environment, which is a very valuable lesson that justifies the efforts of lexicography (Akritopoulos 1993: 5).

Tzivanopoulou (1997: 191) states that: "Examples should be drawn by three sources: a) literature; examples by authors, given unaltered, without credit to the author in case they are brief or otherwise, rearranged, b) the press (newspapers, magazines, tv, radio, internet) and c) the lexicographer. The last example has many advantages, it can be very common without being absurd; an example like that, however, makes the dictionary less objective".

According to Sarafidou (2000: 42), the demand for a children's dictionary to be accessible by the student and in tune with his/her level of knowledge experience requires the use of examples drawn from the writing style of school books or other similar texts, and more importantly, to be phrased in a compelling way in order to captivate the child's interest to read further, instead of "fabricated" examples that sound fake. Usually, after the lemma's definition, we see examples given for their explanatory value (Efthimiou 2007: 800; Iordanidou, Mantzari 2004: 9). Their purpose is to provide substantial information related to the lemma, such as its meaning, syntactical properties as well as usage level. In order to accomplish the aforementioned goals, examples must be only as many as needed and brief, precise, without any conceptual overlays (Sarafidou 2000: 46).

Iordanidou, Mantzari (2004: 9) provide the following attributes considered to be necessary for an example to be efficient:

- To reflect certain syntactical structures where a meaning responds to. Especially for verbs, passive voice should be described with an example of multiple purposes that convey both the active and passive voice, e.g

He killed him with a knife // Twenty people were killed in the highway last weekend.

- To inform about the most typical choice preferences, e.g. *He shot and killed him during the fight.// Earthquake in Turkey killed 62 people.// He bought a specialized poison to kill the mice in his garden.// More than 1000 people killed by hostile army.*

- To describe as many different variations of the definition that may require different synonyms and/or antonyms, e.g.

The court proved that the accusations against him were true.

(synonym: right, opposite: false)

He told me a true story that happened a few years ago.

(synonym: real, opposite: imaginary)

- To present interesting information in order to motivate the children to study.

Examples may refer to characters from well-known stories, such as *Snow White, Red Riding Hood, Cinderella*. Kids are familiar with these stories as well as the characters (Efthimiou, Mitsiaki 2007: 240). For example, lemma: *startle*:

The prince was startled by Cinderella's beauty.

In many children's dictionaries we come across one of their most interesting features, Lexicographical Story. Usually in lexicographical stories there is a main character. The dictionary has a well structured form and is very close to the child-user (Scurt 1983: 21).

Petit Robert des enfants (PRE) is the first dictionary that includes a narrative within its list of examples. Most examples refer to a story scattered in alphabetical order that must be reconstructed gradually, like a puzzle. The re-constructive process becomes easier through the reemergence of characters and situations at the end of the book. According to all above, we refer what Rey – Debove (1989: 20) states: «the way a word is used within the example is very important. The example must be a foreseeable phrase, as vivid as possible, within the context of a circumstance, not an impossible and complicated one which creates confusion. Even though we do not memorize them, such examples damage the dictionary's credibility».

3.10. Illustration

Children's/school dictionaries must include several illustrated lemmas, chosen by the lexicographers after they consult the following criteria, according to Ilson (1987) and Stein (1991), as stated by Efthimiou and Mitsiaki (2007: 242): a) the children's age and cultural background, b) the level of difficulty presented in communicating the meaning of a certain lemma, c) the frequency with which the lemma appears, d) purely the aesthetic value of the illustration.

From a pedagogical perspective, the illustrated presentation of vague concepts is quite interesting e.g. anxiety, attention etc. The combination of picture and text is highly educational, as we can see in pictures 1 and 2 below, for example the word *Mótze* (= angry) from the German dictionary *Der Abc – Duden* and the lemma *polite* from the *Children's Illustrated Dictionary by Tegopoulos*. (**Picture 1, Picture 2**)

O Landau (2001: 143–44) describes that, for certain observers, it's obvious that material objects, such as architectural forms, animals, plants and many other things with a specific shape, like geometrical shapes, are easier to understand with pictures instead of words. The picture helps the students to understand the meaning of the word they are looking for. This is generally true. However, it is naive to assume that an illustration could render a written definition redundant.

