Universitatea *Transilvania* din Braşov

HABILITATION THESIS

LANGUAGE, TEXT AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

Domain: HUMANITIES

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A REZUMAT

LANGUAGE, TEXT AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

Teza de față reprezintă un sumar al evoluției noastre profesionale din ultimii cincisprezece ani, începând cu momentul dobândirii titlului de DOCTOR ÎN FILOLOGIE, în urma unei cercetări circumscrise domeniului lingvisticii indo-europene.

O privire retrospectivă asupra acestui interval de timp relevă existența a trei momente de cotitură în parcursul nostru profesional. În ordine cronologică, primul este 2001, anul încheierii stagiului doctoral și susținerii tezei noastre la Universitatea din București. Al doilea îl reprezintă anul 2002, momentul absolvirii unui program masteral la Universitatea din Manchester, început cu ani înainte. Al treilea moment-cheie poate fi considerat anul 2007, punctul de plecare a unui proiect de cercetare fundamentală de doi ani, în urma câștigării competiției naționale de proiecte lansate de CNCSIS.

Fiecare dintre aceste trei puncte de reper marchează o etapă anumită a implicării noastre directe în trei zone mai cuprinzătoare ale cunoașterii: *lingvistică*, *studii de comunicare scrisă* (*Literacy Studies*) și *lexicografie*. Datarea cu precizie a incursiunilor noastre în aceste domenii prezintă, firește, avantajul reperului temporal. Este necesar să arătăm, totuși, că la temelia muncii de cercetare descrisă în paginile de mai jos, se află ani de studiu și activități desfășurate anterior.

Secțiunea B, cea mai substanțială parte a prezentei teze de abilitare, este structurată în trei părți, astfel: **B-i** conține o descriere a naturii contribuțiilor noastre la cercetarea și didactica în domeniile menționate, precum și a altor activități asociate vieții și muncii universitare; în **B-ii** sunt trecute în revistă o serie de idei, teme și studii aflate fie pe masa de lucru, fie pe agenda preocupărilor noastre viitoare; în fine, **B-iii** reprezintă o listă selectivă a surselor citate în primele două părți.

În partea întâi, **B-i**, realizările noastre științifice și profesionale sunt organizate tematic în patru capitole dedicate, fiecare, câte unei arii științifice și profesionale, i.e. lingvistică, studii de comunicare academică scrisă, lexicografie și, respectiv, ariei didactice și academice. În primele trei capitole, firul descrierii urmează același curs: începem prin a integra cercetarea noastră în contextul mai larg al cunoașterii în domeniu. Identificăm, apoi, problema pe care cercetarea noastră își propune să o rezolve și suportul metodologic utilizat în acest scop. În fine, argumentăm legitimitatea contribuțiilor noastre la dezvoltarea domeniului trecând succint în revistă principalele rezultate obținute și subliniind relevanța acestora pentru cercetările ulterioare.

În linii mari, prima secțiune a Capitolului 1 conține o descriere a cercetărilor întreprinse în domeniul lingvisticii contactului. Expunerea începe cu o prezentare de ansamblu a cadrului teoretic și a metodelor utilizate pentru validarea ipotezelor de lucru, care vizează aportul cantitativ și calitativ al limbii latine la dezvoltarea istorică a standardului limbii engleze. Abordarea în diacronie a acestei situații de contact neîntrerupt între cele două idiomuri a presupus, în principal, inventarierea împrumutului latin operat pe fiecare treaptă a dezvoltării englezei literare, explicarea cauzelor acestuia, identificarea tiparelor adaptării și a gradului de asimilare a elementului latin în structura limbii engleze. Influența latină asupra lexicului și gramaticii limbii engleze constituie un fapt peremptoriu. Dar dincolo de dovezile palpabile ale acestei influențe, este la fel de netăgăduit faptul că latina a avut și o contribuție mai subtilă, dar nu mai puțin importantă la diversificarea registrelor discursive ale limbii engleze și la stimularea potențialului ei intern pentru inovare lingvistică. În cea de-a doua secțiune ne ocupăm de studiile ulterioare ale unor aspecte teoretice și practice ale contactului lingvistic, care pun accentul pe importanța argumentului lingvistic în cercetarea istoriei sociale a unei comunități date.

În capitolul 2 sunt reunite cercetările care vizează în special tipurile de text academic și practicile discursive care reglementează scrierea lor. Pe plan internațional, literatura de specialitate pe această temă este pe cât de vastă pe atât de variată. Prin contrast, se știu foarte puține lucruri despre modurile în care cercetătorii în devenire care evoluează în context autohton își însușesc repertoriul și practicile discursive asociate disciplinelor lor. Argumentarea din acest capitol pornește cu o esențializare a statutului epistemic al retoricii contrastive; de pe această platformă teoretică se procedează la descrierea unui studiu al cărui scop principal l-a constituit elaborarea unui cadru *ad hoc* pentru o analiză întreprinsă din perspectiva retoricii contrastive. Validarea

acestui cadru analitic a presupus utilizarea lui în analiza unui corpus de scriere persuasivă provenită de la două grupuri de studenți, vorbitori nativi de engleză și, respectiv, română. Secțiunea următoare include studii ulterioare în domeniul retoricii contrastive, lingvisticii textuale și comunicării scrise în mediul academic. Premisele acestor studii au fost următoarele: în primul rând, din punct de vedere teoretic, tipurile de text academic au relevanță interculturală, dar reificarea lor duce la variații de la o cultură la alta și de la o disciplină la alta. În al doilea rând, conștientizarea trăsăturilor discursive și retorice din alcătuirea repertoriului nativ este de natură să faciliteze însușirea unui repertoriu străin. Aceste premise de lucru explică accentul pus pe aspectele socioculturale și lingvistice ale scrierii textului în context academic românesc, implicațiile pedagogice ale acestuia și eforturile noastre în direcția evidențierii componentei retorice în analiza contrastivă a acestor tipuri de texte.

În Capitolul 3 au fost incluse cercetările noastre în domeniul lexicografiei. Se pornește de la o scurtă descriere a celor două componente ale sale, reprezentate de teoria și practica lexicografică. Pe acest fundal este descris proiectul de cercetare fundamentală pe care l-am coordonat. Obiectivul acestuia l-a constituit optimizarea comunicării interculturale prin identificarea căilor menite să conducă la creșterea calității dicționarelor online. Descrierea cuprinde o trecere în revistă a principalelor etape ale acestui proiect, împreună cu obiectivele și rezultatele lor. Aceste rezultate precum și cele obținute în urma unor cercetări ulterioare au constituit fundamentul teoretic și practic al studiului monografic *Research and Practice in Lexicography*, descris în secțiunea a doua a acestui capitol.

Capitolul 4 prezintă un sumar al activităților didactice pe care le susținem, urmat de o trecere în revistă a altor activități, desfășurate în calitate de editor sau de membru al comunității academice.

Partea a doua, **B-ii**, are o orientare prospectivă. Aici sunt descrise temele studiilor aflate deja în derulare și ale celor pe care ne propunem să le explorăm în viitor, în domeniile mai vaste ale macrolingvisticii, analizei discursului și lexicografiei. Din discuție reiese intenția noastră de a spori ponderea interdisciplinară a cercetărilor următoare și de a completa imaginea practicilor academice autohtone care stau la baza conceperii textului academic prin integrarea lor mai fermă în contextul socio-cultural care le servește drept cadru de manifestare.

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B SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS AND EVOLUTION. PLANS FOR FURTHER CAREER DEVELOPMENT

B-i SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS AND EVOLUTION

INTRODUCTION

Considered globally, there are three milestones in my academic career which I regard as decisive for my professional development and evolution.

One crucial point has been my admission and subsequent enrollment as doctoral student at the University of Bucharest, where I defended my Ph.D. thesis, in 2001. Rated VERY GOOD by the members of the reviewing committee, my doctoral dissertation was the outcome of a six-year research project which I had been conducting in the general field of Indo-European linguistics under the supervision of my mentor and doctoral advisor, Professor Lucia Wald. Collecting and validating the data for my doctoral research on the longstanding language contact between English and Latin involved, among others, a field trip to Hadrian's Wall, in Northern England, and a one-month research trip to *John Rylands* Library of the University of Manchester, both taken in the course of 1997. These were followed up with another two-week research trip to the University of London Library, in the following year.

Another key moment in my career have been my studies towards a Master's degree at the University of Manchester (U.K.). The courses that I took (in distance mode) as part of the study programme were Intercultural Studies in ELT, Language Learning Skills and Materials (Listening and Speaking), Language Learning Skills and Materials (Reading and Writing), Assessment in Language Learning, Computer Assisted Language Learning. Their corollary was my master's

dissertation written several years later (after the completion of my Ph.D. training) on a topic circumscribed to the area of contrastive rhetoric, with Dr. Teresa O'Brien as academic supervisor. For my performance in the taught courses, as well as for my dissertation, I received A grades, which earned me the MASTER IN EDUCATION title in 2002.

The third turning point in my career was winning a national bid in a research project competition launched by the then National University Research Council (CNCSIS), in 2006. The research proposal submitted in September 2006 was entitled "Competitiveness and Effectiveness in Specialised Intercultural Communication through the Optimization of Online Resources" (type A, ref. 929) and scored 92 points out of 100. Launched in early 2007, the project received a research grant in the amount of 173,000 RON. Although at that time I already had previous experience with working in research teams, it was in the course of this two-year project that I acquired hands-on expertise in managing an interdisciplinary team of specialists, in making provisions for and monitoring every stage of the research process. Most importantly, it opened a new research avenue, metalexicography, a less trodden path in Romanian lexicography.

There have conceivably been more significant events which came to pass at different times across an academic career spanning two and a half decades, such as mine, a career that has been devoted, in variable proportions, to research, teaching, and administrative commitments at university, faculty, and department level.

But I hold the events highlighted above as particularly impactful, due to their far-reaching influence in shaping and directing my subsequent research interests in three main directions equally worthy of scholarly interest. For convenience, I have marshalled them in three broad categories, i.e. linguistics, literacy studies, and lexicography. Although they originally emerged as non-related research interests, in the course of time these different strands have grown together, converged, and cross-pollinated in ways that will become apparent during the discussion in the following sections.

CHAPTER 1 | Linguistics and related research

This chapter groups the research conducted in a number of areas subsumable within the wider domain of linguistics. Section 1.1 and the following two subsections provide an outline of my work in the field of contact linguistics. Section 1.2 describes how work along this line has been taken further through more focused, discrete-point investigations of a number of contact related phenomena, as well as by adapting theories and concepts stemming from this field for studies performed in other areas.

1.1 DOCTORAL RESEARCH: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND, PROCEDURAL PRELIMINARIES, AND FINDINGS

My interest in contact linguistics as a sub-discipline in its own right was sparked while researching for my doctoral thesis, when notions such as *language contact*, *cultural contact*, *interference*, *borrowing*, *acculturation*, *bilingualism*, etc. came into sharper focus. In translation, the title of my doctoral thesis is "The Latin Elements in the English Language Repertoire and Structure" (*Elementele latine în inventarul şi structura limbii engleze*, in the original). This research project eventually crystallized into a monographic study published in 2001 under the title "The Place and Role of Latin Elements in the History of the English Language" (*Locul şi rolul elementului latin în istoria limbii engleze*, in the original). My book was reviewed in "*Foaie pentru minte, inimă şi literatură*" (11-12 November 2001), the literary supplement of the then local newspaper *Gazeta de Transilvania*.

Given the wide scope of this investigation, which presupposed extensive data collection and analysis, but mostly in view of the interesting insights it yielded, a closer look at the nature and findings of my scholarly endeavours in this direction is worth taking here.

1.1.1 Theoretical Background and Procedural Preliminaries

The Latin Elements in the English Language Repertoire and System reports on a diachronic exploration of the language contact situation holding between English and Latin, two Indo-European languages pertaining to different sub-branches, i.e. Germanic and Italic, respectively. The working assumption that my research has been premised on is that, given their enduring relationship throughout the centuries, Latin must have played a significant part in the development of the English language.

Overall, Latin is one of the fifty-odd languages that English has come in contact with in the course of its history (Baugh and Cable 1993). But does the Latin influence stand out in any way? If so, what makes the Latin contribution special? And, equally important, how and to what extent can it be disentangled from the individual contributions made by other languages?

My background reading in the field revealed that the specialist literature available up until that time illustrated different lines of approach to the matter in hand: some resources provided but a fragmentary, discrete-point account of the Anglo-Latin contact, others treated the Latin influence on English indiscriminately from influences exerted by Romance languages (particularly French and Italian), while other studies simply integrated this subject with other language-related matters, which largely obscured the weight carried by the Latin contribution to honing English into the widely popular and highly expressive contact language that it is today. Furthermore, the Anglo-Latin contact situation seemed to be treated from either a linguistic perspective, which focused on its results (i.e. borrowing), or from a historical standpoint, which considered exclusively the language-external circumstances accounting for its occurrence.

To bridge this glaring gap in the literature, I set out to gauge the magnitude and depth of the Latin influence traced across the conventionally established periods in the history of the English language, i.e. pre-Old English (prior to A.D. 450), Old English (A.D. 450-1100), Middle English (A.D. 1100-1500), and Modern English (A.D. 1500 to present times), with the ultimate aim to provide a coherent and reasoned account of the overall role played by Latin in the making of English. Besides the mere recording of facts already established by others, I set out to connect the extralinguistic causes to their linguistic effects and, from here, to put forward a theory-

informed explanation of these effects, resting on the linguistic laws and principles at work in natural languages.

One of the principles undergirding my research has originally been promoted by prominent linguists such as Weinreich (1953), Lado (1957), Wald (1969), and Haugen (1972), who advocated the interrelatedness between language and the cultural setting in which it evolves. This entails that a diachronic investigation of language change cannot ignore or downplay societal change. As Thomason and Kaufman (1988) aptly put it,

> "[…] the history of a language is a function of the history of its speakers, and not an independent phenomenon that can be thoroughly studied without reference to the social context in which it is embedded." (1988: 4)

As far as contact situations are concerned, earlier anthropological research has shown that **cultural contact** is the typical backdrop for **language contact**; and if the former most often triggers *acculturation*, i.e. the transfer of cultural features between (or among) the communities involved, the natural outcomes of the latter are *interference phenomena* resulting from the transfer of language units and/or features from one idiom to another. The direct consequence of a partial code-switch, this transfer may be localised and accidental, as is the case of someone who commits an L2 performance error under the influence of his/her primary language system, or it may be more generalized among language users and more permanent in their L1, in which case the interference phenomena become instances of borrowing.

In brief, ***culture contact – language contact – interference – borrowing*** constitute a concatenated string of phenomena standing in a cause-effect relation to each other, with each element serving as stimulus for the next. This brings us to another important element that has a bearing on each of them, i.e. *bilingualism*. While, generally speaking, bilingualism is essential in promoting culture and language contact, a more fine-grained description of the bilingual group's profile is important when accounting for phenomena such as interference and borrowing. As cogently noted by Weinreich (1953), given the loose patterning of the vocabulary in any natural language, lexical interference and subsequent borrowing at this level can be performed by individuals with limited competence in a foreign language, or even by speakers with no foreign language competence as all. On the other hand, structural borrowing (e.g. syntactic patterns, grammatical morphemes, translation loans) occurring as a result of lexico-grammatical

interference presupposes the existence of a high level of bilingualism on the part of the language users and, quite often, the presence of collective/societal bilingualism.

It follows from the points made above that, besides the sociolinguistic dimension, painting a comprehensive picture of the contact situation in hand and, more importantly, assessing its effects necessarily involves expanding the research frame even further, by factoring in a psycholinguistic component, one which relates to the nature and extent of bilingualism prevalent during the different historical periods in the history of the English-speaking community. This is in line with the commonly held view that bilingualism is an indispensable enabler of contact (e.g. Weinreich 1953, Romaine 1995, Spolsky 1998) which, in its turn, is a catalyst for language change.

With this in mind, I undertook a quantitative and qualitative study of the Anglo-Latin contact and of the resulting interference phenomena, with a focus on language borrowing. This investigation has been premised on the idea that the linguistic output of the longstanding contact between Latin and English will afford a panoptic view of the role and contribution of the former to the overall development of the latter. It has required, among others, referring to old dictionaries (e.g. Bosworth and Toller's 1882 *An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary*), in order to determine gender assignation of Latin words in Old English - a synthetic idiom possessing grammatical gender - as well as the semantic evolution of hundreds of words on my list.

The data collected and the findings resulting from their critical analysis have been structured in four chapters which make up my doctoral dissertation, as follows. The first chapter sets the scene for the entire discussion, tracing the history of the contact between Latin and English against a social, political, economic, and cultural backdrop. The survey begins with the contact established between the insular Celtic tribes and the Roman legions in the wake of the Roman conquest and occupation in A.D. 43. It follows the ebbs and flows of the Anglo-Latin contact through the different periods, up to the present times. Mapping the diachrony of this particular contact situation (as, indeed, of *any* contact situation) makes it possible to correlate the linguistic effects of the contact with their extralinguistic causes. Apart from that, identifying the language-external factors which either promoted or precluded language contact during the different historical periods under investigation enabled me to delimit (insofar as evidence allowed it) the naturally-

arising language change from the contact-induced change, on the one hand and, and the Latin contribution from the overall Romance contribution, on the other.

In order to piece together a clear and comprehensive account of the ecology of this contact situation I relied mainly (but not exclusively) on historiographic evidence extracted from ancient and contemporary sources, such as Tacitus (*Annales, liber XII, liber XIV; De Vita et moribus I. Agricolae*) and Orosius (*Historia mundi adversus paganos, liber VII*), from whom I collected data about the Roman occupation of the British Isles, and the relationship between the Celtic population and their Latin-speaking victors; Salway (1981) and Frere (1991), who were the main sources of details about life in Roman *Britannia* following pacification, and Woodward (1962), who provided relevant data about the various historical periods in the history of England. The insights gained from the historical and sociolinguistic sources allowed me to formulate the following general postulates:

(1) The cultural contact between English and Latin has been virtually uninterrupted: it started during the Ist century pre-Old English period and extended until the present times. It will be noted here that, up until the first half of the Vth century, language contact fared in parallel with the physical contact between the two language communities. Following the withdrawal of the Roman troops and the dissolution of the Roman Empire during the latter half of the Vth century, the contact no longer involved direct interaction between two native language groups.

(2) The relative position of the two cultures and of their respective languages shows that, in the course of history, Latin has come to be admired as much for itself as for the culture it represented. By and large, Latin was, across the centuries, the language of a more refined civilization (in pre-Old English), a vehicle for Christianity (in Old English), the *lingua franca* of learning and scholarship (in Old English, Middle English and Early Modern English), a resource of specialist terminology (in Modern English).

(3) Pre-Old English is the only period of time during which interference and, subsequently, borrowing was bidirectional. Apart from that, the interference remained unidirectional, i.e. from Latin to English.

(4) Across time, the bilingual individuals who facilitated the contact were well-educated people. Most frequently, they deliberately imported Latin elements for their own purposes, and transferred them into English via the written medium. Their occurrence mostly in writing and mostly in the elevated or scientific registers of English explains the limited circulation of the Latin importation. This and the bilingual groups' familiarity with the source language further explain the relatively low degree of integration of such Latin elements into the English language system. Generally speaking, the Latinisms with the highest degree of integration in English are those borrowed earliest: these early loans largely retained their concrete meaning and, being widely circulated not just among bilinguals, but also among monolingual English speakers, stood better chances to adapt to and integrate in the vocabulary and/or system of their host language, gaining full membership thereof.

(5) Throughout the contact situation the reasons for borrowing were objective and/or subjective. Instances of objective borrowing are those Latin-based items transferred for practical reasons, mainly to fill a gap in the English lexicon. Quite often, words imported out of necessity were taken over together with the object or concept they stood for. Subjective borrowing, on the other hand, is justified by other than practical reasons, i.e. snobbery, pedanticalness, convenience, stylistic effect, high regard for another language. Stylistic reasons and the high status of the Latin language seem to have been the case in most instances of subjective borrowing. The highest incidence of subjective borrowing is found between the XIVth and the XVIIth centuries, particularly during the English Humanism and Renaissance.

From here, the following three chapters are devoted to detailed analyses of the interference phenomena manifest during each of the three periods in the history of the English language. The same line of approach is consistently pursued in each chapter: the first section overviews the landmark events in the social history of the borrowing community (i.e. Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, and English) which account for the particularities of the contact situation and help explain its outcomes. The second section in each chapter provides a synchronic description of the linguistic *status quo*, reporting on the characteristic features of the English language during the historical period in question. The third section proceeds with a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the Latin influence during the period in question and summarizes the findings thereof.

Methodologically, the principle underlying data selection has been *direct etymology*, which means that relevant for my purposes have been only those instances of borrowing which came directly from the Latin source. This excludes *ab initio* the bulk of Latinate loans which came into English via French or Italian and evince changes specific thereof: for example, the English adjectival doublet consisting of *regal*, a direct loan from Latin (*regalis*), and *royal*, an indirect Latin loan of Old French transmission (*roial*).

