

***Aerial comparative linguistics*** classifies languages into language areas, sets of languages that influence each other during periods of intensive language contact. It involves geographic criteria, and covers those languages that are close by and have developed similar characteristics in terms of structure. Under the influence of intensive mutual influences, these kinds of languages are creating language unions such as the Balkan Language Union, encompassing Macedonian, Bulgarian, Serbian, and Albanian, for example.

***Applied contrastive linguistics*** (ACL) is a separate branch of applied linguistics which is often referred to as Contrastive Analysis. It depends on the findings of the TCL in providing a framework for the comparison of languages. Applied contrastivists select the important information for the purpose of teaching languages and translation. ACL attempts to identify the potential problematic areas in the target language and it is not restricted to differences but also points out similarities to save learners’ efforts of identifying them.

***Bilingualism*** is the ability to speak two languages with native-like competence. In every individual case one language will be dominant. A person who speaks more than two languages is called *multilingual* (although the term *bilingualism* can be used for both situations) (see ***Plurilingualism*)**.

***Comparative Linguistics*** studies languages to establish connections between them. Connections may be genetic, meaning the languages have a common ancestral language and belong to the same language family, or may result from cultural contact between unrelated languages. Shared cognates may result from either source. To discern connections, comparative linguists compare languagesʼ phonological and morphological systems, syntax, and vocabularies, increasingly relying on computers to detect symmetries. One tool of comparative linguists is evolutionary phonology, which posits that language changes in predictable ways, allowing parent or „proto-languages” to be reconstructed through reverse engineering. A famous early success of comparative linguistics was proving that Indian Sanskrit is part of the same Indo-European language family as most contemporary European languages, showing a common origin.

***Comparative concepts*** are concepts created by comparative linguists for the purpose of formulating readily testable cross-linguistic generalizations. They are used to describe specific aspects of linguistic systems, e.g. *subject, case, (past/present/future) tense*, etc. For instance, a *subject* in German does not have precisely the (system-internal) properties of a *subject* in English. Still, *subject* can be used as a comparative concept, in the sense of „grammaticalized neutralization over specific types of semantic roles” [Haspelmath 2008]

***Comparison*** is the identification of similarities and differences between two or more categories along a specific (set of) dimension(s). The categories compared must be of the same type, i.e. there has to be a set of properties that they have in common, or a superordinate category containing them. One major challenge for comparative linguistics thus is to determine the nature of that superordinate category for any pair of categories under comparison.

***Contrastive analysis*** is traditionally defined as a method which helps the analyst to ascertain in which aspects the two languages are alike and in which they differ. It includes two main processes – description and comparison, set up in four basic steps: a) assembling the data, b) formulating the description, c) supplementing the data as required, d) formulating the contrasts.

The term is also used to denone a general approach to the investigation of language (***contrastive linguistics***), particularly as carried on in certain areas of applied linguistics, such as foreign-language teaching and translation. In a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of structural difference are identified, and these are then studied as areas of potential difficulty (interference or ‘negative transfer’) in foreign-language learning. The claim that these differences are the source of difficulty in foreign-language learning, and thus govern the progress of the learner, is known as the ***contrastive analysis hypothesis***.

***Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*** is advocated by Lado (1945) and Weinreich (1953) who support the view that those items that are similar to the learner‘s native language will be easy for him, and those items that are different will be difficult. In other words, the greater the difference between the two systems of the mother tongue and foreign languages, the greater is the learning problem and the potential area of interference.

***Contrastive Linguistics*** is a particular linguistic enterprise within the field of descriptive synchronic comparative linguistics aimed at producing description of one language from the perspective of another and concerned with in depth analysis of similarities and contrasts that hold between them.

***Contrastive Lexicology*** is the comparative study of the lexical systems of two or more languages. Its essential task is to examine how human experience is reflected in the lexical units of languages compared. The linguist will do this by examining whether and to what extent the words of one language can be said to be „translational equivalents” or „interlingual synonyms”. For an item of one language to be fully equivalent to an item of another language (to be an interlingual synonym), both must have identical communicative value in comparable linguistic contexts and in comparable situations, i.e. they must convey the same conceptual content, have the same connotations, belong to the same language variety and enter into comparable connotations. The term „translational equivalence” is, however, often used in a weaker sense, i.e. the relation that holds between lexical units which are regularly used as translations of each other and are presented as such in bilingual dictionaries.

Contrastive lexicological analysis can be also conducted of the formal level (word-building) and the level of functioning (stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary).

***Contrastive Pragmatics*** is the type of study within pragmatics which deals with cross-cultural and cross-linguistic pragmatic differences and similarities. Despite the pragmatic principles that exist across languages, the ways people abide by in one language to realize communicative functions are often different in another. Contrastive pragmatics, however, is not confined to study certain pragmatic principles. Cultural break-downs and pragmatic failure, among other things, are also components of cross-cultural pragmatics.

***Contrastive study of concepts*** is the technique that should provide the explication of cognitive procedures applied by the subject when interpreting culturally meaningful reference of lingual signs which is obtained from all means of denotative-connotative presentation of cultural senses.

***Culture*** is the term most commonly used to designate the sum total of knowledge, attitudes and values which inform a society or characterize an individual. In this sense, culture is the product of human achievements and is directly related to the human power of transformation. The arts belong to culture, as do thought products in general or, for that matter, culture is anything produced by human beings.

***Equivalence*** in contrastive linguistics is understood as the content adequacy of the two lingual units of different levels with possible deviations in terms of structure. Types: 1) referential equivalence (when compared languages have signs for representation of the same referent); 2) conceptual equivalence (as soon as the cases of notion/concept coincidence are few, this type of equivalence is quite limited); contextual equivalence; situational equivalence.