When compared to dictionaries for adults, school dictionaries consist of many more pictures than the number of lemmas. Illustrations in modern dictionaries are colored. It's very common for adults to search for a definition, just so they can confirm what they already believe to be the meaning of a word. This does not apply to children as much, who often have no knowledge of the word at all. For example, an adult may be familiar with the fact that a *dormer* is a type of window, even if he/she is unsure as to what the word means exactly. A definition that describes “a small structure in the roof that opens and contains a window”, may remind of the image of an object the person has *seen in the past*, but may bring nothing back to a child's memory, who has no previous experience with such an object. If there is a picture however, the child may be able to recognize a dormer in the future, as something he/she has already seen (Landau 2001: 146).

Children's/school dictionaries should also include illustrated thematic tables. Illustration should be a metalanguage of figurative displays. This way it may take the form of colorful pictures or sketches for a number of subjects, like the human body, the home, means of transportation, animals, colors, tools etc (Akritopoulos 1993: 6). Rundell (2008: 240) states that every children's and school dictionaries must have illustrations, either for individual words or thematic groups of words. In addition to the pictures that represent specific objects, there must be spatiotemporal diagrams, pictures that explain the relative meaning of words with several different meanings, clear the differences between words that are easy to confuse, pictures that portray the literal meaning of words that are often used metaphorically. This illustrated content makes dictionaries easier to understand when it comes to troublesome definitions.

Despite the aforementioned advantages, the usefulness of an illustration can be called into question. Rey–Debove (1989: 19) states that the exact illustration, whose purpose is to present the object that is defined by language, lacks generalization. It enforces an arbitrary choice of characters and cannot portray the objects' facets. It can only portray the words whose relative category is homogeneous.

Nothing can replace the definition. Only language can express everything, not pictures. The world of a dictionary becomes virtual in an age when the presence and pressure of pictures can be felt everywhere already, some might even say it's overbearing.

Psycholinguistics has clearly shown that, a child reading a text supplemented with pictures tends to guess the word based on the image instead of thinking about the letters.

Therefore it seems reasonable to allow the language to assume its position, since it's the language that we try to teach and it's the only sign system that can

describe everything. Illustrations should have mostly encyclopedic or decorative value – as an “aesthetic” but not “pointless” (Rey-Debove, 1989: 19–20).

Either way, we believe that the sequence and combination between picture and text that proves to be the best in communicating the word’s meaning, should be studied and adopted.

Ways to use a dictionary

As stated above, a dictionary can be used in multiple ways, in order to cover various needs. We believe that its most important purpose can be described as an auxiliary lingual tool in the teaching process of any module. This functional property aims to inform students on its usage. This can be achieved by a) receptive use and b) productive use. Several researchers (Scholfield 1999: 50–51, Rundell 1999: 30–31, Nation 2001: 181) developed these two ways in their desire to highlight the complex nature of the dictionary and the prospects it provides for the user.

Students use the dictionary in a receptive/perceptive way, when, during the reading of a text or engagement in verbal conversations, come across words unknown to them. In order to verify the meaning, they search a dictionary’s lemmas and collect the information necessary to overcome this semantic obstacle and continue their reading conveniently. Furthermore, they can refer to the dictionary to find a definition that they may partially know, or to confirm their suspicions about the meaning of a word through its context (Efthimiou 2009: 802–3). It’s easier to use a dictionary for texts, since it’s immediate and time-saving, which isn’t the case for verbal speech.