The analysis, classification and description of the Latin elements have been based on a set of criteria used consistently, i.e. the causes of borrowing in each historical period, the types of borrowing (lexical/structural, total/partial), the conceptual spheres and language registers to which such borrowing pertains and, finally, the extent to which the Latin element was integrated into the English language system and turned into a fully functional and productive member thereof.

As a general principle, this last criterion, i.e. integration and productivity in the borrowing language, is an essential yardstick in the assessment of the extent of influence of one idiom upon another. I therefore share Baugh and Cable's view (1993), who argue that

> "The real test of a foreign influence is the degree to which the words it brought in were assimilated. This is not merely a question of the power to survive; it is a question of how completely the words were digested and became indistinguishable from the native word-stock, so that they could enter into compounds and be made into other parts of speech, just like native words" (1993: 89)

Having outlined the objectives of the present investigation, the theoretical principles, premises and methods that my research has drawn on, in what follows I will briefly outline the findings for each historical period under study.

1.1.2 The Findings: A Synopsis

The discussion in this section will be concerned with direct borrowing from Latin performed at various stages in the linguistic and social history of English. For the sake of brevity, I will be essentializing the data concerning the conceptual spheres and the language registers to which

the imported items pertain, as well as the ways in which they were adapted to the recipient language system.

THE IST CENTURY TO A.D. 450: THE PRE-OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Jespersen's (1938: 27) view that the number and quality of loanwords operated between two languages offer valuable data on the relations between the ethnic communities in contact is particularly germane in the case of this insufficiently documented period (linguistically, at least) in the prehistory of the English community. Largely lost in the mist of time, this period pre-dates by nearly five centuries the commonly acknowledged date of birth of the English language. In other words, if there seems to be a consensus in the specialist literature that A.D. 450, the date around which the Anglo-Saxon tribes first set foot on the British Isles, marks the beginning of the English language, no less true is the fact that the history of the contact between Latin and the idioms which were to become its stratum and substratum (Anglo-Saxon and Celtic, respectively) started well in advance.

There are two distinct and parallel stages in the overall influence that Latin exerted during the prehistory of English: one facilitated by the direct, physical contact that Latin-speaking soldiers and merchants established with the Germanic tribes on the Continent, the other, concurrent, exercised in the context of daily interactions between the Latin-speaking troops and the conquered Celtic tribes. These two stages will be described under the headings *The Continental influence* and *The Roman occupation*, below.

Let it first be said that the extant written records documenting the English community date back to the VIIth century, but no earlier than that. This implies that the analysis of language data cannot rely on any direct evidence such as written texts or artifacts, which makes the amount of Latin loanwords taken over during either of these two stages rather difficult to fathom. In this case, the study of the Latin contribution can only be conducted by resorting to the use of indirect evidence derived mainly from the phonological evolution of vocabulary items and, on occasion, from the contrastive examination of the repertoires of several Celtic dialects in order to identify possible discrepancies which could be put down to Latin influence.

The Continental influence

The number of Latin loanwords which would have entered the vocabularies of the Germanic populations living on either side of the Rhine is a debated and debatable issue in the literature. Their numbers have been estimated roughly to "hundreds of Latin words" (Kastovsky 1992: 302) or, more precisely, to an overall of 400 words (Strang 1970) identifiable in one, in several, or in all Germanic dialects. But just how many of these were actually adopted in the vernaculars of the Anglo-Saxons who would later leave the Continent to settle on the British Isles? The reply to this question is again a matter of variance: from around 50 items (Baugh and Cable 1993) to 170 (Loth 1892).

Beyond such statistical data, however, the sources concur on the fact that borrowing at this stage presents itself under the form of *outright transfer* (signified+signifier) of lexical items most of which are nouns imported for practical reasons, i.e. to fill a gap in the vernacular vocabularies. These loanwords, then, mostly serve a denominal (or labelling) function and, being necessary additions to the recipient vocabularies, became established in the Germanic idioms, in the same way as the objects they stood for became part of the material cultures of their Germanic borrowers.

Transferred via the spoken medium of language, the phonetic forms of these loanwords betray their *vulgar Latin* origin; this is only to be expected, considering the nature of the interaction between the communities involved. Conceptually, these loans pertain to various spheres related to everyday life, such as military and administrative terms; trade, money, and measures; construction, building, and human settlements; housewares and tools; food; clothing and jewelry; phytonyms; zoonyms, etc.

Once transferred into Germanic, most Latin loanwords were adapted phonetically, and underwent the same changes as those belonging to the native stock. By and large, these changes were determined by the need of the transferred items to comply with Germanic stress patterns. For example, short /a/ in Latin words becomes /æ/, /a/, /o/ or /ea/: *tabula – tæfl, saccus – sac, candela – candel/condel, calcem – calc/cealc*; in some cases, /æ/ further mutates to /e/, so that the result is [L. a – G. æ – G. e]: *calicem – cælic – celc.* In the stressed syllables, long /a/ in Latin words becomes /æ/ upon their adoption in the Germanic idioms: *radic-em – rædic, strata – stræt.*

Apart from the phonetic changes, the Latin loanwords went through a process of morphological adaptation. In its simplest and most obvious form, adaptation at this level is visible in the Latin-based loans imported in Germanic without their original inflections e.g. *campus – camp, candela – candel, milium – mil, postis – post,* etc. Contrariwise, in some loans, a Germanic inflection substitutes the Latin original. This substitution is particularly conspicuous with verbs and, as Deroy (1956) noted in his seminal book on language borrowing, it appears to be a general tendency in natural languages. According to Deroy,

> "L'insertion d'un verbe emprunté dans la conjugaison indigène ne va pas naturellement sans une substitution de la finale, plus apparente en général que dans les noms." (1956: 253-254)

It is interesting to note that verbs borrowed from Latin at this time typically belong to the first conjugation and, in the vast majority of cases, are transferred into Germanic as weak verbs, which is not surprising, given the more systematic (and therefore simpler) paradigms of weak verbs. Therefore, in Latin loans in *–are*, the original suffix is replaced with the indigenous *–an/-ian*: *dictare – dictan* "to order", *pipare – pipian* "to play the flute", *saltare – saltian/sealtian* "to dance", etc.

An interesting form of morphological adaptation relates to the gender of imported nouns. Since the contact situation in hand involves language systems possessing grammatical gender, the predominant tendency with Latin nouns transferred in Germanic is to retain their original gender but change their form. Fewer Latin nouns were reassigned, in terms of gender, which also affected their form. For instance, feminine nouns in *–a* (first declension in Latin) were borrowed feminine like in the original but, since in Anglo-Saxon *–a* used to be a masculine inflection, the Latin suffix was either changed, e.g. *cepa – cipe, coquina – cycene, menta – minte, planta – plante,* or altogether dispensed with, e.g. *poena – pin, purpura – purpur, strata – stræt, tabula – tæfl*, etc. A comparatively more restricted number of Latin masculine gender nouns in *–ius, –eus*, and neuter gender nouns ending in *–ium, –eum* were reassigned to the feminine gender in Anglo-Saxon. In such cases, an *–e* ending was added if the final syllable was long, or gemination occurred after short syllables, like in *caseus – ciese, puteus – pytt*.

One form of adaptation is often considered the practice of borrowing paradigmatic forms of an inflectional word, and treating them as base forms. This practice is instantiated by the transfer of

a number of oblique case stems of Latin nouns pertaining to the third declension, e.g. Latin *calc-em* (nominative *calx*), *calic-em* (nominative *calix*), *pic-em* (nominative *pix*), *radic-em* (nominative *radix*), *union-em* (nominative *unio*). Lass (1994) considers it a Germanic tendency:

> "If a Latin noun has stem alternants […], Germanic typically borrows the oblique form, probably because the oblique stems were at this time being generalized in spoken Latin." (1994: 184)

I would argue, however, that since oblique case forms were becoming increasingly popular in *Latina rusticalis* spoken at that time, it is only fair to assume that the preference for them over the direct case forms is not endemic to Germanic idioms.

In Romanian, for example, nouns like *frunte* ("forehead"), *munte* ("mountain"), *parte* ("part"), *perete* ("wall"), etc. are based on the oblique stems *front-is* (nominative *frons*), *mont-em* (nominative *mons*), *part-is* (nominative *pars*), and *pariet-is* (nominative *paries*), respectively. This clearly suggests that the predilection for oblique case forms over direct case forms was a more general trend, rather than a tendency endemic, as Lass (1994) suggests, to languages within the Germanic family.

If the two forms of adaptation – phonetic and morphological – discussed above are structural and are brought about by language-internal factors, semantic adaptation is triggered by language-external stimuli. Indeed, changes in the semantic content of words are reflections of the changes occurring in extralinguistic reality or, at least, in the ways that a given community decodes and re-encodes the stimuli from extralinguistic reality. Overall, the semantic adaptation taking place at this time is far from being a large scale phenomenon. However, while most loanwords were kept like in the original, there are significantly fewer cases of semantic widening. For example, *ceap* (Latin *caupo* "innkeeper", "merchant") also acquireed, in Anglo-Saxon, the meanings "price", "market", "merchandize"; *ceast* (Latin *causa* "cause", "motive", "pretext", "legal affair") further developed the meaning "strife"; *camp* (Latin *campus* "camp", "battle field") takes on the meaning "competition", "battle", "war" (cf. German *Kampf*).

It will be noted here that semantic changes such as these are not completely arbitrary, as the newly acquired senses are not divergent from the original ones. The opposite process, narrowing, is also a limited phenomenon. As its name suggests, it involves the transfer of a Latin word with

fewer meanings than in the original. For example, Anglo-Saxon *gimm* (Latin *gemma* "gem", "bud") retained only the sense "gem"; *rædic* (Latin *radic-em* "radish", "root") was used exclusively in the sense "radish", etc. Another form of semantic adaptation, folk etymology, is found in *meregreot/meregrota*, a re-interpretation of Latin *margarita* "pearl" as *mere* (Anglo-Saxon "sea", "lake") and *greot/grota* (Anglo-Saxon "pebble"), or *swiftlere*, where the Latin prefix *sub–* in *subtalaris* ("slipper"), is equated and substituted with the Anglo-Saxon "swift".

The foregoing discussion has briefly overviewed those loanwords in the Anglo-Saxon idioms resulting from the contact established with Latin at a time prior to the invasion and settlement of the three Germanic tribes, i.e. the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes, on the British Isles. These are the loanwords that Anglo-Saxon speakers would later bring along to *Britannia* and would eventually become established as part of the English language stratum. By showing what changes befell these Latin loans, I have explained how this alien language items managed to survive in their new linguistic environment. But how fully have they been "digested" by the borrowing idioms?

Generally speaking, the degree of assimilation of loanwords into another language system is commensurate with their productivity in the borrowing language, in other words, with their potential to serve as "raw material" for new lexical formations. As Deroy (1956) avers,

> "On peut dire qu'un emprunt est tout à fait entré dans l'usage quand il se prête à la dérivation ou à la composition au même titre qu'un mot autochtone." (1956: 234)

As shown above, the amount of outright transfer from Latin is very limited, a fact consistent with the natural resistance of Germanic languages to alien material. But this resistance is offset by the productivity of the Latin borrowings, that is, by their role in creating new lexical items: the Latin-based *weall,* occurs in no less than fifteen compound nouns, among which *weall-dor* ("wall door"), *weall-geat* ("wall gate"), *bord-weall* ("board wall"), *stan-weall* ("stone wall"), etc. Latin tree names were reshaped into closer resemblance with the Germanic model, so that the resulting compound consisted of a Latin element juxtaposed to the Germanic noun *beam* (cf. German *Baum*, "tree") or, as the case may be, *treo/treow*: e.g. *cesten/cisten-beam* "chestnut tree", *ciris-beam* "cherry tree", *pin-beam* ("pine tree"), *plum-treo/treow* ("plum tree"), etc.

As far as the derivatives are concerned, noteworthy is the procedure to create denominal verbs from a Latin noun base with a Germanic verb suffix (*–an/-ian*) attached: e.g. *capian* "to fight", *magian* "to trade", *pilian* "to grind", *pinian* "to punish", *tæflan* "to gamble" (cf. also the noun *tæflere*, where *–ere* is the Germanic agentive suffix), etc. Equally interesting are the abstract nouns derived by means of the Germanic suffix *–ung*: e.g. *mangung* "trade", *pinung* "suffering" (co-existing with the concrete sense "torture"), and the denominal adjectives in *–en*: e.g. *picen* "pitch-like", *purpuren* "purple", *tigelen* "of clay", etc.

Assessing the outcomes of the contact between Latin and Anglo-Saxon, Loth (1892: 53-55) claims that the Latin borrowing during the Continental period is by far more important, quantitatively and qualitatively, than that taking place after the settlement of Anglo-Saxons on the British Isles.

The Roman occupation of *Britannia*

This temporal landmark refers to the contact between Latin and the Celtic idioms (Welsh, Cornish, and Breton) taking place during the Roman occupation of *Britannia* (end of Ist century – A.D. 450). As shown in the literature, the total number of items dated to this period amounts to anywhere between 600 words (Loth 1892, Baugh and Cable 1993) and 800 words (Jackson 1956). Although the Latin-Celtic contact has been interesting to both historians and linguists, the latter seem to have been less fortunate, given the modicum of documentary evidence that they can draw on. The linguistic approach to this contact situation is further complicated by the restricted circulation of the Celtic idioms and, in some cases, by their becoming extinct (e.g. Cumbric).

It is rather strange that the collective bilingualism developing during the nearly four-century old physical contact between the Celtic populations inhabiting the British Isles at that time and the Latin-speaking troops should have had such little impact on the Celtic idioms. After all, unlike the contact situation described above (The Continental influence, *q.v.*), Latin is now used on a daily basis in interactions between the soldiers stationed in Britain and the local population. A plausible explanation for this relates to the level of bilingualism prevalent at the time.

The kind of Latin spoken by the educated social strata (Celtic nobility, the local administration) was the result of schooling (Jackson 1956) and, as such, these locals' competence in Latin would have been (almost) as high as that in their primary language. In other words, one can safely assume the existence of balanced or coordinate bilingualism (Weinreich's 1953 term). Theoretically speaking, it is this specific type of bilingualism which allows the speakers to keep the two language systems apart in communication, which entails that, in such cases, interference should be minimal or virtually nil. The little or no potential for interference could well explain the low amount of borrowing.

The predominant type of borrowing at this time is the outright transfer and the preferred word-classes that the loanwords belong to are the notional ones, with nouns forming the bulk of the borrowings, while verbs and adjectives are considerably fewer. The conceptual spheres they belong to can be grouped as follows: military and legal terminology; administration and social organization; education, and intellectual activities; religion; timekeeping and calendar items; construction and building; household items, furniture and food; zoonyms; phytonyms and agricultural implements; anthroponyms, toponyms.

Most of these words were needed because they had no counterparts in the natives' vocabulary; a few of them, however, were introduced as more prestige-laden synonyms of native originals which, in some cases, they eventually displaced. Such is the case of the handful of loanwords which qualify as subjective borrowing: *barba* "beard", *bracchium* "arm", *bucca* "cheek", *cubitus* "elbow", *palma* "palm". Given their basic senses, one can, within reason, assume that their borrowing should more readily be put down to the prestige of the donor language rather than to a hiatus in the Celtic vocabulary. Although not really needed, these loanwords eventually superseded their indigenous equivalents. The same is true for Latin *pontem* ("bridge") which replaced the Celtic noun *briva*, quite possibly because Roman bridges were more impressive structures, or *gurdus* "fool" (which the Romans themselves borrowed in Spain), which may have met a need for euphemisms in the borrowing language, or may have been considered more expressive than its vernacular counterpart (Wild 1970: 127).

Once borrowed, the Latin loanwords were easily assimilated into the recipient language. According to Jackson (1956: 80-81), this easiness is due to the structural similarities between the phonological and morphological systems of the languages in contact, which made it possible for

the Latin loanwords to become integrated in the Celtic idioms without much change in their formal makeup.

It is interesting to note, in this connection, that the structural affinities between these languages have deeper roots. They go down to the prehistoric Italo-Celtic community, whose idioms may have been descendants of the same protolanguage, or may have developed into closer resemblance which each other as a result of longstanding contact and inter-influencing (Wald and Sluşanschi 1987: 332-335).

As already stated above, language contact during the Roman occupation of Britannia yielded meagre results, i.e. between 600 and 800 loanwords, which is rather surprising, in view of its considerable time span. Even more surprising is the fact that no more than twenty of them survived in the Celtic substratum and were passed on to the incoming Anglo-Saxons, in the latter half of the Vth century.

The arguments used to explain this situation rest more on historical facts than on linguistic data. In brief, they relate to (i) whether or not the Celtic and the Anglo-Saxon populations actually came in contact between the latter half of the Vth century and the VIth century; (ii) the extent of the cultural assimilation undergone by the Celtic population during the Roman occupation and, from here, (iii) the degree and extent of bilingualism manifest at that time.

The points of view on the issues above are polarized: to refer only to the first, some authors (e.g. Jespersen 1938, Wrenn 1977, Freeborn 1992) consider it unlikely for the Celts to have come in direct contact with the Anglo-Saxon invaders and would therefore have had little (if any) opportunity to pass on the Latin loans they had acquired. This would justify the insignificant amount of Latin words (mainly toponyms) that endured in the Celtic substratum.

Contrariwise, there are authors (e.g. Jackson 1956, Strang 1970, Barber 1993) who support the view that the Celts and the Anglo-Saxons came in contact in the post-Roman period, arguing for the continuity of the Latin influence. While maintaining that the number of Latin words handed down via Celtic transmission must have been considerably higher, Strang (1970: 390) concedes that the completely accurate determination of the channel - Celtic or Anglo-Saxon – of Latinisms in Old English is a very difficult (if not altogether impossible) task.

The various sources largely concur, however, on the Latin contribution to toponymy. A number of Latin place names, e.g. *castra, vicus, strata, campus, colonia*, etc., which date from the occupation period are nowadays found in toponyms like Chester, Chesterfield, Manchester, Gatwick, Warwick, Stratford, Stratton, Lincoln, etc.

A.D. 450 TO THE XITH CENTURY: THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Considering the Latin influence during this interval, two distinct stages can be identified: the earlier extends between A.D. 450 and A.D. 650, and the later, from A.D. 650 to the XIth century. These two stages differ on several points: (i) methodologically, unlike in the earlier period, when linguistic evidence rests exclusively on phonetic criteria, starting with the later period, direct evidence (i.e. written texts) becomes available; (ii) qualitatively, the informative, practical nature of the Latin loans taken over in the earlier stage is offset by the stylistic function of a large amount of borrowing performed at a later time; (iii) there is a clear tendency, in the later stage, to import di-/polysyllabic words; (iv) words borrowed during the early period are more naturalized than later borrowings, which tend to preserve their Latin *facies*; (v) in terms of its scope, the Latin influence exerted in the later period exceeds the domain of the lexicon, becoming manifest at the level of syntax. This means that the borrowing operated during this period is both lexical and structural.

But above and beyond such differences, it is during the Old English period that lexical borrowing is both total (via outright transfer) and partial (via calque). Like previously, the bulk of borrowing consists of nouns; very few verbs and adjectives found their way into the Old English lexicon as a result of outright transfer. To compensate for this, Old English verbs and adjectives were created internally, by means of derivation from a Latin nominal base, cf. *culpa* – *culp**ian*** (“to humble oneself”), *martyr* – ***ge**martyr**ian*** (“to martyr”), *biscop* – *biscop**lic*** (“bishoplike’), etc.

By and large, the domains covered by the loanwords dating from the Old English period are: military, legal, and administrative; measures; constructions; human settlements; houseware, kitchenware and tools; food; phytonyms; zoonyms; clothing and jewelry; religion; learning, culture, art, and science; medicine. As stated at point (iii) above, earlier loans are better adapted to the Old English languages system. Phonetically, this adaptation consists of substitution, e.g.

short /a/ in Classical Latin forms is substituted by /æ/, /a/, /o/ or /ea/ in the early stage loans, and preserved like in the original in the case of later loans: cf. a*bbat-em – abbod, castra – cæster, psalmus – sealm* as opposed to *castellum – castel, charta – carte, magister – magister, martyr – martir*; the *-ct-* sequence is adapted to *-ht-* in earlier loans, and kept intact in later ones, e.g. *tractus – traht, nocturnus – noctern, lactuca – leahric* (and later, *lactuce*).

Not all the loanwords imported at this time underwent morphological adaptation; but when it happened, Latin items were adapted in several ways, the simplest being by removing the original endings, e.g. *circulus – circul, falsum – fals,* or by substituting them with their vernacular equivalent *mort**arium** – mort**ere**, declin**are** – declin**ian**,* etc. The cases of semantic change, as a result of borrowing are rare; this is to be expected, given the practical reason for borrowing. The few cases of semantic adaptation are combined with a shift in lexical class: for example, the Old English adjective *cusc* ("chaste", "humble") originates in the Latin noun *conscius* ("witness", "accomplice").

The Germanic character of Old English is particularly manifest in its propensity for partial borrowing. Unlike outright transfer, resorting to calque presupposes a deliberate act done by well-educated bilinguals. This type of borrowing became a large-scale occurrence in the latter half of the IXth century, during King Alfred's reign, and reached its peak towards the end of the Old English period, particularly during the Benedictine Revival, when translation of Latin religious texts was performed on a large-scale. The typology of calque is well-represented. The lexical calques (both loan translations and loanshifts) based on Latin models yielded elevated terminology consisting of nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

Apart from these, syntactic calques are extremely interesting, although the amplitude of this phenomenon is not a matter of consensus among the specialists. Opinions converge, however, on the borrowing of syntactic patterns such as *accusativus cum infinitivo,* and the absolute participial construction, both of them structures originally transferred in Old English via translations of Latin texts: e.g. *se cyng … bead heom* [ac.] *cuman* [inf.] *to Gleaweceastre* (cf. Denison, 1993: 178), and the absolute participial construction, e.g. *him sprecendum* [part.] *hi comon* (Latin *eo loquente veniunt*) (cf Quirk and Wrenn 1981: 66). Apart from these, it is commonly agreed that exposure to Latin texts has left an imprint on the rhetoric of Old English

writing and has been instrumental in the development of the hypotactic style found in Anglo-Saxon texts composed during this period.

THE XITH TO THE XVTH CENTURY: THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

The historical context in which the Anglo-Saxon community evolved in the wake of the Norman Conquest (A.D. 1066) determined a drastic impoverishment of the vernacular. Interestingly enough, the lexical calques were the first elements to peter out of use, while the loanwords, particularly the earlier ones, were preserved. Their survival may be put down to their seniority in the recipient language, to their more adapted forms, and to their frequency of use by the borrowing community. These factors were powerful enough to secure them a relatively stable place in the Anglo-Saxon vocabulary. But another compelling reason for their survival is the presence of cognate forms that the French-speaking newcomers already had in their vocabulary.

Whereas borrowing from Latin during the 1066-1350 interval is very limited, the linguistic outcomes of the cultural contact which takes place between 1350 and 1500 are much more substantial. Most of the borrowing performed at this time serves practical purposes: these items were much needed in order to make up for the losses in the vernacular vocabulary. The Latin loanwords - nouns, verbs, adjectives, and more restrictively, adverbs, phrases and idiomatic expressions – can be subsumed under the following fields: religion; law, administration and politics; medicine; learning, culture and science; botany; zoology, and others.

Transferred deliberately by scholars and educated people, their forms changed very little, if at all. In any case, whatever adaptations these items underwent, they were the effect of the French influence on English. For example, a host of nouns imported directly from Latin were shaped into closer resemblance to earlier French loans (of ultimately Latin origin), where the Latin first declension feminine gender suffix *–a* had mutated to *–ie*. Thus, Old French forms like *felonie, comédie* (ultimately from Latin *felonia, comoedia*), imported in early Middle English as *felonie, comedie* served as models for the adaptation of later direct loans from Latin: *allegorie, colonie, familie, historie, prosodye*, etc. (from Latin *allegoria, colonia, familia, historia, prosodia*).

Furthermore, one notable effect (and evidence) of educated borrowing is the practice of importing different paradigmatic forms of variable words, not just their base form. This is

particularly obvious with verbs, some of which were imported in their infinitive form, while others in their participial form (present or past), the indicative (present or past, active or passive), the imperative or in gerundive forms.

But beyond this, educated borrowing from Latin had a more far-reaching impact. The morphologically complex items transferred at this time serve as vehicles for a large number of affixes that would eventually become part and parcel of the English language vocabulary, strengthening its internal resources and promoting the indigenous word-forming processes.

One other notable imprint of Latin is manifest in the area of Middle English Syntax. Its outcomes are particularly conspicuous in the latter half of this period. From among them, interesting to note is the functional expansion of the interrogative pronouns (i.e. *who, what, which, whose*) that also take on the relative function, in analogy with their Latin equivalents. Apart from this, the unremitting practice of translation from Latin brings about a change in the style and rhetoric of medieval texts which make ample use of the "aureate diction" consisting of sophisticated, polysyllabic words of Latin origin, combined in long and circumvoluted sentences.

FROM THE XVTH CENTURY ONWARDS: THE MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD

In the literature, this period is commonly divided into three stages. However, as far as the Anglo-Latin contact is concerned, I have distinguished two stages, the first extending between approximately 1500 and 1700, the second starting with 1700 up to the present times. I have identified both similarities and dissimilarities between these two stages. Amongst the most important points of discrepancy is the quantity and quality of the Latin contribution in each stage.

In the Middle Ages, Latin had served, to all intents and purposes, as a sociolect. During the English Renaissance, which is roughly coextensive with the first stage identified above, Latin establishes itself, more than ever before, as the *lingua franca* of learning and scholarship. It was the language that ensured the wide circulation of a scholar's work (in much the same way, I might add, as English does nowadays). For example Thomas More's *Utopia* was first published in Latin in 1516 and was translated into English only decades later. The prestige status of Latin explains the higher density of abstract nouns, alongside verbs, adjectives and adverbials

pertaining to the following fields: religion; law, politics, and administration; medicine, anatomy, and psychology; botany and biology; zoology; philosophy; classical culture and civilization.

As expected, the vast majority of loanwords came from the open classes. Nevertheless, a small group of Latin prepositions were imported during the Modern English period: *circa, cum, in re, pace, per, qua, via, vice*. This in itself is a telling fact about the elevated position that Latin held within the borrowing community.

Considered globally, during this period the Latin influence is at its highest: besides outright transfer and calque, the cultural contact favours *innovation*, a term that I have used to refer to Latin-based items coined in English (as, indeed, in so many Indo-European languages) which have never been part of the original Latin vocabulary. Quite interestingly, whilst in the former stage Latin contributed a significant number of affixes, the amount of lexical borrowing – for the most part scholarly and specialized terms – decreased gradually, making room for innovation, a practice better suited to the current dynamics of knowledge making and communication.

The influx of Latin words dated to this period is accountable for the dissociative nature of the English lexicon, where one and the same lexical paradigm may consist of dissimilar items originating from different sources. For instance, basic English noun items such as *moon, flower, rain, mouth, ear, king, town, village, ox, wolf, bear,* have indigenous and/or Latin adjectival counterparts like, *lunar, flowery* and *floral, rainy* and *pluvial, oral, aural; kingly, royal*, and *regal, urban, rural, bovine, lupine, ursine,* respectively.

The Latin loanwords strengthened the Romance stress pattern in English, allowing them to co-exist with the indigenous, Germanic stress pattern. Overall, the Latin influence taking place at this time affected the lexicon much more than it did syntax. This is unsurprising, considering the fact that, by the latter stage, Standard English had already become crystallized. And because of that, English became less susceptible to language-external structural change.

To sum up my findings, there is compelling evidence that the complex historicity of this contact situation has made it possible for Latin to play, with various degree of intensity, a formative role in the scaffolding of the English language. The data clearly indicates the presence of Latin elements in the substratum, stratum, and superstratum of English. To variable extents, the Latin

influence left its imprint on both the lexicon and syntax (including the style) of English. A more subtle kind of influence can also be considered the catalyst role that Latin played in paving the way for some language-internal tendencies manifest in English such as internal word formation, innovation, and stylistic diversification.

The estimations on the total amount of Latinate items in the English lexicon vary with different authors. It seems more sensible, then, to take the view (cf. Strang 1970) that English has "appropriated" a quarter of the attested Latin vocabulary. The fact that English has a foothold in two camps, i.e. Germanic and Latin (the neo-Latin contribution included) strikes a chord with people of different linguistic backgrounds. This may well be one of the reasons for the international appeal that it currently holds.

1.2 FURTHER RESEARCH IN THE FIELD OF LINGUISTICS

Owing to its complex, interdisciplinary nature, the research work conducted during my doctoral studies raised my interest in a number of theoretical and practical aspects of contact, which I later revisited, for more in-depth investigations conducted from different vantage points. Apart from that, it allowed me to identify new research paths, equally interesting and research-worthy.

Most importantly, however, my doctoral training equipped me with the sound theoretical foundation, the intellectual discipline, and the breadth of thinking which have enabled me to undertake further cross-disciplinary investigations which required the transfer of knowledge between different fields.

One case in point is a study which involved testing the validity of a key notion in contact linguistics, i.e. interference, and its applicability in the description of transfer phenomena occurring in composition studies. In his authoritative work on language contact, Weinreich (1953) defines interference as

> "[a] deviation from the norms of either language [involved in the contact situation] which occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact […]" (1953:1)

He uses this term to refer to the "rearrangement of patterns" occurring in one language under the influence of another, as a result of borrowing. This suggests a dominant status that one language assumes in relation to another, a vantage point from which the more privileged idiom is in a position to influence the other language system and, at the same time, to resist the influence thereof.

In a bilingual situation, the dominant position is by default held by the language that the individual acquires first, usually (but not necessarily) his/her native tongue. Weinreich's (1953) research paradigm was originally designed for the investigation of interference phenomena at every language level (vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology).

The idea of extrapolating Weinreich's categories from the more discrete language units to the text as a whole has been prompted by the realization that, while composing texts in one language, bilingual writers tend to be influenced by their dominant repertoire of rhetorical features which may or may not have originated from their primary culture. This is indicative of the fact that, besides the commonly acknowledged types of language interference phenomena (i.e. phonetic, lexical, structural), comparable inter-influencing was expected to occur between the rhetorical features associated with the languages in the bilingual's repertoire.

Starting from this assumption, the research article *Interference in Action: On the Reliability of Romanian Rhetorical Competence* (2003, in "Conference on English and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 167-188, ISBN 973-635-240-4) focuses on three of Weinreich's (1953) postulates which I have applied to explain a form of interference occurring in texts composed in English and Romanian by novice writers.

Extrapolated to the specific Romanian-English contact situation under investigation, Weinreich's postulates have yielded the following propositions: (1) if the dominant language is by definition the bilingual's mother tongue then, in the contact situation in hand, Romanian should be the dominant language; (2) if influence is exerted by the dominant language, Romanian-language writing competence can reasonably be expected to interfere with English-language text production; (3) if interference can affect virtually all aspects of language, from the most tangible elements (e.g. words), to the less palpable ones (e.g. syntactic patterning), it may also take place beyond the microstructural level, that is, at text level.

As far as the second proposition is concerned, the empirical data available has clearly indicated that interference is bidirectional: in producing texts in either language, the novice writers in my sample were found to transfer elements of rhetorical organization (e.g. rhetorical strategies, metalinguistic features, layout conventions) quite freely from Romanian into English, and from English into Romanian. This corroborates the findings resulting from similar research, involving other cultures and discourse communities.

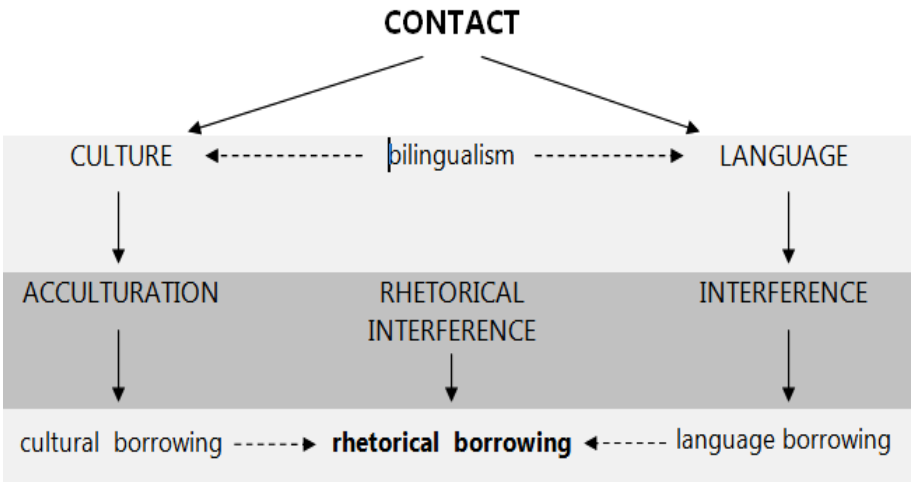
Whilst in contact linguistics *interference* is a neutral term referring to a naturally occurring phenomenon, in applied linguistics (especially in the field of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis), *interference* has for some time been used interchangeably with *negative transfer*, and has initially been regarded as an undesirable outcome of partial language switch. Later developments in Error Analysis and particularly in the field of interlanguage studies showed that interference of one's native language while performing in another was not only inevitable, but also not necessarily a deficit in the general process of foreign language acquisition.

Particularized to the (micro)cultural context under discussion, I have argued that Romanian text writers had – through no fault of their own – very little background knowledge of the rhetorical conventions associated with text production in their own language. This fact precluded the possibility of Romanian being the dominant language in this particular instance of language and culture contact. This finding is at odds with propositions (1) and (2) above. As further suggested,

> "The lack of adequate formalisation of and socialisation in the rhetorical patterning of social-purpose writing explains […] why Romanian is so tolerant of innovations and additions in this area: in actual fact, it is a vacuum that we are trying to fill. […] Since Romanian is not the dominant model in this respect, it is not 'in a privileged position to resist interference' which is sometimes (but by no means always) to its benefit." (Burada 2003: 177-178)

This strand of research was further pursued in *Interference Revisited: Anglo-American Rhetorical Influences on Romanian Language Writing* (2004, in "Conference on English and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 27-36, ISBN 973-635-300-1) where I have introduced the term "rhetorical interference" to account, globally, for the changes in the rhetorical features of a text composed in one language under the influence of the equivalent features in another.

I have posited that rhetorical patterns and conventions are products of a particular cultural setting and are reified by means of language, itself a component of culture. Therefore, rhetorical features pertain to both culture and language and form a set of discrete, culture-specific elements which lend themselves to borrowing just like any other element of language or culture. To represent their relationship, I have suggested a revised version of Weinreich's (1953) language contact paradigm in which rhetorical interference is integrated with the other outcomes of contact, as follows:



Revised Language Contact Paradigm (Burada 2004: 29)

While the evolution of English loanwords in Romanian attracted some scholarly attention (e.g. Ciobanu 2004), aspects related to rhetorical borrowing in our cultural context had not been explored. My paper took a small step towards bridging this gap: it drew on theory in order to show that rhetorical interference is to some extent predictable. This has further implications for teaching L2 composition.

The data which I had collected by that time indicated the presence of Anglo-American influences in Romanian-language social-purpose writing, particularly in areas of text typology where the two cultures in contact did not match (cf., for example, the Curriculum Vitae vs. the Autobiography). This influence was not unidirectional, however: interference from Romanian (e.g. the use of authorial "we", the author's involvement in the text, attitude to authority, etc.) was visible in L2 texts produced by authors with partial enculturation in the rhetorical conventions associated with English language text writing.

Overall, the two papers mentioned above have made a case for the conceptual validity and robustness of the traditional language contact theories, which can be adapted to the study of interference phenomena occurring in the rhetorical structure of the written text.

One other research path which I have felt inclined to explore relates to an interesting aspect of the interplay of language and culture. The article *From Language Facts to Cultural Assumptions and Back: A Case Study* (2012, in "Modernitate și interdisciplinaritate în cercetarea lingvistică. Omagiu doamnei profesor Liliana Ionescu-Ruxăndoiu", București: Editura Universității din București ISBN 978-606-16-0099-1, pp. 87-95) is a more elaborate rework of a topic tackled in an earlier conference contribution, *Etymological Doublets in English: The Stories They Can Tell* (2005). My research in this direction has been based on the general sociolinguistic premise that language and culture develop and change together, and that facts from one can help shed more light on the other.

Using a set of etymological doublets transferred at different times during the history of English, I have made a case for the transdisciplinary validity of language data, showing that they can be used to fill in missing or partial information in other areas, such as history or sociology, for example. Conceptually, there is a certain amount of variance, in the literature, in circumscribing etymological doublets. Crystal (1992: 109), for example, mentions three distinguishing features: common origin, similar form, and similar meaning. As argued in my paper, this view tends to restrict doublets to cases of isochronous borrowing (where the formal and semantic ties between the two items are still recognizable), and rules out items with a common origin, which diverge in either form or meaning. Such is the case, for instance, of *poor* and *pauper*, which are quasi-synonymous but differ formally or, contrariwise, *deduce* and *deduct*, which are similar in form but have undergone a divergent semantic evolution.

It follows from here that, similarly to the genealogical classification of languages, the common origin criterion should suffice when circumscribing etymological doublets. Also worth noting is that, procedurally, etymological doublets have been described and classified from different angles, i.e. (1) the temporal frame of borrowing; (2) the number of loans based on the same etymon, (3) the manner of entry in the target language, (4) the formal relations between the etymon and the loans, (5) the semantic relations between the etymon and the loans.

Incidentally, my critical survey of the literature devoted to or touching upon multiple borrowing has revealed that doublets have been more interesting to Romanian linguists (e.g. Hristea 1997, Moroianu 2005), who considered them in more detail, but less so to Anglophone linguists who, as the relevant literature shows, treated doublets as a more marginal topic. For example, Hristea (1997), who concerned himself with doublets in Romanian, expanded the original scope of the concept by accommodating lexical calques (i.e. loan translations) into the general category of etymological doublets.

Taking this broader view of doublets has allowed me to accommodate instances of structural borrowing, besides the more salient cases of lexical borrowing. Thus, to the group of Latin-based etymological doublets have also been added word pairs consisting of a loanword and a loan translation, e.g. *retrospect – hindsight*, *precursor – forerunner*, *omnipotent – almighty*, etc.

Based on the analysis of such instances of multiple borrowing from Latin, in this paper I have argued for the transdisciplinary validity of such language data, showing that:

> "[I]n the absence of cultural information some working assumptions and hypotheses can be made on the basis of the linguistic material available, provided that such material is representative enough for the contact situation as a whole. The claim here is that beyond its purely linguistic relevance, this material may be a valuable carrier of cultural information allowing for the reconstruction of the socio-cultural backdrop of contact and, quite possibly, filling in for the missing physical evidence to that effect." (Burada 2012: 95)

A central topic in psycholinguistic research, bilingualism and its associated phenomena are the focus in the research article *Bilingualism – A Variable in Investigating Language Contact: the Early History of English as a Case in Point* (2011, in "Studii și cercetări lingvistice" LXII, nr. 1, Bucureşti, Editura Academiei, pp. 31–42, ISSN: 0039-405X).

Situated at the junction between linguistics and history, the investigation takes into its scope one of the most interesting periods, linguistically, in the history of the British community. The extensive culture and language contact taking place during this period has had a surprisingly insignificant impact on the Celtic vernaculars. One important key to understanding why this has been the case is a more fine-grained perception on the role played by bilingualism in facilitating or rather, in this particular case, in obstructing interlingual transfer.

Starting from the premise that "the phenomenon of bilingualism is the prime example of language contact, for the two languages are in contact in the bilingual" (Spolsky 1998: 49), this research article has been aimed at foregrounding bilingualism, whose retrospective study can help understand and explain the outcomes of language change, especially in contact situations where linguistic evidence is scarce. To prove this, I have considered the variations in the bilingual situation which held between A.D. 43 and the end of the VIth century in Britain, a period covering the Roman colonization and de-colonization of the British Isles, and the early Anglo-Saxon period, historically dated approximately between A.D. 400 and A.D. 650 (cf. Loseby 2000). The discussion is prefaced with a few considerations on the relevant research in the field.

First, it is worth noting that the copious literature on bilingualism reflects the multiplicity of research traditions within which this phenomenon has been investigated: psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, second language acquisition, neurolinguistics and, more restrictively, contact linguistics and historical linguistics.

Second, this variety in the lines of approach has inevitably given rise to a certain amount of conceptual and methodological fuzziness manifest in the variable use of basic notions such as bilingual and bilingualism, and of the methods employed to explore, describe and measure bilingualism. Such variance is noticeable both across disciplines as well as from one author to another.

Third, it appears that, whereas bilingualism has much more often been investigated as an individual phenomenon and much less frequently as a large-scale, societal phenomenon, language contact has by default been investigated from a phylogenetic perspective.

Finally, it appears that, procedurally, synchronicity, rather than the diachronic approach, is the preferred temporal perspective for the analysis of bilingual situations.

The research reported in this paper is a diachronic investigation of the variable nature of the bilingual situation holding during the extended contact between the Celtic and the Latin-speaking groups. These variations are used to explain and justify the linguistic outcomes of the language contact. The analysis rests on an *ad hoc* adaptation of Mackey's (2000) frame, which originally included parameters such as degree, function, alternation and interference.

Since this frame has originally been intended for synchronic analyses, alternation, i.e. "the readiness with which a bilingual changes from one language to another" (Mackey 2000: 35), is not applicable in this situation. Therefore, I have used the remaining variables, i.e. degree, function and interference to refer to the speakers' proficiency in Latin, the speakers' purposes for using Latin and, respectively, the extent to which the two languages involved in contact combine in communication. To these variables I have also added a fourth parameter, i.e. the spread of bilingualism which, in my opinion, is particularly salient for the description of group bilingualism in general, and for the analysis of the Latin-Celtic bilingual situation, in particular.