Students can also use the dictionary to draw information concerning the grammatical use of words, their form, as well as their syntactical nature. They learn the lingual environment a particular word belongs to and utilize them in sentences by choosing the correct syntactical structures. Figuring out a word’s spelling and accent enables the students to use it correctly later. Additionally, they collect information on their conceptual relations, their factual dimensions, the dialectical limitations and the connections with other words from the same conceptual group. Therefore, by using a dictionary, students can overcome their issues with understanding text, expand their vocabulary by learning new words and acquire knowledge over various lingual levels. By researching and contemplating the meaning of words on their own, students acquire a deep and thorough knowledge of these words and their properties (Scholfield 1999: 28).

The second basic way to use a dictionary is considered to be the productive use. The productive use refers to the production of verbal or written speech by the students and aims to enhance their lingual expression (Scholfield 1999: 13, Nation 2001: 181, Gavriilidou 2000: 34–35). This is not a very common practice among students, so the teachers must educate them on the strategies available for the productive use of a dictionary (Bejoint 1981: 207–222).

When producing speech, users must utilize a rich vocabulary, descriptonal accuracy and conceptual clarity, in order to express higher meanings and communi-

cate more efficient. Finding, however, words from the dictionary does not ensure the user's ability to use them correctly in text or speech. During the processing of texts, students come in contact with many new words but, this does not mean they are able to use them on their own and, even if they do manage it, they must be very careful as to the context within which they are using these new words. It is the duty of the teacher to inform the students about the words' polysemy and to show them how to choose the correct form of the word for their purposes.

The students' desire to remember the words they read in the dictionary, as well as their meanings and usage, often pushes them to assemble lists of words. This tactic should be encouraged but, it must be made sure that students perform it in a structured way: the teacher must incite the students to record the most useful among the words they searched for, complimented by information on how to use them, and examples, or context where they can find synonyms, antonyms, expressions etc. This way, students form their own personal dictionary, which will allow them to gradually activate this vocabulary into their own speech. The method of structured repeated reading (Gavriilidou 2000: 36, Treville, Duquette 1996: 107), that is the repetition of words can be fundamental towards this goal. After every structured repeat, the teacher may divide the class into two groups and hold lingual games in the form of a competition with some kind of prize, in order to turn the teaching of vocabulary from a mundane process into an interesting tactic (Gavriilidou 2000: 36).

Vocabulary learning is another way to use the dictionary during the teaching process without using specific texts. Teachers assign certain vocabulary exercises to their students, such as finding synonyms and antonyms, in order to teach words quickly (Nation 1990: 7). To sum up, the dictionary is used to enhance the students' linguistic and communicative competence. It also contributes to the vocabulary learning and vocabulary expansion of the students by giving them the opportunity to use their language correctly, both verbally and in writing.

Dictionary use strategies

The dictionary is considered to be one of the most substantial vocabulary learning strategies. In order to use it correctly as an accessible and convenient tool, students must train in certain use strategies/tactics, which will allow them to utilize it effectively, find the words they seek and add them to their own vocabulary. Also, it's imperative to engage int real situations of communication, so they can learn to negotiate the meaning of the messages they receive and produce. Finally, it's important to study factors, such as the cultural background of a student, gender, level of education, learning style, as well as the differences and similarities between their native language and the language they aim to learn (Anastasiadi-Symeonidi (1997: 153).

Initially, students should be able to recognize the dictionary and separate it from their other books of reference. The teacher will present to them various types of dictionaries and, specifically, a page, bringing their attention to the visual it presents (continuous text, interchanging of typographical elements, abbreviations, symbols etc.). Growing familiar with the typographical elements and the lexicographical

metalinguage, will help the students to search the dictionary for lemmas more easily, without wasting time by trying to decipher them. It is also necessary to inform the students of the dictionary's existing tables of content.