Focusing on the changing nature of bilingualism during the historical period under investigation, I have identified three distinct time intervals: the first extends from A.D. 43 to circa A.D. 85; the second spans from circa A.D. 85 to A.D. 400, and the last, from A.D. 400 until the end of the VIth century. Each interval is representative of a certain stage in the evolution of the bilingual situation.

During the first stage, which coincides, temporally, with the conquest pacification of the British Isles, the Latin-Celtic bilingualism was a small-scale phenomenon, which means that its spread was low. Bilingualism at this time would have been minimally functional, in the sense that it allowed the bilingual individuals to perform a limited number of tasks in a definite setting, most probably, a formal one, like the administrative context. This is consistent with the general principle holding that during the time (years or even decades) immediately following hostile colonization the communities in contact mix very little, and so do their respective languages. This further suggests that the potential for language interference was low, which explains the little impact that Latin had on Celtic idioms, during this stage.

Given the popularity gained by the Roman culture during the second stage, a popularity which goes hand in hand with the acculturation phenomena taking place at the time, there is an increased motivation for the acquisition of Latin and hence, a wider spread of bilingualism across the conquered population. Acquiring and using Latin at that time served an integrative purpose and bilingualism was maximally functional, in the sense that Latin would be used in more communicative functions than before. In view of all this, one might reasonably expect more visible traces of Latin in the vernacular idioms. The fact that this was actually not the case can only be understood upon a closer scrutiny of the bilingual situation at that time.

First, it will be noted that despite the growing popularity of Latin, bilingualism did not become a societal phenomenon: it did not extend to the rural population, nor did it spread among the urban community as a whole. From here, it is reasonable to assume that although Latin was used in a wider array of social interactions, it was not used in *all* communicative functions, and did not compete, in this respect, with the vernaculars of the communities in contact.

Second, the Latin spoken by the local upper class was, as Salway (1981: 507) put it, "largely learned at school and maintained in this form by the educated speech of the island". A geographical variety of mainstream Latin (like, for example, the "Danubian Latin"), the "British Latin" spoken at that time was mostly the result of systematic learning, rather than of informal acquisition. This suggests that the degree of bilingualism would have been high, most likely of the coordinate type. The high level of competence in Latin would have limited or precluded language interference, which explains why the contact taking place during this period remained all but inconsequential for the vernacular.

The third stage is marked by both the instability generated by the systemic collapse of the Roman Empire, as well as by the unrest that the Anglo-Saxon invasion brought in its wake. As a result, bilingualism at this stage entered a regressive stage, in both spread and function. There is a modicum of Latin loanwords (fifteen or twenty in all) that the Celtic idioms have carried over into the speech of the Anglo-Saxon invaders.

The reason for this surprising fact is a matter of outstanding debate in both linguistic and historical research. The bone of contention in this case relates to (a) the contact that the Anglo-Saxon tribes may or may not have established with the Romano-Britons upon their arrival in the Vth century, (b) the degree of cultural assimilation undergone by the Celtic population in the interval between the Roman occupation and the *adventus Saxonum*, and (c) the likelihood that bilingualism should have continued after the Anglo-Saxon invasion.

Overall, considering the variable nature of the Anglo-Celtic bilingualism, the historical period under discussion lends itself to subdivision into three stages corresponding, respectively, to the emergence, development, and regression of bilingualism among the Celtic population. As argued in this article, such variations are extremely important for the analysis of both culture and language contact, as well as of their respective outcomes.

One terminological issue which became apparent in the course of my work in the field of interlingual transfer relates to what some etymological dictionaries call the "Modern Latin source" from which specialist terminologies originate. Consisting mostly of nouns, such terminological repertoires include interesting lexical creations such as *aquaculture, floriculture, marginalia, millennium, planetarium preventorium, vaccinia*, etc. In *Marginalia on the Modern Latin Terms in English: A Question of Terminology* (2002, in "Bulletin of Transilvania University of Brașov", vol. 9, series B, pp. 259-262, Brașov, ISSN 1223-964X), I highlight the need to adapt the metalanguage in order to accommodate various aspects of lexical innovation standing on the borderline between borrowing and internal word formation, such as the one displayed by specialist nomenclatures. As argued in the paper, convenient as it may be, this label is misleading for at least two reasons.

First, the term "Modern Latin" may misleadingly point to a later development of Medieval Latin. Considering that Latin became extinct by the XIIIth century on the Continent and endured one or two more centuries in Britain, this is hardly the case. In actual fact, the term "Modern Latin" does not refer to any diachronic or diastratic variety of Latin, as in the case of terms such as Classical Latin, Medieval Latin, Vulgar Latin, Late Latin, Christian Latin.

Second, for such words, Latin is not the source, *stricto sensu*: whilst they consist of Latin roots and/or affixes, these terms were never part of the lexicon of Latin. I have therefore posited that the French label "Latin savant" defined as "le latin forgé par les savants avec les racines du latin classique, et servant de langue scientifique universelle" (cf. Petit Robert, 1993) would better fit in with the existing functional varieties, such as Law Latin, Scholastic Latin, already in use in English-language lexicography.

Further, if we accept that, technically speaking, Latin is not the source of such coinages but rather the source of the constituent parts in their composition, we would have to concede that these items are not borrowings in the true sense of the word. I suggested "lexical stock" as a more accurate description of the role of Latin as a supplier of "raw material" for indigenous creations, in contradistinction to the contribution of a typical source language.

In his seminal work on language borrowing, Deroy (1956) distinguishes borrowing proper (seen as either outright transfer or imitation, via calque) from what he calls "false borrowing", that is

"des mots nouveaux créés au moyen d'éléments étrangers, et qui n'ont pas été empruntés tels quels" (1956: 63). As far as Present-Day English is concerned, such false borrowing mainly consists of compounds and derivatives, e.g. *acidophil, serology, submandibular, plurilingual, vermiform, vermifuge,* etc. Other items are formed by analogy with Latin neuters in *–ium, -a/-ia*: *einsteinium, lawrencium, cattleya, clarkia, wistaria,* etc. As noted in my article,

> "Although conceptually outdated, the forms restored from the Latin stock retain some of the prestige deriving from an erstwhile *lingua franca* of science and scholarship. Paradoxically enough, while enabling scientific and professional groups to distinguish themselves from one another as well as from the mass of language users belonging to the same speech community, such innovations have definitely been a cohesive factor allowing each group to integrate into the wider international scientific/professional community and facilitating networking across the world." (Burada 2002: 261)

In a different but related vein, my work in the field of linguistics also includes translating into Romanian Uriel Weinreich's book *Languages in Contact. Findings and Problems*, issued as the first publication of the Linguistic Circle of New York, as early as 1953. My university acquired the translation rights in 2012, and the Romanian version, *Contactul dintre limbi. Constatări și probleme* (2013, translation and foreword by Marinela Burada, Brașov: Editura Universității Transilvania din Brașov, ISBN 978-606-19-0098-5), was published by Transilvania University Press in the following year.

Although Weinreich's book is unanimously acknowledged as a foundational work in the field of contact linguistics, it had not been translated into Romanian for the benefit of students, teachers and researchers with less than perfect command of English. In the *Foreword* to the Romanian translation, I have highlighted the merits and current validity of this essential work for the study of language contact. Among them is Weinreich's view on the interdisciplinary character of contact-related research and on how insights originating from different disciplines can help canvass phenomena which cannot be satisfactorily explained from a purely linguistic perspective.

Representing an essentialized version of his doctoral thesis, his book is a clear and convincing illustration of how sociolinguistics, psychology, anthropology, and linguistics come together in

the investigation of contact situations. This is all the more remarkable, considering that the author takes this approach at a time when compartmentalization and specialization in science held more sway.

Beyond the wealth of data and the variety of languages from which Weinreich has drawn his data, the perennial value of this book resides in at least two areas, as follows: firstly, it formulates clear objectives which can provide the contemporary researcher of synchronic or diachronic contact phenomena with a much needed sense of direction; secondly, it puts forward a research framework and methodology which streamline and give structure to an otherwise eclectic body of research, empowering contact linguistics as a linguistic sub-discipline in its own right. I had the opportunity to appreciate the theoretical validity of Weinreich's model first-hand, and this prompted me to attempt to disseminate it further.

CHAPTER 2 | Literacy Studies

This chapter groups together studies of different aspects related to the written text and of the sociocultural practices accounting for its production. For expository convenience, they have been lumped together under the label *Literacy Studies*, an all-embracing term referring to the "diverse activities in research and scholarship broadly concerned with understanding and enhancing the production, reception, and transmission of texts" (Lankshear 1999: n. pag.). Section 2.1 reports on a contrastive exploration of persuasive texts composed by two different native language groups. Section 2.2 goes on to provide insights into the different ways in which apprentice writers become socialized into the discourses specific of their disciplines.

2.1 CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC RESEARCH: THEORETICAL AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND, APPROACH AND FINDINGS

A research area which has held my interest over the years is that of contrastive rhetoric. My first forays into this domain date from the late nineties, when the discipline was gaining momentum, and copious data about various aspects related to the writing practices in an increasing number of cultures presented valuable insights of use to both theorists and practitioners. I chose to write my master's dissertation on a topic pertaining to this field. My academic supervisor was Dr. Teresa O'Brien (Faculty of Education, University of Manchester) who, in a letter of recommendation (dated 26 November 2002) written on my behalf, stated the following:

> "[Dr. Burada] has recently completed the programme with an excellent dissertation on contrastive rhetoric for which she was given an A. Her dissertation was seen by two internal examiners and an external from Warwick University. They were unanimous in judging it to be scholarly, rigorous, interesting, well-conceived and extremely well-written."

This dissertation would eventually be developed into a book on persuasive text writing in English by Romanian novice writers: *Rhetorical Features in Student Persuasive Writing: Towards a Contrastive Approach.* (2002, Braşov: Editura Universităţii Transilvania, ISBN 973-635-109-2), a study whose main aim has been that of building a framework for the context-sensitive cross-cultural investigation of native language writing.

It is worth mentioning from the outset that, up until the time of my book's publication, contrastive approaches to Romanian and English had been rare occurrences. The most notable effort in this direction had been RECAP, the Romanian-English Contrastive Analysis Project, conducted in the 1970s. However, this large scale investigation had been targeted at discrete language features and had gone no further than the sentence level. Considering that contrastive analyses conducted at textual level were still few and far between at the time of my research, it would not be amiss to say that, to all intents and purposes, my study covered new ground.

The data collected have been structured in three parts, each forming a distinct chapter in my book. The first chapter sets the epistemic stage: it is dedicated to a description of the research paradigm within which my own investigation has been conducted. To this end, I have defined the domain of contrastive rhetoric and I have performed a critical exploration of the theory and practice associated with its domain, highlighing the changes it underwent in its transition from the older to the newer research framework.

In the second chapter I have considered empirical evidence illustrating some discoursal and linguistic discrepancies between Romanian and English. The discussion here has cast a wider net by integrating socio-cultural data relating to the changing attitudes towards and the philosophies behind text writing in Romanian. Against this cultural backdrop, the third chapter describes a quantitative and qualitative analysis of natural data derived from two sets of L1 persuasive texts: one in Romanian, the other in English.

What follows is a summary of the main points made in each chapter and of the findings yielded by the analysis of the data in my corpus.

2.1.1 Theoretical Background

Developed within the framework of applied linguistics, contrastive rhetoric emerged as a distinct approach about five decades ago, in the wake of research on text production in English as a native and non-native language. Circumscribing its domain, Connor (1996) describes it as follows:

> "Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them." (1996: 5)

From among its characteristic features, three stand out:

(1) its heterogeneous composition, the natural outcome of the variety of contributions from various sources, such as theory of applied linguistics, theory of linguistic relativity, theory of rhetoric, theory of text linguistics, theory of discourse types and genres, theory of literacy, theory of translation;
(2) its cross-cultural dimension, with English invariably serving as point of reference;
(3) its interdisciplinary nature, owing to the developments in linguistic, anthropological, and psychological research which have influenced its evolution.

One basic tenet which contrastive rhetoric owes composition pedagogy is that the improvement of writing in English as a non-native language goes hand in hand with an increased awareness of the writers' native writing practices. Indeed, insights into the non-native writer's background, specifically, into the conventions underlying text production in L1, can help pave the way for the acquisition of a new set of writing practices, underlying text production in English. From the researcher's perspective, correlating the two sets of writing practices and identifying the areas where they depart can help predict and, hence, avert the potential problem areas in L2 composition.

The heterogeneous nature of contrastive rhetoric has already been mentioned above. Indeed, describing its nature, goals, and modes of inquiry by necessity involves references to other linguistic disciplines which have contributed, to varying degrees, ideas, theories, terminology, and methodology. Among the most influential disciplines, trends, and schools of thought which have influenced, over the years, the epistemic evolution of contrastive rhetoric are the following:

(i) Contrastive analysis, which has been an influential trend in applied linguistics, and particularly in language teaching. As its name suggests, it promoted the *a priori* contrastive investigations of the learner's native and non-native languages, an approach regarded as the best way to predict error areas and, on this basis, to optimize foreign language teaching. Beyond the language level, it also integrated elements of cross-cultural analysis and introduced the concept of *transfer*, a key notion within the contrastive approach paradigm.

Transfer, it has been argued, occurs in the process of communication both during production as well as during reception: during production, when the learners use a non-native language or evolve in a host culture, and during reception, when they interpret aspects of the other language and culture in terms of categories specific of their own language and culture. Transfer is *positive* if it draws on the similarities between the two language and cultures, or *negative* (also dubbed *interference*), when it is brought about by the dissimilarities between them. Negative connotation aside, also worth noting here is the fact that the views on interference in contrastive analysis largely converge with those held within the contact linguistics paradigm.

(ii) Error analysis takes the concept of transfer one step further. Instead of performing *a priori* analyses of the learners' first and second languages, the results of transfer should be invesigated *a posteriori*, and learner errors should be explained in reference to the similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages and cultures in question.

(iii) Discourse analysis has shifted the focus from the learner's performace (a focal point with both Contrastive analysis and Error analysis) to the input provided to the learner. Starting from the premise that language is by nature ambiguous and the relation between form and meaning is not always straightforward, Discourse Analysis (and, subsequently, its various offshoots, e.g. Text Linguistics, Conversation Analysis) has concerned itself with different aspects of language use considered in close connection with the situational contexts in which it occurs.

Overall, the indebtedness of Contrastive Rhetoric to Discourse Analysis is manifest on different levels, and relates to a number of aspects, as follows: (1) the view of and focus on writing as both process and product; (2) the view of the text as a patterned event, lending itself to schematization; (3) the shift of focus from the traditional bottom-up approach to the top-down perspective, in which the text/paragraph is the minimal unit of analysis; (4) the insights into the

intra- and intersentential ways of structuring discourse, with the notions of cohesion and coherence holding centre stage.

(iv) Genre analysis has reinforced the view of texts as conventionalized occurrences with an identifiable social purpose, that project the conventions and expectations of the ethnic and/or discourse cultures from which they stem. Genre analysis has also provided models for text analysis, such as the move analysis.

(v) The Theory of linguistic relativity has lent essential support to contrastive rhetoric research. For example, Kaplan's (1966) "doodles article", a text commonly associated with the birth of contastive rhetoric itself (Connor 1996), broke interesting ground by showing, in a determinist vein, how paragraph organization in student essays composed in five different languagues could be indicative of the writers' thought patterns prevalent in and shaped by their native cultures.

Kaplan (1988) later revised and toned down his original views, stating that, rather than variance in thought patterns, cross-cultural discrepancies found in the writing styles point at the existence of underlying sets of culture-specific rhetorical conventions that writers from each culture abide by when composing texts in their own language. Let it also be noted here that this view seems to rest on an idealized notion of both writing and "readerly texts" (cf. Barthes 1970) which makes no allowance for discrepancies resulting from the writers' idiosyles.

(vi) The Rhetorical theories underpinning contrastive rhetoric research come from two main sources: the classical, Aristotelean rhetoric, whose main focus were the persuasive oratorical strategies deployed in political, legal, and ceremonial situations, and the modern reworking thereof, adapted to the teaching of other text types, besides persuasive writing, such as expository or argument writing.

The foregoing brief overview suggests that contrastive rhetoric is rooted in tradition, while it also avails itself of innovative ideas, views, methods, and theories emanating from other research areas. To complete this composite picture of contrastive rhetoric, it should be noted that the domain itself has fared a long way since the mid-sixties, undergoing a number of changes in both philosophy and approach. From among these changes, the following are particularly noteworthy:

(1) The reconsideration of the concept of interference, which lost its initially negative connotation. Rather than obstruct the acquisition and development of non-native rhetorical competence, the awareness of the rhetorical conventions at work in L1 text production may be an asset, enabling novice writers to capitalize on what they know better in order to improve their performance in L2 text writing. It is useful to know that evidence derived from research on other cultures has shown that interference is often a two-way street, as "writers can move between rhetorical styles just as speakers move between spoken varieties" (O'Brien 1996: 5). By and large, transfer of foreign rhetorical features into native-language texts can be, for example, a deliberate act done by a text writer who intends to challenge the indigenous rhetorical norms. But transfer can just as well be the result of a subconscious attempt to fill a gap in the writer's native repertoire.

My own research corroborated this view. In addition, it presented me with an awareness that the research frame devised within the domain of contact linguistics can help explain culture-specific facts and their import on the learner's development of L1 rhetorical competence (section 2.2 *infra*). The case I specifically refer to here dates back to the mid-nineties. It involves a group of first-year business students to whom I was teaching CV writing. This is my appraisal of the situation in question:

> "It appeared that this genre [the CV] was totally new to them, since they seemed to lack any previous Romanian-language instruction in it. This means that they learned CV writing *in English first*. Not much later in their student life, some of them applied for jobs locally. They wrote their résumés in Romanian, but in strict observance of the English conceptual organization and format. [...] What they did was simply use the formal/rhetorical support provided by the English pattern to produce the equivalent text in their own language. Conceivably, such a transfer must have come quite natural since it was the English pattern that they had internalised first (and possibly, last). [...] In view of the fact that, for conspicuous reasons, this genre is largely underrepresented in Romanian textbooks [...], there is little reason to believe that the Anglo-American model (or models, rather) of CV writing will ever be anything but dominant in these learners' repertoires. Furthermore, since the Romanian community is only beginning to recognize this type of text as a genre *per se*, and thus to conventionalise and form

> expectations of it, it can be assumed that the Anglo-American model will eventually be adopted and 'nativised' in the Romanian language." (Burada 2002: 33-34)

The subsequent evolution of CVs in the Romanian repertoire of genres has shown that the prediction formulated in the last sentence above is correct. Incidentally, it may also be interesting to add here that in the course of my work with students I have encountered many similar situations, where learners internalized writing-related aspects in English before having had the opportunity to conceptualize them in Romanian. This means that for those aspects, at least, English is bound to serve as reference system. This, I posit, will have a shaping influence on their further development of rhetorical competence in Romanian.

(2) The diversification of discourse types and genres, by considering, besides expository student essays, genres pertaining to narrative and persuasive writing, e.g. research articles, business correspondence, résumés, editorials, etc.

(3) The diversification of instruments and models of analysis, which has entailed a shift in scope and approach: from the initial focus on paragraph organization, to the multiplicity of angles from which texts have been investigated. Some of the analytical models put forward are genre-specific, e.g. Toulmin's (1958) frame for the analysis of legal arguments, others target more general aspects of textual organization, and therefore have a wider application, e.g. the coherence and cohesion analytical models.

(4) The increased interest in the learners' cultural and linguistic background was spurred by the earlier research conducted in the contrastive analysis tradition. It empowered the learners as native-language text writers, encouraging them to use insights from L1 text writing in order to internalize the specificities of composing in a language other than their own. This attitude has led to challenging the dominant position that Anglo-American rhetorical models had held *de facto* and, from here, to the reconsideration of the Anglocentric stance in text production and investigation.

2.1.2 Sociocultural Background

Little is known about the rhetorical features of discourse in Romanian and even less, perhaps, about the ways in which Romanians become enculturated in the discoursal practices of the social

and professional community they belong to. To shed some light on these matters, I have used data collected empirically in order to highlight the areas of rhetorical organization in which Romanian and English depart. These data have enabled me to make some considerations on the past and present status of literacy in the Romanian educational paradigm.

In order to highlight areas of potential Romanian-English contrast, I have drawn on English language data available in the literature and, in parallel, on insights gained empirically, as a result of my first-hand experience with Romanian learners/speakers of English. These insights were derived from case studies included in my book. In brief, some of the more salient points of divergence between the two cultures relate to the following aspects:

(i) The **tolerance for digression**, with Romanian discourse including more instances of digressive speech behaviour. Mostly acceptable in my home culture, this tendency is noticeable in both spoken and written communication taking place in professional settings and is consistent with the polychronic type of cultures, to which my home culture belongs.

(ii) The **attitude to authority**, with Romanian students showing less inclination to question, challenge, or otherwise engage - no matter how deferentially - with the sources they resort to for information.

(iii) The **authorial stance**, which relates to the degree of visibility of the writer in his/her own text. Apart from subjective writing such as opinion-giving essays or reflective texts, novice text writers composing in Romanian take the view that remaining as inconspicuous as possible throughout the text is tantamount to "academic good manners".

(iv) The **degree of explicitness**, which refers to the tendency of Romanian text writers to rely on the readers for meaning-making. In novice writing for professional purposes, this tendency is manifest, for example, in the delayed introduction or even absence of the metastatement of purpose. This feature partially overlaps Hind's (1987) notion of *communicative competence*, that will be taken up below.

In contrast to the points *i-iv* above, previous research reported in the literature points at English-language writing being more linear, in the sense that it displays comparatively little digressive behaviour; it shows more obvious engagement with the sources, and this goes hand in hand with

a higher profile of the authors in their own texts, as well as a more complex representation of the authorial self. Finally, English-language texts are more writer-responsible, which implies that the text authors take it upon themselves to facilitate the readers' access to the intended message. This further justifies the higher concern for explicitness in English-language composition.

While the discussion summarized above by no means exhausts the topic, it shows, at least, that natural data collected informally can be a useful starting point for cultural assumptions that subsequent research may verify or refute. One question still lurking in the researcher's mind relates to the relevance and validity of the collected data: are we to construe as culture-specific every deviation from an assumed norm? How much of an individual's writing style can be put down to cultural influence, and just how much to the writer's idiosyle?

One way to get a front-row view of the social dimension of writing is to examine the text against its social context, in other words, to consider the manner of enculturation in the socio-rhetorical norms and practices associated with text production in a given community. To this end, I have compared past and present philosophies behind the teaching of Romanian language text writing. The information about the past is the result of introspection, and of discussions with relevant age groups about their learning experience. The data about the present have been derived from a critical survey of twelve alternative high school textbooks of Romanian language and literature.

In brief, examining the two sets of data has led to the following conclusions. Although there appears to be more concern for the process involved in text composing, writing in the Romanian context remains predominantly product-oriented. As far as the criteria of merit in essay writing are concerned, the focus has shifted from linguistic well-formedness, to more text-oriented features, such as clarity, appropriacy, consistency, organization of information.

In contrast to the past situation, the writing tasks are contextualized, so that text production is carried out with a clear sense of purpose and audience. Text layout has gained more status, with the writer's growing awareness of the role it can perform in maximizing the overall impact of the text and in sending the author's message across. As far as the author's involvement in the text is concerned, the general trend is to recommend writers of formal texts to remain inconspicuous by avoiding direct reference to self. Generally speaking, the rhetorical organization of texts is

formalized in normative patterns, with variable amount of attention paid to each of the moves/functional units in the structure of the different text types.

2.1.3 Persuasive Writing in Romanian and English: Approach and Findings

The theoretical platform on which my analysis rests has been erected following a more focused examination of the nature of persuasive writing and of related research, including a critical review of the more influential models used in explorations of persuasive texts.

It may be important to note in this connection that the notions of persuasion and argumentation have sometimes been used interchangeably in the literature. While I agree that there is some extent of overlap between the two, I have thought it useful, at least for the purposes of my own analysis, to adopt a view in which they are related but distinct categories. The difference between them lies in the strategies they mainly draw on: while persuasive writing makes more extensive use of *pathos* and *ethos*, typical arguments used in professional settings draw more on *logos* to support the author's claims. It will be agreed, however, that while convenient in theory, in practice a clear-cut distinction between them may be more difficult to draw, particularly in instances where the language user combines the three strategies. But, even then, the two notions above may prove useful in determining and balancing the kind of support underlying the writer's or the speaker's claims.

I have used the models and associated categories overviewed critically in this preliminary discussion in order to build an analytical framework of my own. This *ad hoc* framework consists of four components oriented towards each main element of the communicative triangle, i.e. *writer, message, audience*, as follows:

(1) Textual superstructure, an adapted variant of the pre-existing *Situation-Problem-Solution-Evaluation* model, used as flexibly as possible in order to make allowances for possible deviations from it. This becomes necessary particularly when using categories devised in one language and culture in order to describe facts from another language and culture.

(2) Organization of information, which refers to the textual patterns in each functional unit of the text as well as to the ways of signalling the logical relationships holding between the information units therein.

(3) Communicative responsibility, a category based on Hinds's (1987) opposition between writer-responsible and reader-responsible writing (and cultures), which hinges on the question "who is responsible for meaning making?" This involved a detailed analysis of the metadiscoursal strategies employed in order to actuate the interpersonal function of language (cf. Halliday 1985), including the author's level of audience-awareness.

(4) Persuasive strategies, i.e. the types of appeal – rational, affective/emotional, and/or credibility used in order to achieve the persuasive goals of the text.

The corpus under analysis has consisted of a total of thirty native language texts, of which twenty hortatory ("persuasion-to") texts composed in Romanian, and ten analytical ("persuasion-that") essays in English. Overall, the investigation has brought out a number of interesting aspects, which have been briefly outlined below.

The texts in the corpus had an identifiably modular structure, with the *Situation-Argumentation-Solution* type featuring high across the Romanian set and *Premise-Argumentation-Solution* invariably used in the English-language essays. As far as coherence relations were concerned, the most frequently used pattern employed in the Argumentation unit was *Thesis-Support*. Inter-group differences were found in the Support move, where Romanian text writers tended to combine more textual patterns (e.g. general-specific, factual-hypothetical, cause-effect, etc.), whilst the English group showed more uniformity in their manner of structuring the information.

The writers in the two sets were similar in their use of inductive and deductive reasoning, the non-digressive behaviour, and the ways of signalling their presence in their respective texts. Their sense of audience was different, however: based on the incidence of metalanguage and of overt dialogic patterns showing higher engagement with the reader, I argued that the texts in the Romanian set were more clearly reader-oriented than their English-language counterparts, and their writers more concerned to establish their credibility. To a large extent, this can be put down to the hortatory persuasive aim that the texts were intended to serve. It is by virtue of this purpose that Romanian writers resorted to pragmatic argumentation, where the evaluation of the alternatives with which the writing task presented them was performed in terms of their positive or negative outcomes.

Another point of discrepancy related to the choice of persuasive appeals. While Romanian text writers combined the rational, ethical and emotional appeals, the writers in the English group drew more on appeals to authority and precedent, which to some extent explains their more frequent use of *topos*.

Beyond such findings, however, the strong point of this study is the framework adapted and tested through the contrastive analysis of the two native-language sets. This has been the primary aim of my research. Although the suggested frame is essentially based on models devised for the exploration of other communicative and cultural situations (in which English is the default language), the criteria taken as points of reference are general enough to be relevant in the study of other contexts. In setting it up, I have espoused Connor's (1996) view that the most effective approach to investigations conducted in the contrastive rhetoric tradition is *tertium comparationis*, which helps avert the shortcomings resulting from cultural bias and ethnocentrism.

2.2 FURTHER RESEARCH IN CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC, TEXT LINGUISTICS, AND ACADEMIC LITERACY

In an article on the methodological approaches in contrastive rhetoric, Connor (2004: 295) refers to three schools of thought which have exerted a shaping influence on text linguistics: The Prague School of text linguistics, Systemic Linguistics, and what the author herself calls "the new school of discourse analysis", a generic label for the wealth of applied studies which go beyond the realm of pure linguistic investigation, making a contribution to scientific and academic text composition.

This is the area where most of my subsequent research is situated. My work has been premised on two main beliefs stemming from both specialist literature and personal experience as second language writing instructor: (a) while genres (particularly those pertaining to academic writing) are categories with intercultural relevance, their reification in actual professional communication shows variation across cultures and disciplines; (b) awareness of and rhetorical competence in the socio-rhetorical conventions associated with one's native repertoire can have beneficial effects on the acquisition of L2 writing.

From this vantage point, *Academic English for Doctoral Students: The Challenges of Change* (2009 in "Conference on British and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 47-56, ISSN 1844-7481) sets the scene for the discussion of three problem areas encountered in the teaching of scientific prose to full-time doctoral students. The first relates to the relationship between content schemata and formal schemata in research articles, a stumbling block with doctoral students whose competence in English falls below the upper intermediate level; the second, to stereotyping and formula-oriented methods in the teaching of academic writing, and the third relates to taking stock of the benefits of capitalizing on the native rhetorical competence in raising awareness of English language rhetorical competence. As argued in this paper,

> "[…] a contrastive approach to building a new set of writing conventions pays a double dividend: on one hand, the discrepancies between the repertoires of genres and rhetorical conventions associated with each language/culture make it possible to predict the interference areas and to adjust the instructional process accordingly; […] On the other hand, by drawing on what they already know from their experience as L1 writers, the learners are given a head start in assimilating what they are expected to know in L2 in order to become functional members of their professional community […]. Moreover, in the teaching situation under discussion the contrastive, genre-based approach appears to boost the learners' confidence in their L1 writing abilities by affording them a tangible formal paradigm apt to accommodate their empirical knowledge about what 'good writing' involves in their respective professional environments." (Burada 2009: 54)

If the learners' L1 literacy is indeed likely to promote biliteracy, more insights into the Romanian writing practices would benefit both research and practice in this area. The modicum of L1 composition literature available is mainly formula-oriented, providing information about what the different types of text should be like. In order to find out how they really are, I have set out to map some of the most interesting aspects of L1 composition manifest in the texts produced within different disciplines, at my home university.

One aspect relates to the field of intertextuality, more specifically, to citation. The first approach to this topic, *The Use of Citations in PhD Theses in Romanian: an Overview* (2012, in "Structure, Use, and Meaning". Cluj-Napoca: Casa Cărții de Știință, pp. 221-233, ISBN 978-

606-17-0260-2) examines the use of citation in the literature review chapters of twelve doctoral theses composed in three *hard sciences*: engineering, business, and forestry. The analysis proper consists of a three-step procedure: it starts by identifying instances of citation and their respective contexts, i.e. the surrounding text and, possibly, the metalanguage signalling them; it goes on to determine their forms and functions in terms of the categories suggested by Thompson and Tribble (2001) who have built on Swales's (1990) distinction between *integral* and *non-integral citation* and, finally, it compares the findings across disciplines.

By and large, my findings corroborate the data resulting from surveys conducted in other academic contexts. Overall, citation frequency in the texts in my corpus can be represented as a cline, with engineering at the lowest point and forestry, at the highest. Text writers in the field of engineering used non-integral citation exclusively. This is unsurprising, since focusing on the information and relegating the cited author to a background position are consistent with the construction of knowledge and the writing practices in the discipline.

By way of contrast, writers in business and forestry employed both integral and non-integral citation in a wider variety of functions (i.e. source, identification, verb-controlling, naming). The use of integral citation in these texts foregrounds the cited author, which explains the higher density of metalanguage, consisting mainly of reporting verbs.

The topic of citation has later been picked up in *Mapping Citation Practices in Academic Writing: A Text-Based Approach* (2015, in "11th Conference on British and American Studies – Embracing Multitudes of Meaning", UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, pp. 96-116, ISBN (10): 1-4438-7060-9; ISBN (13): 978-1-4438-7060-3). This article reports on an investigation conducted across a corpus of thirty-six doctoral theses composed in four domains: engineering, forestry and agricultural sciences, marketing, and literature. The study has been concerned with the citation styles (IEEE, APA, MLA, MHRA) that authors use in order to signal citation acts, and with their reasons to cite, as reflected in their own texts. Bringing these two aspects of citation together has been based on the view that they are not as unrelated as they may seem, *prima facie*:

> "[T]he ways in which citers represent the sources is not only dependent on the manner in which communities construct knowledge, but is also shaped (or otherwise

> constrained) by the mechanics of citation, i.e. the styles acceptable as signals of intertextuality in each research tradition." (Burada 2015: 97)

In this spirit, within the framework of my investigation citation has been regarded both as a behavioural mode determined by writer-external and/or writer-internal factors, as well as an enactment thereof, in the written text.

From this latter perspective, in analogy with any linguistic sign, citation can be conceived of as a having two distinct but interrelated (and, as my paper argues, interdependent) sides, one tangible, the other, more immaterial. The tangible side of citation consists in the layout, metalanguage, as well as the lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical options that a disciplinary repertoire presents the writer with. The explicit or implicit purposes for using them constitute the writer's motivation, which I have taken to be the immaterial side of citation.

Being conducted from a text analytic perspective, my investigation has taken the material side of citation as a key to unravelling the motivation behind the citing behaviour of apprentice writers in my context. Furthermore, in a social constructivist vein, I have considered citation as a form of persuasion, which tends to be a pre-eminent dimension of doctoral thesis writing.

One interesting aspect that the analysis brought out relates to the fact that, in point of style, theses in both marketing and literature employ the footnote system, but they do so to different ends. While in marketing texts the footnotes perform an exclusively procedural (referencing) function, the footnotes included in literature texts are used in two distinct functions, i.e. procedural and epistemic.

Apart from the strict referencing purposes, the footnotes in these texts include directives introduced by explicit metalanguage (*cf.*, *compare, see*) and excerpts of original/translated text corresponding to a translation/original inserted in the main text. The epistemic function is manifest in those footnotes which either supplement the information in the main text or include the writer's comments on the topic in hand. As noted in my paper, the epistemic-function footnotes in theses composed in literature quite often represent the writer's private space where he/she more freely engages with the sources cited, and where the authorial voice comes across in a clearer and more assertive way.

Research on the writer's motives for citing has been extensive but, as Pecorari (2010: 41) noted, it resulted in "a range of disparate – and sometimes contradictory – motivations". This is not entirely surprising, in view of the variety of empirical data extracted from accomplished and novice writing, of the methods, i.e. ethnographic or text analytic approaches, and scope of investigation. Surveying the relevant literature on this subject has allowed me to marshal the findings in this area under three broad categories of motivation, each performing a number of discoursal and pragmatic functions, as follows:

- Social motivation, serving purposes such as acknowledging intellectual indebtedness, recognizing ownership of ideas, interacting with readers, and/or enabling readers to find texts that are of interest to them.

- Personal motivation, which lumps together purposes like bolstering one's claims, persuading, showing how one's research contributes to existing knowledge, and/or projecting the professional *persona*.

- Epistemic motivation, subsuming purposes such as contextualizing one's own research, aligning oneself to a trend, methodology or line of approach, (dis)endorsing the source, and/or structuring knowledge.

The suggested classification has taken into account research on various academic (sub)genres instantiated in the texts composed by both expert and apprentice writers. Although the three categories it consists of are expositorily convenient and present the text analyst with a good starting point for his/her investigation, it will be agreed that, in practice, their distinction is often far from clear-cut, at least not when the writer's motivation to cite is approached from a textual perspective.

Nevertheless, the blurred distinction between the various types of motivation does not preclude gaining a clear enough view of their interrelatedness. While Becher and Trowler (2001: 114) consider the writer's motives to cite "social and institutional as much as epistemological"; the data collected locally allow me to posit that doctoral thesis writers may also cite for reasons of their own: in order to impress the reader, when they deliberately over-cite, or in order to challenge the conventions, when they knowingly depart from them, producing "writerly" texts.

From among the findings of this study, it is interesting to note that the texts in engineering where, in keeping with the conventions associated with the wider realm of what is commonly known as *hard sciences*, ideas and facts are foregrounded while their respective sources are de-emphasized by means of non-integral citation, writers would sometimes abandon the sanctioned citing style and foreground the cited author, when citing is motivated by social reasons, like acknowledging intellectual indebtedness, for example.

Further, it appears that the personal motivation for citing invariably has a persuasive undertow, whatever immediate function citing may serve in the text. But persuasion goes beyond the author's personal motives. It is also present in the cases of epistemic citation, when the text writer engages critically with the cited sources, calling the cited author's views into question, challenging or endorsing them, or when the text writer considers facts from different perspectives and takes an explicit stand on the matter in hand. Such critical engagement has been noted in texts composed in forestry, marketing, and literature; the engineering texts provide no critical engagement with the sources, which may be consistent with the accretive way of knowledge building in the discipline. Another reason for this may be that, as noted in the specialist literature (e.g. Hyland 2009), texts in hard sciences target a more compact and concentrated readership, for whom the strength of facts is persuasive enough and needs no other rhetorical means to win the audience over.

Within the same research objective – that of piecing together a more comprehensive view of the academic writing practices in effect at my home university – I looked into the issue of research articles with multiple authorship (work in progress). This has been the topic of my contribution to the Twelfth Conference on British and American Studies (May 2015): *Multiauthorship in Research Articles: A Cross-Disciplinary Approach*.

Taking an emic approach to the matter, this ongoing study uses a semi-structured interview to collect data on different aspects relating to the authors' perceptions of and attitudes to collaborative writing, specifically on (i) the writers' individual roles and contributions as signalled by the place of his/her name in a shared byline, and (ii) their assessment of what is fair in terms of credit attribution in research articles with joint authorship.

One preliminary finding which emerged in the course of my investigation relates to the position that writing holds within different disciplinary cultures: in contrast to the *hard disciplines*, where the research process involves only sporadic use of writing (e.g. reports, notes), in the soft disciplines, writing is inextricably linked to research or, rather, writing *is* research. This explains why composition skills are assumed *de facto* in the *soft sciences*, but are seen as separate from research skills in the *hard disciplines*. While interesting in itself, this finding will need validation by more data collected locally.

Argumentation and evaluation form the main focus of research reported in *The Dictionary Review in Romanian: A Rhetorical Analysis of Evaluative Texts* (2014, in "10th Conference on British and American Studies – Crossing Boundaries. Approaches to the Contemporary Multicultural Discourse" Burada, Marinela and Oana Tatu (eds.), UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, pp. 86-115, ISBN (10): 1-4438-5359-3, ISBN (13): 978-1-4438-5359-0).

This context-sensitive qualitative analysis was inspired by an investigation I had conducted in the area of metacriticism in lexicography (section 3.1 in Chapter 3, *q.v.*).

A survey of the vast literature on the subject of evaluation has highlighted the fact that text linguists and discourse analysts have mapped evaluative language and patterns across a variety of texts (e.g. literary reviews, letters of application, peer reviews, research articles, academic journals self-descriptions, etc.), but not in dictionary reviews.

Metalexicographers, on the other hand, have concerned themselves with dictionary reviews, but not specifically with evaluation. My experience in the field of lexicography has allowed me to come to the realization that, unlike a book review, for example, academic dictionary reviews form a comparatively more socially regulated subgenre, where the critic operates under constraints deriving from both academic and lexicographic expectations. This area remains, to the best of my knowledge, a largely uncovered territory.

In order to bridge this gap, I have used twelve dictionary reviews published in a high profile Romanian journal in order to consider the rhetoric of evaluation employed by the different Romanian reviewers. In the absence of any explicit norms regulating the production of reviews in Romanian, I have posited that, in our context, dictionary reviewing is a rather obscure (or

"occluded") subgenre. Under these circumstances, one may conceivably expect dictionary reviews to present themselves as an eclectic body of texts.

Surprisingly, this expectation was borne out only as far as the text size was concerned, but no further than that: structurally, the texts in the corpus displayed a surprisingly high amount of typicality in their structural organization, which cannot have been determined by any local editorial policy. The analysis and its findings will be outlined in what follows below.

To begin with, I have tapped into the international Anglophone specialist literature in order to argue for (a) the genre status of the dictionary review; (b) the special nature of dictionary reviews, which are a type of text shaped by conventions regulating professional communication taking place in both academic and lexicographic discourse communities; (c) the place of evaluation in the production of genres, particularly those instantiated in academic contexts; (d) the role of evaluation in dictionary reviews.

The *ad hoc* analytical frame I have developed is aimed at identifying, in a top-down manner, the critical acts in the reviews in my corpus together with the rhetorical patterns underpinning them. I use four generic categories, i.e. EVALUATION, TOPIC, ASSESSMENT, and BASIS, to refer to four functional units whose different configurations make up a critical act, as follows. A critical act has a binary structure: it consists of an EVALUATION and a BASIS. The former contains an overt or covert expression of critical stance in the form of judgement, assessment, sentiment, and/or personal opinions. EVALUATION is made up of a TOPIC, i.e. the object of praise and criticism (the dictionary, its author, the compilation methods), and an ASSESSMENT, that is, the text segment which contains the critic's appraisal of the TOPIC in hand. The BASIS is the functional unit in the text whereby the critic seeks to lend support to the assessment expressed in the EVALUATION unit.

The analysis has brought out a number of interesting aspects about the dictionary reviews under investigation, as follows:

1. The opening paragraphs of the reviews in my corpus are entirely factual and descriptive; only one text, out of twelve, included a critical act in the opening paragraph.
2. In the text body, critical acts were found to be either explicit or implicit (i.e. signalled or unsignalled by evaluative language or by metalanguage), either localized (i.e. manifest at sentence-level) or distributed across larger text segments.