The exercises that help in attaining those skills are as follows (Anastasiadi-Symeonidi 1997: 152–155):

1. *Practicing in sorting by alphabetical order:*

- The repetition of the alphabetical order by the students, as well as the placement of each letter in the alphabet e.g. *Which letter can be found between M and O?*
- The page number where the words can be found is provided: *mist, car, gallop*
- After the headers and a group of words is provided, the students are asked to choose the words that can be found on the page corresponding to the specific headers.
- Sorting words in an alphabetical order based on their initial letter, e.g. *Sweet, sea, snail, stand.*
- Sorting words of different initials into an alphabetical order: *call, painting, shadow, late, hug, blossom, jacket.*
- After a word is given, students are asked to indicate which lemma can be found before and after it.
- After a word is chosen, the students are asked to find it within the dictionary
- Two lemmas are given with a small distance between them e.g. *enviable* and *envious*. The students must identify their common lemma, e.g. *envy*.
- We ask the students to locate within the first three pages of the letter Z three lemmas referring to animals.

2. *Practicing the research of a proper type of lemma and stereotypical expressions:*

- After we provide words to the students we ask them to find the forms of the lemma e.g. *ate eating, girly ? girl*
- We provide the students with isolated sentences or a text with underlined words and ask them to find their lemma's forms:

“Summer has passed! Fall is also ending! The rains have started. It has been raining for five days. When the rain stopped, the sun came out and the animals came to greet him”.

3. *Lexicography exercises:*

- I become a lexicographer by turning every word of a text into a lemma, which means I turn every textual formula into a lemmatic one and then I sort them in correct order;
- Authoring a personal dictionary.

4. *Practicing the method of “come and go” for words with multiple meanings.*
5. *Practicing the phrasing of definitions by the students via citing the properties of the referential object:*
 - *The properties of the lemma “spring” are given and then, we ask for its definition.*
6. *Exercise for the understanding of the dictionary’s macrostructure:*
 - *The teacher writes words such as: **furniture, fish, fruit, tools, birds, animals** and then, the students are called to find a word that belongs to the wider spectrum of these concepts, e.g. **chair, salmon, apple, hammer, swallow, horse**. Then, they research the dictionary’s macrostructure and mark the pages where each lemma was found.*
7. *Exercise to understand the acoustic, optical, and semantic value of words:*
 - *The teacher recites words whose initial is, for example, the letter “i”, like: **idea, intelligence, ill, imitate, ignore** and the students write them down, sort them in alphabetical order, find them in the dictionary and mark the page where they found them on.*
8. *Morphological Exercises:*
 - *Understanding the way words are formed and the functions of composition and production. The students create compound forms, derivatives, or separate the compound parts of the words, by discerning their meaning or, based on the morphological definition, realizing the derivative or compound form by themselves e.g *a person of good heart*= *goodhearted**
9. *Semantic Exercises:*
 - *Understanding rhetorical devices like metaphor and paraphrase: e.g. attributing humans with animal features “*silent like a fish*” – metaphor In many texts, Thessaloniki is referred to as “*Nymph of Thermaikos*” – paraphrase*

However, a common problem for teachers is to encourage the students to use referential books, perhaps because the students aren’t experienced in using dictionaries or maybe they lack the motive to use them due to their bad figuration. The most popular school dictionaries (*COBUILD and Longman*), in order to solve this problem, provide notebooks to accompany the dictionaries. These notebooks contain exercises that teach the students to understand definitions, grammatical information and accent. To close, they offer guidance on how the dictionary presents the meaning of words. Hence, notebooks are a useful source for the teacher who wishes to

encourage the students by applying correct methods of dictionary use (McCarthy 1990: 141).

Conclusion

The dictionary use strategies for learning and enriching the vocabulary motivate the student to use the dictionary on his/her own for that purpose. The teacher needs to train the students in these strategies, by initially showing them the steps to realize them and then, by giving them the chance to follow those steps through the use of exercises, in order to understand the process and express any questions or difficulties they may face. The exercises correspond to the method of searching words in dictionaries and every level of lingual analysis, so the children can acquire every necessary skill to enhance their vocabulary, skills that will help them to cultivate their verbal speech and text production within the borders of the communicative/text-centric method and critical literacy.

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