3. Syntactically, in an evaluation the TOPIC is coextensive with a nominal group, and the ASSESSMENT is part of the predication, as underlined in the translated example below:

> **TOPIC** [The volume recently published by…] **ASSESSMENT** [is the result of original, lengthy and by no means uncomplicated research conducted in the area of lexical antonymy in contemporary Romanian.] (DR6) (Burada 2014: 101)

4. The critic rests his/her evaluation on the BASIS, a functional unit which includes a justification for his/her praise or criticism. Depending on the deductive or inductive rhetorical strategy adopted by the text writer, the BASIS follows or (much less frequently) precedes the EVALUATION unit that is sometimes supported by more than one BASIS. In this case, the BASES may precede and follow the EVALUATION, like in the translated extract below:

> **BASIS 1** [Since the Latinity of the Romanian language is equally considered a mere "hypothesis"…] **EVALUATION** [there is no point in trying to persuade the author of the tenuousness of his theory, through which he attempts to obliterate a scientific truth, amply substantiated since 1780 by the Romanian and the international scientific community:] **BASIS 2**[Romanian is a Romance language, descendant of the Latin language continuously spoken in […]. Would it be necessary to remind the fact that the Roman rule over the Danube provinces lasted from the beginning of the Ist century AD until 602?] (DR11) (Burada 2014: 105)

5. The critic's justification is built on arguments which deploy such rhetorical strategies as contrast, exemplification, appeal to authority, and appeal to facts (e.g. BASIS 2 in the example above). These patterns and (apart from one isolated case) the low-key representation of the authors' *personae* in their own texts reflect the objective stance aimed at by the critics, lending more weight to their evaluation of dictionaries.

6. The body of texts under analysis include both descriptive and evaluative segments; in contrast, the Concluding Unit is exclusively evaluative in function. And since the closing paragraph is short, the density of explicitly evaluative language items (i.e. attitudinal markers, prior polarity items) is proportionally higher. In the evaluation unit, then, one and the same topic is often shared by more than one assessment, via ellipsis of the predicative element, which boosts the illocutionary force of the intended praise or criticism.

The translated example below is a case in point (prior polarity items underlined):

> **TOPIC** [Erroneous in conception and in a vast majority of details, this new would-be etymological dictionary, heavily ideologized, illustration of a noxious theory which is beginning to gain followers even in some academic communities,] **ASSESSMENT 1** [is fundamentally disappointing], **ASSESSMENT 2** [creates serious confusion] and, in essence, **ASSESSMENT 3** [does tremendous disservice to Romanian linguistics.] (DR11) (Burada 2014: 109)

To revert to the original problem relating to the conspicuous similarity in the structural organization of these texts, despite the fact that reviewing is not a conventionalized genre in the Romanian context, I have posited that, since enculturation in this type of text (as, indeed, in so many others) is achieved not by systematic instruction, but by emulation of what is considered to be exemplars of good writing, their structural similarity may well be the effect of replicating a limited set of privileged models.

Before concluding this section on research in the domain of contrastive rhetoric, text linguistics and composition studies, equally worth mentioning here is *Tendințe noi în retorica contrastivă* (2006, in "Antic și modern. In honorem Luciae Wald", București: Editura Humanitas, pp. 83-88, ISBN (10) 973-50-1327-4, ISBN (13) 978-973-50-1327-1), a descriptive, stocktaking article on the changes that the synergic relationship between contrastive rhetoric and other linguistic sub-disciplines have brought about in the theory, methodology, and philosophy behind contrastive rhetoric research. This collective volume and the individual contributions in it have been reviewed in *Adevărul literar şi artistic* (online), on 13 December 2006.

CHAPTER 3 | Lexicography and Metalexicography

The discussion in this chapter relates to work carried out in the wider domain of theoretical and practical lexicography. Section 3.1 contextualizes the research by outlining the domain and the topical issues associated with it. It goes on to describe research conducted both individually and jointly on different aspects related to dictionary compilation, use, and evaluation. Generally speaking, it is this earlier work that has informed the monographic study described further in Section 3.2, a metalexicographic project in its own right devoted to lexicography as reflected in the relevant research and practice performed both internationally, as well as in our cultural context.

3.1 THE LEXICA PROJECT AND RELATED RESEARCH

The third and most recent research focus in my career falls into the ambit of one of the two divisions which make up the lexicographic domain: metalexicography. Also known as *theoretical lexicography, lexicographic research* or *academic lexicography*, this area represents a much newer addition to the time-honoured lexicographic practice.

The rise of metalexicography has been promoted by an alternative perception of dictionary-making: while traditionally looked upon as an artful craft, lexicography has strengthened, over the past decades, its status as an academic discipline, in a course of evolution encountered, *mutatis mutandis*, with the practice of translation and translation studies, or the medical practice and medical studies, for example.

Into the purview of metalexicography fall nowadays distinct but interrelated areas of investigation such as the history of dictionary-making, dictionary typology, pedagogical lexicography, user-related research, dictionary use, dictionary IT, dictionary criticism, and

metacriticism. With all their variations in aims and methods, efforts in these different areas converge towards a common goal: the improvement of lexicographic practice and, by way of consequence, of its outcomes: dictionaries, in all their typological diversity.

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, my first hands-on experience with metalexicographic work has been in the context of a research project I led in 2007 and 2008, *Competitiveness and Effectiveness in Specialised Intercultural Communication through the Optimization of Online Resources* (type A, ref. 929, alias LEXICA), funded by the National University Research Council (http://194.102.64.7/GranturiFinalizate/faces/Projects/Projects List.jsp).

Prompted by a critical evaluation of a definite set of concrete data, the overarching goal of LEXICA has been improving the quality of online linguistic dictionaries by providing compilers with the optimal solutions apt to foster the creation of quality translation tools which, in turn, would lead to an increased effectiveness of intercultural communication. Reaching this goal has involved attaining a number of sub-goals that were originally set for every stage of the project.

Work on the project has been carried out by interdisciplinary team of academics and graduate students from the Faculty of Letters and the Faculty of Mathematics and Informatics. Its outcomes are therefore the results of joint efforts by the team members involved. There has been a "division of labour" between these two specialist groups, with the former conducting the lexicographic part of the research, and the latter securing the IT support.

As project manager, I have had a hands-on involvement in all the different stages of this project, starting with the concept (which I have turned into a full-fledged project proposal), up to its completion. It is in this capacity, and not to take credit for the entire team's work, that I will briefly outline the workflow and the results yielded by this research. Specific information about these matters has been detailed in my article *Blueprinting Online Dictionaries. The Making of Lexica* (2009, in "Conference on British and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 65-72, ISSN 1844-7481).

The first stage in the project's development has been aimed at assessing the *status quo*. This involved several steps such as (1) shortlisting a large enough number of amateur online

dictionaries; (2) setting up a corpus of forty-two bilingual/multilingual dictionaries with Romanian as an object language; (3) designing the benchmark against which the design features of the dictionaries in our corpus were to be measured, and (4) performing an analysis of the macrostructures, microstructures, and interstructures of the reference works forming our corpus.

During the second stage, the data resulting from their analysis have been structured into a baseline study, which enabled us to diagnose a number of lexicographic and programming flaws. By and large, the lexicographic shortcomings have been identified as follows: *macrostructurally*, they related to the headword selection criteria, lemmatization and stemming methods; *microstructurally*, they consisted in the inaccurate and/or inconsistent construction of the reference unit; *interstructurally*, these dictionaries almost exclusively relied on dictionary-internal resources and did too little in the way of directing users to dictionary-external sources of information available on the internet.

The third stage in the project's development has been aimed at finding solutions to remedy the problem areas identified during the second stage. This has required the design and implementation of a pilot dictionary that we have used as a test field, in order to validate the suggested solutions. Our pilot dictionary has been designed as a corpus-based, bilingual, specialized reference work intended for decoding purposes. The lemmata in its macrostructure have been extracted from a corpus of 138 input texts downloaded from the internet, by means of a Java scanner-parser developed in-house, by the IT group in our team.

Two articles co-authored with Dr. Livia Sângeorzan and Dr. Kinga Kiss Iakab, two of the computer specialists on our team, report, in variable detail, the experience we gained from designing, refining, and working with this home-made tool: *Designing a Text Parsing Programme for a Specialized Bilingual Online Dictionary* (2008, authors: L. Sângeorzan, M. Burada, K. Kiss Iakab, in "New Aspects of Applied Informatics and Communications. Proceedings of the 8th WSEAS International Conference on Applied Informatics and Communications". Greece: WSEAS Press, pp. 110-114, ISSN: 1790-5109; ISBN: 978-960-6766-94-7) and *Aspects of Dictionary-Making: Developing an In-House Text Parsing Tool* (2008, authors: L. Sângeorzan, M. Burada, K. Kiss Iakab, in WSEAS Transactions on Computers, Issue 10, Volume 7, October 2008, pp. 1731-1741, ISSN-1109-2750, http://www.worldses.org/journals/computers/computers2008. htm).

Being able to field-test various solutions addressing different problems has finally allowed us to put forward, in the fourth stage of the project, a set of principles, specifications and quality standards for online dictionaries. The rationale behind devising such a theoretical set has been twofold: on the one hand, it has been intended to serve as a non-prescriptive/non-proscriptive work guide apt to minimize error in amateur online reference works; on the other, it has been aimed at providing a reference system for the assessment thereof.

While well aware that influencing the quality of already existing online dictionaries is beyond our reach, we have been confident that our work may have a positive wash-forward effect on future lexicographic projects conducted in the academic environment. Beyond its expected outcomes, however, this project has had deeper ramifications and a more far-reaching impact than we had originally anticipated.

In brief, apart from the theoretical and methodological blueprints for compiling and assessing the quality of online dictionaries, this project has been an eye-opener to the complexities behind the production of reference tools that our profession relies so much upon. It strengthened us in our belief that the effectiveness of our work is contingent upon the quality of the tools we employ.

It is from this premise, then, as well as from Atkins and Varantola's (1997: 1) view that "[t]here are two direct routes to more effective dictionary use: the first is to radically improve the dictionary; the second is to radically improve the users", that I have taken it upon myself to add an advanced course in lexicography to the master's curriculum (section 4.1 in Chapter 4, *q.v.*) and co-write, in partnership with Dr. Raluca Sinu, former student, Lexica project team member and present department colleague, a monographic study on the theory and practice of lexicography today.

The description of this book will be held over to section **3.2** below. For the time being, it is perhaps more important to stress that the book has not been written in a vacuum: on the contrary, *Research and Practice in Lexicography* is, to all intents and purposes, the corollary of prior years-long research we have conducted in the field.

In view of the pivotal part it played in crystallizing the concept of the book and in supplying the empirical evidence included therein, I consider it useful to provide an overview of this earlier research.

In retrospect, the alpha moment in my engagement with metalexicography is the year 2005. It came with an awareness of the increasingly important part that reference works available on the internet were playing in my students' learning process, at the expense of more traditional resources, like paper dictionaries, for example. In order to assess the extent to which these resources could be relied on conceptually, and to be able, as a result, to appreciate their cognitive contribution to my students' professional development, I initiated a survey of eleven online bilingual dictionaries compiled in the Romanian context. My co-worker on this small-scale project was Dr. Raluca Sinu, with whom I later co-authored a report on our preliminary findings, published under the title *On-line Dictionaries – A Qualitative Approach* (2006, authors: M. Burada and R. Sinu, in "Conference on British and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 39-56, ISBN 973-635-756-2; ISBN 987-973-635-756-5). The areas we paid particular attention to related to the authorship of these dictionaries, the metalanguage used in their microstructures, the presentation and translation of headwords, the types of site hosting the dictionaries, as well as the interface (the GUIs) of the online dictionaries in question.

We took this line of research one step further: in 2008 I introduced our suggestions for the improvement of this type of dictionaries at the Second ROASS Conference, which soon became the substance of a joint research article, *A Critical Approach to Online Dictionaries – Problems and Solutions* (2009, authors: M. Burada and R. Sinu, "Proceedings of the 2nd ROASS Conference", Bacău: Editura Alma Mater, pp. 565-574, ISSN 1842-6409) co-authored with Dr. Raluca Sinu. In this article we also discuss the problem of findability/accessibility, arguing that limited dictionary accessibility may be put down to both dictionary-internal and dictionary-external factors. The former stem from flaws in the design features and content of the dictionary, the latter relate to the users, whose referencing skills are nowadays assumed *de facto*. We highlight the gulf opening between theory and practice in our context and call for universities to undertake the task of providing basic and advanced training in dictionary compilation, dictionary research, and dictionary use.

Situated in the area of user research, *The User Perspective in Dictionary Assessment* (2009, authors M. Burada and R. Sinu, in "Conference on English and American Studies" Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 73-86, ISSN 1844-7481) reports on our learners' perception of what constitutes a "good dictionary". The users' criteria of merit resulted from the qualitative analysis of data collected by means of an anonymous questionnaire administered to 290 graduate (MA, Ph.D.) and undergraduate students at our home university.

The thematic analysis method has enabled us to identify a set of parameters, i.e. reliability, accessibility, coverage, autonomy, affordability, and design. Besides these informal criteria gleaned from the respondents' feedback, in this paper we also discuss our students' level of dictionary-awareness and, on the basis of empirical evidence, we rate it as very low. Our students' superficial dictionary enculturation impacts negatively upon the effectiveness of learning. We argue that, in order to circumvent this problem, awareness-raising can best be achieved by formal training.

As already mentioned above, dictionary typology is – just like user research above – a distinct area of metalinguistic research. It has also been a longstanding desideratum with metalexicographers, who have made constant attempts to categorize the wealth of increasingly heterogeneous lexicographic products, but with limited success (cf. Béjoint 2004, 2010). I discuss why this should be the case in *Problems with the Categorization of Dictionaries* (2010, in "Conference on British and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 113-124, ISSN 1844-7481).

Conducted on theoretical ground, the discussion starts with an overview of the most influential types of categorization, i.e. phenomenological (or morphological), pragmatic, communicative, and genetic, each with their respective foci of attention. It then goes on to highlight three aspects which hamper the metalexicographers' attempts at categorization and which may, for this reason, be held accountable for the partial success of efforts in this direction. These aspects relate to:

(1) The difficulties in defining the dictionary, in other words, in the attempt to circumscribe and place it in a definite category – difficulties augmented by the current trend towards what Hartmann calls "lexicographic hybridization" (2005: 204), which blurs the traditional divides separating the dictionary genres.

(2) The different angles of approach, i.e. by means of an *a priori* set of categories (as in a typology) or, on the contrary, by devising categories *a posteriori*, following the survey of existing dictionaries (as in a classification).

(3) The labelling problems, which occur when the internal structure of the dictionary is described in holistic terms.

Considering that the dictionary is a tiered structure organized on distinct but interrelated levels (i.e. macrostructure, microstructure, mediostructure), problems arise when, in attempting to describe a dictionary with a composite structure, a label is applied globally to *all* of its constituent structures. For instance, as Béjoint (2004) noted, the label "general" or "specialized" can describe both the macrostructure and the microstructure of a dictionary but not necessarily at once. The reason for this is that there can be dictionaries which are general in their macrostructure but specialized in their microstructure (e.g. pronunciation dictionaries, etymological dictionaries, synonym dictionaries, etc.) or the other way round (e.g. specialist dictionaries for laypeople).

Similarly, the traditional binary opposition between "monolingual" and "bilingual" reference works does no longer apply in the case of bilingualized dictionaries, a mid-ground category further subdividing into semi-bilingual and bridge dictionaries. Bilingualized dictionaries take monolingual reference works as a starting point, but also include L1 translations side by side with their L2 original or, in the case of bridge dictionaries, insert the L2 headword in the L1 definition.

A further and very common illustration of this type of problem relates to the "semasiological" versus "onomasiological" distinction, which traditionally separated linguistic from encyclopedic dictionaries. In the spirit of the "lexicographic hybridization" referred to above, this distinction is quite often blurred as a result of the conspicuous tendency in linguistic dictionaries to combine semasiological with onomasiological information in order to reach the widest audience possible.

Overall, what emerges from the discussion in this article is that, while categorizations couched in terms of binary oppositions retain their expository convenience, the developments on the lexicographic scene today make it necessary to develop a more reticulated frame for their

description, which would be better suited to cope with the impressive variety of reference works and cross-pollination of dictionary genres.

Another area within the metalexicographic domain is dictionary criticism and metacriticism. In *Rhetorical Features in Dictionary Reviews: Towards an Analytical Framework* (2011, authors M. Burada and R. Sinu, in "Conference on British and American Studies", Editura Universității Transilvania, pp. 89-103, ISSN 1844-7481), we take a metacritical stance in order to suggest a framework for the critical analysis of dictionary reviews. The need for a framework, no matter how tentative, can only be appreciated in the wider context of dictionary criticism. We therefore start by describing dictionary *criticism* (or dictionary evaluation) as a process consisting of a series of interrelated steps, i.e. examination, description, analysis, comparison and assessment, whose natural outcome is a dictionary review. In lexicography, the academic review has a clear prospective orientation: it can influence, more than any other member of the review genre, a future course of action. Indeed, the warranted critique of a dictionary may determine improvements made in the following editions of that dictionary. This suggests that sound, principled dictionary criticism can have a beneficial effect on dictionaries and dictionary-making.

On the other hand, *metacriticism* is a term which, in lexicography, refers to the review of reviews, in other words, to the critical analysis of dictionary reviews, performed with the aim of reconstructing the thinking behind the review article. The ultimate aim of metacriticism is to hone dictionary criticism into a more effective evaluation tool, which, as already stated, contributes to the improvement of dictionary-making.

While partially overlapping notions, dictionary criticism and metacriticism depart, nevertheless, in some respects. Examining texts from both categories, we have identified and described six points of discrepancy. In broad terms, they relate to authorship, target audience, focus of critique, orientation of the analysis, purpose, and the input data. In brief, in contrast to criticism, metacriticism is performed exclusively by domain-specialists, it targets dictionary reviewers, it is descriptive and text-oriented, it seeks to educate reviewers not by providing models, but by affording them the opportunity to reflect on texts authored by themselves or by other reviewers, and it considers textual data seen in their interrelationship within the text's superstructure.

Having clarified both the nature of metacriticism and its operational frame, we proceed to suggest a tentative checklist for the analysis of dictionary reviews. It consists of four parameters, i.e. textual superstructure, rhetorical devices (in particular, those concerning evaluation), the reviewer's stance, and metalanguage. I later used a refined version of this analytical paradigm in a text-linguistic investigation of dictionary reviews composed in Romanian (section 2.2 in Chapter 2, *q.v.*).

In the article described above we have referred to the authorship of dictionary reviews, distinguishing these texts along the popular–academic continuum, according to their origin and venue for publication. Picking up this investigative strand, we have conducted a survey of dictionary reviews composed by different authors. Overall, it has become apparent that people situated on the different ends of the lexicographic continuum tend to have different perceptions as to what a good dictionary is or should be.

Our findings on this matter have been included in the article *Quality Criteria for Dictionary Evaluation. A Comparative Approach* (2014, authors M. Burada and R. Sinu, in "Sapientia et Scientia. In Honorem Luciae Wald", București: Editura Universității din București, pp. 85-93, ISBN 978-606-16-0436-4). This article reports on the results yielded by a small-scale comparative study aimed at identifying the criteria of merit in dictionary assessment by specialists and by laypeople. The data used have been extracted from academic reviews published in high profile academic journals and, respectively, questionnaire-derived information from students at our university.

The premise of this study has been that the best starting point in determining the quality standards used in dictionary evaluation are the review texts themselves. The reason for this is that, in lexicography, the critique of dictionaries does not yet rest upon unified and unitary evaluation systems with commonly accepted evaluation criteria. As such, it is hardly surprising that review articles should differ in content, focus, and/or manner of approach and, from here, in the "criteria of goodness" that their authors foreground.

Our analysis has revealed that, generally speaking, both specialist and non-specialist reviews targeted, at varying degrees, all the main components of dictionaries, i.e. macrostructure, microstructure and interstructure. But the aspects attended to or given prominence to are

markedly different. For instance, in assessing a dictionary, corpus-based headword selection is a plus from the specialist's point of view, and a non-issue with the common dictionary user. As it turned out, our students had their own evaluation criteria. These, however, had little to do with the intrinsic merits of their dictionaries, falling, for their most part, out of the lexicographic scope: price, portability, and availability.

Overlaps between criteria originating from the two quarters have been found in the specialist reviews where, in keeping with the pragmatic turn in dictionary-making, the critique took user-related features into consideration.

Concerned with the status of lexicography in the wake of the digital revolution, the article *Lexicografia în era informaţională: câteva probleme* (2015, authors: M. Burada and R. Sinu, in "Lucrările celui de-al Cincilea Simpozion Internațional de Lingvistică", București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic Gold, pp. 424-440, ISSN 2006-7973) is based on our contribution made on the occasion of the Fifth International Symposium of Linguistics organized by "Iorgu Iordan – Al. Rosetti" Institute of Linguistics on 27 and 28 September 2013.

In this descriptive, theoretical paper, we highlight three points of contention which have fuelled the debate on the international lexicographic arena today. The first refers to the current trend towards challenging the preeminent position of linguistics in relation to lexicography; the second stems from the imbalance between lexicographic theory and practice; the third concerns the main competing theories and methodologies currently underpinning dictionary compilation. A more detailed assessment of these issues and of the debates animating the lexicographic community today forms the Introduction to the book described in the following section.

3.2 MONOGRAPHIC WORK ON LEXICOGRAPHY

As already mentioned in the foregoing discussion, the corollary of my work in the field of lexicography can, with good reason, be considered the joint work *Research and Practice in Lexicography* (2016, authors: M. Burada, R. Sinu, Editura Universității Transilvania din Brașov, ISBN 978-606-19-0693-2). Researching for this book took us, during the data collection stage, on brief but highly informative field trips to the Directorate-General for Translations of the

European Commission in Brussels (January 2008), and to the Lexicographic Department of the Institute of Linguistics "Iorgu Iordan – Al. Rosetti" within the Romanian Academy (August 2011).

These have been good opportunities to interact with domain-specialists and gain first-hand knowledge about dictionary use, language and translation corpora, databases, and search engines. Equally important, they have provided us with interesting insights into past and present dictionary projects carried out in our national context, which, in turn, has afforded us a better grasp of the specificities of dictionary-making in the Romanian cultural setting. Furthermore, as argued in the Preface to our book,

> "Researching the field has left us with the impression that all too often lexicographic matters are approached discretely, by specialists who tackle them for the benefit of other specialists. There are comparatively fewer works providing an articulate image of lexicography and of how its different parts and aspects come together. This is all the more true for our context, where the imbalance between the modicum of lexicographic research and the unremitting lexicographic practice makes it difficult for disciplinary outsiders to tread this uncharted realm." (Burada and Sinu 2016: xi)

This is the gap that our work has been aimed to bridge. To this end, we have approached matters from the teacher's perspective, in an attempt to give a clear and coherent account of what lexicography is about. At the same time, our book has been intended as a small step towards putting Romanian metalexicography more decidedly on the international lexicographic map. This is why, in dealing with the various topics, we have also drawn on theoretical and factual data originating from the Romanian context. A synopsis of our study is in order here.

Research and Practice in Lexicography is structured in seven chapters grouped in two distinct parts. Part One (chapters 1 through 5) is concerned with the study of lexicography's flagship product: the dictionary. Part Two (chapters 6 and 7) is dedicated to the process of compiling and, respectively, of evaluating dictionaries. In each chapter, we supply a brief annotated bibliography list pointing the reader to other sources of information on the topic in question.

The aim of Chapter One is to outline the domain of lexicography. As apparent from the relevant literature, this is no easy matter. One reason why this should be the case is the interdisciplinary

nature of lexicography, its interrelatedness with other fields, among which linguistics and, much more recently, information technology, which has during the past years become involved in virtually every step of the lexicographic process.

Another obstacle in the attempt to circumscribe the lexicographic domain with reasonable precision relates to the different positions adopted by specialists on a number of highly topical issues in the discipline. One such issue is the essence of lexicography, regarded as either an art, or a craft, or a profession. Another contentious issue stems from the alternative views on the epistemic status of the discipline, particularly on its relationship with linguistics. In this respect, lexicography has either been integrated into linguistics, or seen as interdependent with it, or – more recently – treated as a completely independent field of inquiry. Some of the arguments supporting these different positions have been reviewed in a separate section in Chapter One.

One argument in support of the scientific status of lexicography is the existence of metalexicography which – despite the voices to the contrary – contributed significantly to structuring the rich practice in the field and to increasing the "academic respectability" (Hartmann's 2010 term) of the discipline.

However, a certain amount of tension between theory and practice still lingers in lexicography today. This tension has been put down to a number of factors, among which (i) the "age gap" between practical and theoretical lexicography or, rather, the head start that practical lexicography - an undertaking almost as old as writing itself - has over theoretical lexicography which took definite shape much later, in the course of the twentieth century; (ii) the failure of theory to provide solutions to *all* lexicographic problems encountered in everyday practice; (iii) the limited applicability of some of the principles and methods put forward by theorists; (iv) more subjectively, the perception of theorists as harsh critics of lexicographic products.

Our evaluation of the status of theory in this field concludes with an approach to Romanian metalexicography, more specifically, with an overview of the historical and synchronic studies and projects conducted in our cultural context.

If Chapter One is concerned with tracing the boundaries of lexicography, Chapter Two is aimed at defining the concept of dictionary. This endeavour, too, is not entirely unproblematic. Given

the ever increasing conceptual and formal variety of this type of reference works, formulating a definition wide enough to encompass them all, while also pertinent enough to distinguish dictionaries from members of related genres is an almost impossible task to complete. This is somewhat paradoxical, given the fact that, in any normal circumstance, any literate individual would be perfectly capable of recognizing a dictionary offhand and without much pondering.

To circumvent this problem we take a step back in our analysis and consider matters from a different perspective: how can typicality in a set of objects be determined?

One solution comes from the area of discourse analysis, particularly from Swales (1990: 49-52) who taps into Wittgenstein's *Philosophical Investigations* (1958, in Swales 1990: 49-50) for insights into this matter. According to Swales (1990), then, membership to a certain class can be determined in one of the two ways: by taking either a definitional approach, or a family resemblance approach. The former entails determining a set of features on the basis of which all objects possessing them can be assigned to one and the same class. The latter approach starts from the premise that members of the same group cannot be expected to share all of the features associated with their class and that, in the final analysis, family resemblance is a matter of degree. Seen like that, some members are more alike than others. A later development of the family resemblance approach, the Prototype Theory devised within the cognitivist research paradigm holds that some members of a class are more prototypical than others in the same class.

While useful, it appears that these lines of approach which seek to determine the essential, common-core properties of dictionaries are not without limitations. This has made it necessary to identify another way to define dictionaries.

The alternative solution we adopt is to conceive of dictionaries as a constellation of design features. Since there are different ontological positions from which dictionaries have been defined or otherwise described, we have deemed it appropriate to delve into the relevant literature in order to find out what these design features are, and how prominently they feature with different authors.

Apart from showing what dictionaries are, we complete the picture by showing what dictionaries *are not*. We therefore go on to contemplate dictionaries in relation to other types of

lexicographic and non-lexicographic reference works: encyclopedias, thesauri, specialist reference works, word lists, grammar books.

From this vantage point, Chapter Three proceeds with a description of the structure of dictionaries. In a unidimensional representation of paper dictionaries, one can easily recognize the *front matter*, the *central list*, and the *back matter* forming their structure.

However, in a manner similar to the organization of natural languages themselves, the central list has a complex architecture consisting of a number of main layers or structures, i.e. the macrostructure, the microstructure, and the mediostructure, as well as more discrete types of structural organization, i.e. the access structure, the distribution structure, and the addressing structure. Each type of structure is explained and illustrated by means of extracts from various paper and online dictionaries.

Chapter Four is devoted exclusively to the most important element in the microstructure of general, monolingual dictionaries: the definition. While, as shown in the previous chapter, the definition is by no means the only element used in the description of a lemma, defining and definitions are regarded as quintessential to the lexicographic profession. For this reason, we have chosen to consider them in more detail. To put the definition into perspective, we have contrasted it with the notion of *explanation* in lexicography, showing that definitions are but one type of lexicographic explanation, alongside the explanatory cross-references, illustrations, exemplifications, expansions, discussions, and translations.

Since definitions in lexicography are, to a large extent, indebted to logical definitions and classifications, the discussion starts with an overview of some of the definitional types and approaches used in logic. We distinguish denotative definitions (i.e. ostensive, enumerative, definitions by subclass) from connotative definitions (i.e. lexical, stipulative, genus-and-differentia). From here, we go on to explain the types of lexicographic definitions and their variations, in keeping with the type of dictionary and the target groups whose referencing needs it caters for. The standard definitions we deal with here pertain to the analytical, synonym, functional, and formulaic types.

Unlike in logic, where definitions seek to capture the essence of *definienda*, definitions in lexicography strive to make *words* immediately recognizable to the dictionary user. This entails that lexicographers are not expected to provide comprehensive descriptions of the lemma, but rather to select only those features which they consider distinctive enough to make the unknown known to the dictionary user. This kind of latitude distinguishes lexicographic definitions from logical definitions, setting it apart from terminographic and encyclopedic definitions. At the same time, it accounts for the discrepancies among the definitions, in different dictionaries, for one and the same lemma.

By and large, the process of defining consists of two distinct stages. The first involves breaking down a word's meaning into discrete, separate senses, a task which - it has been argued - runs counter to the networking and overlapping of senses found in all natural languages (Kilgarriff 2008, Lew 2013). This constraint, I may add, is quite similar to that under which synchronic linguistics operates: dealing with language as if it were at a standstill, ready to be examined and formalized by the linguist. The next stage consists of rearranging senses according to different criteria, the most typical of which are chronology, frequency, logic, and syntax.

While definitions of lexical words by default supply information on the denotative meaning of the lemma, it is not unusual for them to also include (exegetic) information about their connotative meaning or about the sense(s) acquired at a particular time or in a specific cultural space. We have devoted a subsection in this chapter to this particular subject, showing, *inter alia*, that sometimes the definition reflects the ideology and power relations at work in a community and culture at a given time.

The next two points for discussion relate to the principles and conventions underpinning the formulation of definitions in lexicography and, respectively, the definitional formats standardly employed in paper and online dictionaries. As far as the former point is concerned, we list and explain the principles of simplicity and specificity, clarity, priority of essence, brevity, non-circularity, and substitutability. As for the latter, we tackle full sententence definitions, single-clause WHEN definitions, short definitions, and perspective-based definitions.

Among the most interesting findings highlighted in the Conclusions unit of this chapter is the fact that, in the actual lexicographic practice, the definitional types are not necessarily

mutually-exclusive: quite often, lexicographers resort to more than one type of definition in order to reach as wide an audience as possible. The same holds true for definitional formats.

Chapter Five is concerned with one aspect falling within the purview of metalexicography: the categorization of dictionaries. We use the term "categorization" to refer generically to both typologies and classifications. The discussion in this chapter starts with a critical survey of the literature on this complex and intricate topic, followed by a brief overview of the vantage points from which dictionaries have been categorized over the years. We therefore discuss *phenomenological* approaches to dictionary categorization, which foreground the formal features of the dictionary (e.g. size, coverage, temporal perspective), *functional* approaches which, as their name suggests, categorize dictionaries in terms of the functions they are designed to perform, *pragmatically-oriented* categorizations which focus on the dictionary consultation situations, *communicative* typologies which take into account the compiler, the dictionary context, and the user, and *genetic* typologies, based on the perception of dictionaries as the result of a chain of interrelated decisions.

With all this variety of approaches, there is no such thing as a perfect categorization. What undermines the scholarly efforts in this direction is further expanded on in a separate section in Chapter Five. The view we take on this matter is that, with all its flaws, an imperfect categorization is better than none.

From here, we proceed to outlining and illustrating the criteria and categories commonly used to describe and group dictionaries. These criteria relate to the content of dictionaries, their purposes, the users' profiles, the medium of data storage and delivery, their authorship, the number of languages they operate with, the primary language of the users, the approach to content taken by the lexicographer, the temporal perspective from which the dictionaries are compiled, their directionality, functionality, coverage, physical size, manner of organization, and degree of illustration. We conclude this chapter by showing that

> "… the distinctions used to describe dictionaries may be binary, tertiary, or even scalar; no typology, however, can fully cope with the impressive diversity and increasing hybridization of reference works; this explains the fuzzy boundaries between some of the categories described […], and the need to readjust the traditional binary sets to accommodate new categories emerging in the wake of the technological era. Therefore,

> since a definitive typology has not yet seen the light of academic day, we believe that, for our present purposes, dictionaries had best be regarded as constellations of features which may be variable in number." (Burada and Sinu 2016: 241)

If the discussion in the previous chapters has focused on the dictionary as product, Chapter Six tackles lexicography as process, focusing on the different stages in the process of dictionary-making. There are different models put forward in the literature, each including a variable number of stages, the simplest of which consists of a three-step process, i.e. planning, writing, and producing the dictionary.

The planning stage consists of a series of lexicographic and non-lexicographic decisions that practitioners are faced with. It is during this preliminary stage that lexicographers collect the data on which the dictionary's macrostructure will be based. In this context, some amount of attention is paid to electronic corpora and their advantages for dictionary making.

The writing stage involves a number of parallel activities aimed at piecing together the microstructural units, e.g. writing the definitions, preparing the synonyms, writing the pronunciations, etc. Since consistency in the treatment and presentation of entries is an essential feature, the Style Guide (drafted during the writing stage) is crucial in achieving it, especially when work is carried out by large teams of lexicographers.

Finally, the production stage includes proofreading and printing, in the case of paper dictionaries, or implementing, in the case of electronic reference works. We use LEXICA, the pilot dictionary we compiled as part of the Lexica Project (section 3.1, *q.v.*) as a case study to illustrate the three stages introduced earlier in this chapter. The discussion here concludes with a number of legal and ethical issues which may occur at the various stages of dictionary compilation.

Chapter Seven treats of assessment in lexicography. It picks up on the discussion in an earlier chapter, on the conceptual fuzziness behind the term dictionary. If dictionaries are difficult to define, this not only impacts on their categorization, but also on their assessment. This is due to the fact that, in order to evaluate a dictionary's worth, one needs to refer to its most prototypical features.

The discussion starts on theoretical ground: it situates dictionary criticism in the wider domain of metalexicography, showing its nature, purposes and outcomes, as well as its relationship with other relevant areas. Next, the focus of attention shifts to dictionary reviews, their purposes, types and sources as defined in the literature, and to the features distinguishing them from other members of the review genre. We tap into the international pool of knowledge for information relative to the approaches, methods, and practices in dictionary reviewing.

One interesting (although not entirely surprising) finding has been that dictionary reviews have a relatively low academic status, when compared to other scholarly genres, such as the research article, for example. The same is true for the review genre, in general. A reason for their lackluster status is the absence of a unified set of evaluation principles applicable to all or most dictionaries, which explains why reviews nowadays "come in many shapes and sizes" (Nielsen 2009: 23). This situation can be put down to a number of variables, such as the increasingly complex nature of the dictionaries, the aims of the critiques, the critics' backgrounds, methods, attitude to the norm-imposed constraints, etc.

Apart from these aspects, however, the problem has, we believe, deeper roots. They go far back, to the very essence of dictionaries. In truth, to learn about *how* to evaluate, one must be well-aware of *what*, exactly, is the object of evaluation: the dictionary as a source of information, or the dictionary as a tool designed to respond to a linguistic, communicative, or cognitive need?

The stance adopted on this matter will determine the reviewer's focus and manner of analysis. If the dictionary is regarded as a source of information, the evaluation will focus on its content; if considered a tool, the assessment of the dictionary will target the effectiveness with which the dictionary enables users to perform the tasks for which its has originally been designed. We survey some of the methods, approaches, and criteria used by dictionary critics (e.g. the data sampling method, the factual approach, the dictionary-internal vs. dictionary-external criteria, etc.).

In line with Jackson's (2002: 182) view that criticism can be performed by different groups of people, i.e. the specialists, the users, and the teachers, we use three case studies in order to identify the criteria emanating from each group. The last section in Chapter Seven tackles metacriticism in relation to dictionary criticism, and overviews the modicum of literature on this

subject. In this context, we describe Swanepoel's (2008, 2010) suggested framework for the description and assessment of the evaluation criteria employed in dictionary criticism. Speaking from the teacher's perspective, we point out that

> "[t]o theorists and practising lexicographers, meta-evaluation is useful because it informs dictionary criticism, making it more principled, consistent and transparent, which in turn helps towards improving dictionary making itself; its function, then, is both summative and formative. To us, the present relevance of work carried out in this area resides chiefly in their eye-opener quality: metacriticism, in general, and meta-evaluation, in particular, afford us a better view of the complexities of dictionary evaluation." (Burada and Sinu 2016: 341-342).

We conclude the book with some considerations on the future of lexicography. This brings up the subject e-lexicography, and the changes in dictionary-making ushered in by the computer revolution. For example, as far as the quality criteria are concerned, there is a clear shift of attention from the accuracy and complexity of linguistic detail to the design features (e.g. findability, speed, availability) meant to allow the user's access to the data as promptly and effortlessly as possible. As predicted by the specialists, the dictionary of the future will be intuitive, in the sense that it will adapt itself to the user's background, needs and interests, enabling him/her to cope with an ever increasing variety of communicative tasks.

CHAPTER 4 Educational Work and Varia

Premised on the view that research and education are inextricably linked in higher education, this chapter includes, in section 4.1 a brief account of my current teaching commitments, their nature and how they have furthered my research work or, as the case may be, have been promoted by it. Besides the teaching activities, sections 4.2 through 4.4 list further contributions made within the wider paradigm of academic work.

4.1 TEACHING-RELATED ACTIVITIES

In the academia, research and teaching are never really disconnected pursuits. On the contrary, they co-exist in a virtuous circle, where each feeds into the other. It is in the process of teaching that I have become inspired with ideas for research, I have field-tested some of my theoretical assumptions and hypotheses, and I have collected the raw data for my investigations. On the other hand, my research has constantly informed the courses that I teach and has provided me with the evidence and examples apt to make abstract knowledge more accessible and palatable to my students.

To illustrate this synergic relationship between teaching and research, in what follows I will refer to the courses that I am currently running at my home university.

To give credit where credit is due, I should point out from the outset that my studies towards the M.Ed. degree have had a far-reaching impact on my professional output. Specifically, they have provided me with substantive methodological support, enabling me to cope with the tasks associated with various educational activities such as needs analysis, curricular/syllabus design, course design, teaching materials design, and assessment of learning outcomes. The expertise gained from this training programme has developed my ability to structure, in a clear and

coherent manner, the input intended for either teaching (lectures notes, course outlines and materials) or dissemination purposes (research articles, books, conference contributions), in close connection with the target audience and the expectations of the academic and the disciplinaty community.

Equally important, I have found inspiration with the remarkable professors and supervisors from whom I have been fortunate enough to learn and who helped me grasp the complexities of the profession. It is their model that I have been striving to emulate.

I currently teach four courses in linguistics, which I have designed, documented and implemented myself. One is a course in general linguistics, *Introducere în lingvistica generală* (with Romanian as a working language) intended for first year undergraduate students from two study programmes, i.e. languages and literatures, and applied modern languages. My research in the area of contact linguistics has been a rich source of examples and case studies which have helped explain language change and its outcomes.

Apart from my native Romanian, I have drawn, to various extents, on synchronic and diachronic language facts from the languages that I can speak – English, French, German – in order to illustrate contact-related phenomena, such as interference and the typology of borrowing. Based on my experience as course convenor, I have drafted the conceptual outline of a book that I have subsequently co-written with my two colleagues in charge with the seminars in linguistics, Dr. Oana Tatu and Dr. Raluca Sinu, both former students of mine: *Probleme de lingvistică. Teorie și aplicații* (2015, authors M. Burada, O. Tatu, R. Sinu, Editura Universității Transilvania din Brașov; ISBN 978-606-19-0579-9).

The theoretical input and related exercises that this book contains are structured in five chapters, a conceptual organization which, by and large, replicates the course structure:

1. Linguistics – objectives, key notions, and methods
2. The essence of language, its features and functions
3. The structure and architecture of language:
    3.1 Language levels and language units
    3.2 Parts of speech and grammatical categories

3.3 Linguistic laws

4. Language change: internal and external causes and processes
5. Language diversity.

The five chapters are patterned consistently: each starts with a statement of the aims, points the students to the relevant course unit that will assist them in accomplishing the tasks, includes an initial, twenty-item *True/False* exercise, followed by a variable number of tasks and exercises. Each chapter ends with an annotated bibliography and a ten-item self-assessment test laid out in multiple-choice format.

The input texts included in our book are the result of a selection consisting of excerpts from the foundational linguistic literature. We edited some of them, translated others into Romanian and, with all of them, we did our best to find the optimal ways to exploit the input for various purposes, in the different types of exercises we designed.

Methodologically, these exercises are based on recognition, production, matching, form-filling, and are aimed at promoting the development of cognitive processes and study skills such as the analysis, synthesis, critical thinking, logical thinking, argumentation, finding and checking information, and correlating information from different sources. A review of this book will be published in the first 2016 issue of *Studii și cercetări lingvistice*, a journal published under the aegis of the Romanian Institute of Linguistics.

Another course, *An Introduction to Linguistics* (in English) is intended for second year undergraduate students in American Studies. With these learners in mind, the main foci of attention in this course are: the Levels of Linguistic Organization; Classification and Typology in the Categorization of Languages; Bilingualism and its Role in Language Contact; Linguistic Innovation: Borrowing as a Vector of Language Change; Language Loss.

At master's level, I teach one linguistics course to full-time students enrolled in the programme *Language Studies for Intercultural Communication*, and another course, *Theory and Practice in Applied Linguistics* to distance-mode students. As far as the latter is concerned, the fact that I took an in-service training course in distance teaching, in 2011, sensitized me to the specificities of this line in adult education.

Teaching in the distance-mode is rather demanding work. It is based on pre-established routines and protocols essential in accomplishing the required tasks. The course materials are laid out in a special format intended to cater for the needs of students working in an unconventional learning environment. I prepared and wrote a course consisting of five learning units, as follows:

(1) "Where Do We Stand? Applied Linguistics in the Mainstream Linguistic Research". In view of the controversial nature of the applied linguistics domain, this is an introductory unit setting the ground for the discussion in the following learning units.

(2) "On Language as a Semiotic Medium" starts from the Saussurean view of language and gradually broadens the scope of the discussion by considering the Culture–Language–Thought complex.

(3) "The Rise of Natural Language" looks at language as "nature or nurture", and goes on to overview the theories of the origins of language, and the earliest language functions.

(4) "Human Language on the Communication Continuum: Language Features and Language Functions Revisited" describes two attempts to delimit human natural language from non-human modes of communication, i.e. the design features approach, and the functional approach.

(5) "On Language as a Self-Organising Entity" closes the circle opened in unit 2 by looking at structure and system in language, as well as at the dynamics of language change.

Besides linguistics, I teach two writing courses at graduate level. One course is part of the curriculum of the masters programme *Language Studies for Intercultural Communication.* The course starts from the premise that students at this level of instruction are able (with variable degrees of competence) to produce acceptable academic texts, but are less prepared to account for the process leading up to the finished products or explain the reasons for the choices made while composing them.

This points at the little awareness that most students have of themselves as writers, and at their tendency to look upon writing for professional purposes as a mechanic, formula-based and rule-driven task. This rather static view of writing minimizes the students' adaptability to

genre variations, and often induces them to turn a blind eye to exemplars of good writing in the discipline.

From this premise, then, the course has been aimed at honing the students' writing abilities by attuning them to the academic writing practices in effect across cultures and disciplinary communities. The underlying philosophy here is that self-improvement is a function of self-awareness. In light of this, achieving the desired aim requires developing of the students' metacognitive skills, in other words, their ability to diagnose their own problems as writers and address them accordingly, using the input provided by this course.

To this end, I approach, from a theoretical perspective, a number of general and more discrete linguistic and rhetorical matters falling within the ambit of English For Academic Purposes and English for Research Purposes, as follows: discourse functions and textual functions, perceptions of the notion of genre, textual macrostructures and microstructures, expository writing, argument writing, evaluative language, rhetorical strategies, authorial stance.

The theoretical component of the course is gradually built via critical reading of research articles touching on various literacy-related topics – texts used as both sources of input and samples of accomplished writing – followed by group discussions and information exchange between the learners. The practical component requires students to (a) analyse samples of student writing (which may or may not be texts of their own) and expert writing in order to identify aspects which emerged during the theoretical discussions; (b) correct or otherwise amend the texts in question, in light of the new input; (c) write and re-write texts of their own taking into account the newly acquired input.

The assessment for this module is project-based and students can opt for pair writing if they so desire; this helps dispel some of their misperceptions or reluctance as far as collaborative writing is concerned. Hence, the students are given the opportunity to learn early on that research projects most often involve shared responsibilities, accountability, mutual help, sensitivity and empathy to the otherness of others.

The final project requires students to choose a relevant topic, document it, and write a paper which I assess by means of a set of *a priori* criteria, that students are made aware of before they

set out to complete the writing task. These criteria also form the checkpoints for the written feedback that each student receives, together with their final grade.

The other writing course that I teach is of a different nature. Designed for the doctoral students with advanced English language competence, it is a hands-on induction course into the rhetorical specificity of English for Research Purposes. The target group consists of what might be described as a motley crew of first year doctoral candidates with different backgrounds, illustrating different research areas and traditions on the *hard science* continuum: engineering, medicine, forestry, business, etc. Since, for administrative reasons, the number of contact hours allotted for this class is very limited, I focus on specific points of discrepancy between English and Romanian language writing: the use of citation, abstract writing, identifying the building blocks (or moves) of specialist texts, the metadiscourse available to signal both the transitions between these textual units, as well as the logical relations holding between different text segments.

Interacting with these groups of highly focused and motivated university graduates has required me to step out of my professional comfort zone and act in the spirit of what I would call disciplinary relativism.

This means expecting, predicting, and acknowledging cross-disciplinary diversity in text production, which – in a true determinist vein – I tend to put down to the more or less different ways to process information and construct knowledge across disciplines often lumped together under one generic label (e.g. "engineering", "hard sciences", etc.). The Ph.D. students I have been working with have offered me interesting material for contrastive analyses and very useful insights into the manner in which one becomes encultured into the writing practices of various academic communities. The findings of research based on data derived from this context have been described in Chapter 2 above (section 2.2 *q.v.*).

In a different domain, another course that I teach to master's students is *Fundamentals of Bilingual Lexicography*. In this course, I have capitalized on the expertise gained first hand while working on the Lexica Project (section 3.1, Chapter 3, *q.v.*). One of the reasons for including this course in the first year curriculum of this master's programme has been the realization that our students know precious little about what dictionaries are and what they can offer. This explains

our students' little sense of discrimination as to a dictionary's worth. Our students' lack of awareness on such matters stands in sharp contrast with the frequent use they make of dictionaries and with their high reliance on reference works to perform their academic tasks.

To address this cognitive gap, the course at this level focuses on (a) the process of dictionary-making with all the different steps it consists of; (b) the items of information forming the treatment units subsumed under the different types of lemmata; (c) the lexicographic definition in relation to other types of definition, i.e. logical definitions, terminographic definitions, encyclopedic definitions; (d) the assessment of dictionaries. The students are afforded the opportunity to put lexicographic theory into practice by means of the Lexica metadictionary that we employ as a test field and pilot dictionary.

Last but not least, I teach two courses in English Language Morphosyntax. It is worth noting, in this connection, that this course provides useful factual data which often reify the theoretical concepts taught in linguistics, much in the same way as the concepts, principles and laws taught in theoretical linguistics provide students with a better grasp of particular aspects related to the English language system.

In these courses, language description is carried out in a top-down manner, starting from the phrase level (i.e. Verb Phrases, Noun Phrases, Adjective Phrases, Adverb Phrases, Prepositional Phrases) to discrete aspects of morphosyntactic behaviour.

I have written and published lecture notes on all of the lexical categories dealt with, in varying detail, in the two courses. A more developed incarnation of these lecture notes forms my contribution to the joint volume *Elements of Morpho-Syntax* (2001, authors: G. Chefneux and M. Burada, Pitești: Editura Paralela 45, ISBN 973-593-317-9) that my colleague, Dr. Gabriela Chefneux, and I were commissioned to write. Originally intended for distance, in-service teachers of English, this book takes a descriptive approach to the matter, with occasional use of diachronic language facts and comparative Romanian language data. The book has been reviewed in *Observator Cultural*, on 12 June 2001 (http://www.observatorcultural.ro/articol/lingvistica-gabriela-chefneux-marinela-burada-elements-of-morpho-syntax/).

4.2 EDITORIAL WORK

The Conference on British and American Studies has taken place annually, since 2003 (www.unitbv.ro/anglistica). I have been on the organizing committee of each edition of this professional forum aimed at academics in and outside Romania.

I have also been the sole editor of the conference volume for nine years running, between 2003-2011 (publication venue: Transilvania University Press), co-editor with Dr. Oana Tatu in 2012 (Cambridge Scholars Publishing) and co-editor with Dr. Oana Tatu and Dr. Raluca Sinu in 2013, 2014 (Cambridge Scholars Publishing) and 2015 (work in progress).

The 2012 and 2013 conference volumes have been indexed in the Thomson Reuters databases.

4.3 OTHER RESEARCH AND EDUCATION-RELATED ACTIVITIES, AND SERVICE TO THE PROFESSION

The following is a list of other activities that I have performed in the academia starting with the year 2001 onwards:

- Coordinator of the English-language master's programme LANGUAGE STUDIES FOR INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION since its launch, in 2004.
- Coordinator of a specialised translation workshop for students, in 2001.
- Co-organizer and judge of an International Essay Contest with the English Language Department of the Otaru University of Commerce, Japan.
- Member of the Peer Review Committee for:
  - *Language and Literature – European Landmarks of Identity*, a journal published by the University of Pitești (2011, 2012).
  - Bulletin of Transilvania University of Brașov (2011, 2013)
- Member in several recruitment panels at my home university.
- Chair or member in different competitive promotion committees at my home university and at other universities.

- External examiner and member on three Ph.D. examination boards.
- Member of the graduation committee every year.
- Member of the Curricular Council at my home university (2011-2015).
- Member of the Romanian Association of Semiotic Studies (AROSS) since 2008.
- Member of the Scientific Committee of the 14th International Conference "Language, Literature and Cultural Policies – Mapping and Remapping Identities: Dilemmas and Choices", Craiova, October 2015.
- Invited speaker in the English Lecture Series at Otaru University of Commerce (http://oucenglishlectureseries.com/previous-lectures/full-list/).
- Evaluator for The Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ARACIS) since 2010.
    - Team member in two national POSDRU projects, as follows: POSDRU/155/1.2/S/141894 – a policy-making project entitled *Dezvoltarea şi consolidarea culturii calităţii la nivelul sistemului de învăţământ superior românesc – QUALITAS* where I was co-opted as short-term and long-term expert.
    - POSDRU/86/1.2/S/5936 – *Asigurarea calităţii în învăţământul masteral internaţionalizat: dezvoltarea cadrului naţional în vederea compatibilizării cu Spaţiul European al Învăţământului Superior – ASIGMA*, long-term expert.
    - POSDRU/57/1.3/S/32629 – *Formarea Profesională a Cadrelor Didactice din Învăţământul Preuniversitar pentru noi Oportunităţi de Dezvoltare în Carieră;* short-term expert.

4.4 ACADEMIC GOVERNANCE POSITIONS

I have held the position of Vice-Dean at the Faculty of Letters for two and a half terms of office between 2001 and 2011, and I have been Head of the Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics for one term, between 2011-2015.

B-ii PLANS FOR FURTHER CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Writing up this thesis has allowed me to take stock of what I have achieved professionally in the past fifteen years. At the same time, it has afforded me a better perspective of what is yet to be accomplished in terms of research, teaching, as well as in other work-related aspects.

Whilst I will always keep an open mind to the possibility of embarking upon research in new areas of investigation, at this time I am prepared to commit myself to exploring mainly along the three main lines outlined above (unit **B-i,** *q.v.*). Given the breadth of their scope and the multiplicity of angles from which the topics subsumed under them can be described and analysed, they should fill my research agenda for the following years.

Therefore, in what follows, I will outline some of the work already in progress at this time, as well as the projects and avenues of research that I intend to start pursuing in the near and the forseeable future.

1. LINGUISTICS: FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In this line of research, I am in the process of developing a book project whose expected outcome is a a collection of studies on a number of topics which extend the purview of the course in general linguistics that I currently teach. One of the topics, for instance, relates to an important aspect of contact-induced language change: borrowing and integration of foreign lexical material into the speakers' native vocabulary. In this connection, I am planning to collect more data from the Romanian context, as I am particularly interested in the fates and fortunes of English language items that are nowadays finding their way in the vocabulary of Romanian: how much and in what respects have they changed as a result of their adoption in Romanian? In the case of adaptation, are there any discernible patterns in their formal or semantic change? Are there any preferred conjugation classes that verbs borrowed from English are by default included in? In the case of nouns, are there any identifiable gender assignation principles, given the fact that, unlike English, Romanian possesses grammatical gender? In what ways and to what extent do the English loanwords in Romanian validate the relevant theoretical principles?

Subjective borrowing should be especially interesting to investigate. In this connection, I am interested in the status of the English loans in relation to their indigenous equivalents, such as *tip – bacșis – ciubuc*; *fashion – modă*; *staff – personal*, *make-up – machiaj*, *make-up artist – machior*, etc. As far as they are concerned, my working assumption is that some English loans have in Romanian the higher status held by quite a number of French words in English, e.g. *job – métier; artist – artiste*; *cook – chef, relation – rapport*, *understanding – rapprochement*, etc. Obviously, this assumption will have to be validated by extensive research of Romanian language corpora.

In the same vein, I intend to explore English-based semantic calques in order to prove or, as the case may be, disprove the following working hypotheses: (1) the semantic change of indigenous words is particularly conspicuous in cognate forms in the two languages, e.g. *formal, gradual, patetic, exponențial, intruziv, abstract, expertiză*; (2) in such cases, the newly attached sense tends to be less specialized, or tends to belong to a different language register than the indigenous sense; (3) as the newly added sense gains currency, the indigenous meaning tends to undergo semantic narrowing, its meaning becoming more specialized. If such be the case, the original, Romanian sense will very likely occur with less frequency in the speech of Romanian language users, which may, in turn, lead to its removal from the vernacular.

The empirical data that I have collected so far indicate that, with some speakers belonging to the younger generation, the English sense of the Romanian word is the only one that they are aware of. This, of course, calls for more ethnographic study before being able to formulate conclusions and generalizations on these aspects.

I am now in the process of completing a preliminary analysis of the translation and integration into the Romanian-language vocabulary of computer-related terminology. This investigation has been prompted by the existing parallel translations for this domain ranging between the more "official" ones (e.g. the language packs used for the interface of computer operating systems) to informal renderings of specialist terminology, as a result of crowdsourcing. Accuracy issues aside, one interesting point of difference between these parallel sets is their degree of integration into the target language. As apparent from my data, translators employ quite different strategies in their attempt to democratize computer technology.

At the interface between history and linguistics, another direction which merits further investigation relates to two points of symmetry that I have identified in the social and linguistic histories of the British and the Romanian language communities. In order explain what I mean, introducing a few historical facts may be useful.

Both Britannia and Dacia Felix have been Roman provinces, and this has brought them in contact with Latin for variable periods of time: to consider only the contact which took place strictly during the Roman rule in each case, these periods extend over nearly four and a half centuries and, respectively, a little over one and a half centuries. The two contact situations in question have impacted the Celtic and the Dacian vernaculars in diametrically different ways: from an insignificant amount of Latin loans retained in the Celtic substrate in the former situation (section 1.1 in Chapter 1, *q.v.*), to language shift, in the latter case. The explanations suggested in the specialist literature take into account, *inter alia*, the de-colonization periods which started in the former half of the Vth century in Britannia (under the reign of emperor Honorius), and the latter half of the IIIrd century in Dacia (under emperor Aurelianus).

The theories on and explanations of what might have befallen the native communities (i.e. the Romanized Britons and the Dacians) and, implicitly, their respective languages after the Roman withdrawal show striking similarities: one of them is the discontinuity theory, centred around the idea of a massive scale depopulation of settlements. This depopulation - it was posited – has been the result of physical annihilation, enslavement, and displacement of the surviving population, who would have fled their homesteads taking away the existing manuscripts. A similar scenario, of "terra deserta", has also been put forward for Malta, as far as I am aware.

This historical argument has been used, *mutatis mutandis*, to explain the negligible contribution of the substrata in each case. I intend to explore this population model recurrent in all of these contact situations in close connection with the idioms which later became substrate languages in each case. It would be interesting to compare the language data (e.g. toponyms, hydronyms, epigraphic evidence) that have been used in each case, in order to support or refute the discontinuation theory.

Another symmetry that I feel inclined to explore in some detail relates to the official language status that Latin held in the history of both English-speaking and Romanian communities, and

the sociolinguistic circumstances accounting for it. Apart from this, I will be focusing on Latinization of English (XVIIth century) and re-Latinization of Romanian (XIXth century) which took place in the wake of the Renaissance with significant differences in terms of the wider, extralinguistic purposes these trends served, the language levels they impacted, and their linguistic effects.

2. CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC, TEXT LINGUISTICS, AND ACADEMIC LITERACY

The experience gained so far in the area of academic literacy has shown that, in adult education, capitalizing on the learners' primary language knowledge and skills may assist, rather than stymie the development of rhetorical competence in English. As pointed out earlier (section 2.2, *q.v.*), scholarly communication in the Romanian context remains, to all intents and purposes, an uncharted territory. Apart from some rules of thumb, there are virtually no explicitly formulated models or sets of principles to describe or otherwise formalize the Romanian-language writing practices in effect within and across the various disciplinary communities.

This theoretical vacuum deprives many novice writers in my context of a useful reference point likely to promote the acquisition of the wider, international writing practices associated with their domain. I am planning to address this problem by collecting data about the writing ethos in different fields. Based on my experience as academic text writer in both Romanian and English, I intend to focus on those areas of literacy which display more obvious variations across the two languages and (disciplinary) cultures. My approach is predicated on the view that there is no better way to sensitize an adult learner to the rhetorical particularities of a text in a foreign language than in reference to an equivalent text composed in his/her first language.

This means that besides the issues considered so far, i.e. the use and purposes of citation and multiauthorship (in progress) in research article writing, I will broaden the scope of the investigation by including other aspects which constitute points of discrepancy in the two languages and cultures, such as the structure of abstracts, the use of metadiscourse, introductory units in research articles, the use of argument in professional writing.

Whilst in my professional context the immediate availability of both texts and authors is a clear advantage, I will have to make methodology-related decisions, starting with the more suitable

line of approach: emic or etic? On the one hand, the emic approach seems more adequate, in view of the lack of theoretical foundation to underpin descriptions of the Romanian context. On the other hand, an etic approach would allow me to use ready-made conceptual frames and categories and to tread ground already paved by research conducted in other cultural contexs. But such matters can, for the time being, remain undecided.

3. LEXICOGRAPHY AND METALEXICOGRAPHY

In the field of lexicography, I would like to keep contributing to expanding the use and functionality of LEXICA, the metadictionary created as part of the research project described above (section 3.1, *q.v.*). Currently, there are two versions of this dictionary: the first is the online reference work originally developed within the frame of the homonymous project (http://lexica.unitbv.ro/index.php?action=despre). The second, LEXICA 2 (or LEXICA-ADMIN) is the result of an outreach project. Its outcome is a reference work designed primarily for use by the administrative staff at my home university, and is available as an intranet glossary of Romanian-English administrative terms (http://lexica.unitbv.ro/l2/despre.php). Both variants of LEXICA have come into being as a result of combined, interdisciplinary efforts, while also constituting useful practice opportunities for the students involved in various stages of the compilation process.

In this connection, I intend to stay on the team that will develop and implement LEXICA 3, a bilingual dictionary of lexicographic terminology. I believe that a dictionary of this kind would be an extremely useful addition to the emergent metalexicographic literature in our cultural context, for at least two good reasons: firstly, because no equivalent resource has heretofore been produced nationally within a discipline whose chief object is the study and the production of dictionaries; secondly, given that the lexicographic terminology in Romanian is predominantly Francophone, an English-Romanian dictionary of lexicography would be instrumental (literally) in facilitating the access of Romanian specialists and neophytes alike to the staggering amount of Anglophone metalexicographic literature available internationally.

Following a joint contribution at the 11th Conference on British and American Studies (i.e. *Riding The Waves Of Change in Dictionary-Making: The Dictionary of the Romanian Language*

Project), I am in the process of conducting a comparative/contrastive analysis of the lexicographic explanation in the two parts of the Dictionary of the Romanian Language (Dicționarul Limbii Române 2010). The microstructure of this dictionary displays clear variations not only in the philosophy and principles behind dictionary compilation, but also in terms of more discrete lexicographic aspects, among which the definitional types that lexicographers have resorted to in their description of meaning.

In a related vein, I intend to perform a larger-scale critical analysis of lexicographic explanations (including definitions) forming the microstructures of well-established Romanian, French, and English monolingual general dictionaries, in order to assess their respective merits or, as the case may be, shortcomings. In particular, I intend to focus on definitional schemata and the connection between definition, classification and the structuring of information.

I intend to redouble my efforts towards empowering this discipline by making it more visible and by strengthening the links between all stakeholders involved: practitioners, teachers, and students. To this end, I am going to invite papers for and act as editor of a collective volume on Romanian lexicography that I intend to submit for publication with an international publishing house. Further, I will pick up on a failed attempt, in 2009, to organise a workshop in lexicography, when prospective funding for national bids in the category "exploratory workshops" was stopped abruptly. To avert this kind of obstacle in the future, alternative sources of financing will have to be secured.

4. TEACHING AND BEYOND

As in previous years, I intend to update the courses that I teach on different subjects and at different levels of instruction. As already argued in the foregoing discussion, in our profession teaching and research are in a symbiotic relation. I will continue to enhance my students' learning experience and maximize, to the best of my abilities, its cognitive impact in various ways: conceptually, by supporting my taught courses with information and evidence resulting both from of my own research, as well as from the research conducted by leading authorities in the field; methodologically, by adapting my approach to the changing student profiles and by finding alternative ways to increase their motivation and develop their metacognitive skills;

interpersonally, by earning the learners' trust and by creating an environment based on respect and tolerance of others, where the constructive exchange of ideas and well-argued debates are the norm.

Having taught and researched in different, disciplinary and interdisciplinary fields has strengthened me in my belief that knowledge should not be regarded as a fully compartmentalized entity, but rather as a unified whole with an eclectic structure, where apparently disconnected data come together, complement each other, and sometimes merge. In light of this, I will go on trying to raise my students' awareness of how knowledge and skills gained in one area can be harnessed for effective use in another.

Last but not least, in keeping with the proverb "If you want to go fast, go alone, but if you want to go *far*, go together", I will try to accomplish the goals outlined above by teaming up with like-minded colleagues and students, teach them to the best of my abilities, and learn from them, in the meantime.

B-iii SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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