***Error analysis*** is the study of kind and quantity of error that occurs, particularly in the fields of applied linguistics. These errors can be divided into three sub-categories: overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, and the hypothesizing of false concepts, reflected a learner's competence at a certain stage and thereby differed from learner to learner.

***Feature*** is defined as any property of the object that can be deduced from the general knowledge of the world. Two entities are similar if they share at least one feature and two entities are the same if neither has features that the other lacks.

***Genetic Comparative Linguistics*** is aimed at the discovering of common proto-languages and classifying existing languages into language families. The latter is defined as the set of languages for which it can be proved that they developed from a single ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. Language family is the basic unit of genetic classification. The notion of proof of genetic relatedness is crucial here, because all human languages might or might not be ultimately derived from a single proto-language.

***Glottochronology***is the part of [lexicostatistics](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lexicostatistics) dealing with the chronological relationship between languages.The idea has been developed by [Morris Swadesh](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morris_Swadesh) under two assumptions: first that there exists a relatively stable „basic vocabulary” (therefore called „[Swadesh lists](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Swadesh_list)”) in all languages of the world, and secondly that any replacements happen in a way analogical to that in [radioactive decay](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radioactive_decay) in constant percentages per time elapsed.

***Grammar contrastive analysis.*** In a grammatical contrastive analysis, the contrastive analyst compares and contrasts between the grammatical systems of two languages. The comparison may take different forms, for example, in English word order is used to differentiate between an affirmative sentence and an interrogative one: *You are a teacher/are you a teacher*? In Spanish, however, the same distinction is indicated via the use of intonation; while in Arabic, the same distinction is expressed through the addition of functional words at the beginning of sentences. Another kind of grammatical contrastive analysis may investigate how a given linguistic category functions in two different languages, such as the case of adjectives in English and French. In English, adjectives tend to be pronominal, however, in French; they tend to be post nominal, for example: *The narrow door – La porte etroite*.

***Historical Comparative Linguistics*** is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages in order to establish their historical relatedness. The reconstructions involve all aspects of the language system: phonology, morphophonemics, morphology, lexicon, and syntax. Language change affects all levels of language structure, and it eventually leads to language split, or creation of languages- descendants from common proto-languages. Historical-comparative linguistics uses the comparative-historical method, which consists of four basic research techniques: external reconstruction, internal reconstruction, analysis of borrowed words, and analysis of toponymic data.

***Interference*** refers to any influence from the L1 which would have an effect on the acquisition of L2. U.Weinreich (1953) defines it as those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact.Interferenceis used in sociolinguistics and foreign-language learning to refer to the errors a speaker introduces into one language as a result of contact with another language; also called *negative transfer*. The most common source of error is in the process of learning a foreign language, where the native tongue interferes; but interference may occur in other contact situations (as in ***bilingualism***).

***Interpretation*** is a part of the analysis and production phase in the intelligence process in which the significance of information is judged in relation to the current body of knowledge. It involves the operations of recognition and identification. 'Re'-cognition or 're'-discovery (in this sense contrary to acquiring knowledge) is an act of comparing a proposition with what is already known. Recognition as comparison, furthermore, necessarily comprises identifying, in any particular utterance, all or parts of a truth one already possesses. Interpreting any statement means weighing what one already knows to be true against what is being proposed and deciding in the light of this on its meaning and accuracy.

***Language area*** is the set of languages for which it can be shown that they developed a number of features as a consequence of mutual contacts.

***Language family*** is the set of languages for which it can be proved that they developed from a single ancestor called the proto-language of that family.

***Theory of Language contact*** is the systemic comparison of language contact situations which aims to identify constraints on the quality and quantity of mutual influence between languages. This theory is typically interested in providing explanations and motivations why some paths of contact-induced change are common while others are absent or rare, and which assumptions concerning the speakers – the eventual locus of language contact – are necessary in order to explain the phenomena observed. Since the publication of Uriel Weinreich’s *Languages in Contact* (1953) the study of language contact has been extensive. Empirical data have been collected from many languages and language-contact situations around the world but no one has as yet formulated a theory that can be said to account for all – or most of – the empirical data.

***Language type –*** the set of languages that share some typologically relevant set of features.

***Language universal*** is a postulated linguistic feature or property which is shared by all languages, or by all language and which is independent from historical transmission or language contact. Types: 1) absolute universals: shared by all natural languages 2) implicational universals: feature A and feature B exist in a language: 2.1) unilateral universals: if feature A exists, feature B exists but not vice versa; 2.2) bilateral/equivalent universals; 3) statistic/frequence universals: a feature exists with a probability higher than chance.

***Lexical Contrastive Analysis*** is carried out between the vocabulary system(s) of two or more languages. It is concerned with the way lexical items in one language are expressed in another language. This can be done through identifying both the semantic fields and the semantic properties in order to specify the divisions and sub-divisions of the lexicon. Lexical CA may result in complete, partial, or nil equivalence between languages.

***Linguistic characterology*** is the study of the variations in nature, character, and frequency in different languagesʼ uses of means of expression. The term was suggested by W. Mathesius in 1926 and according to him a characterologist deals only with the important and fundamental features of languages at a given point of time, analyses them on the basis of general linguistics, and tries to ascertain relations between them.

***Linguistic relativism*** stipulates that the structure of the language directly reflects the structure of the universe and of the human mind, being considered the very moulder of the latter. This theory was first formulated by Wilhelm von Humboldt.

***Model***is a formal representation of the structural and functional characteristics of an object of study. Models are used in order to explain a theory, to simulate a process or to illustrate the functioning of an object of study.

***Metalanguage*** is a language that is unique to a particular branch of knowledge. It is composed of the specialized concepts or terminology needed to define the discipline. Medicine, for example, has its own metalanguage, as does the science of law, literature, linguistics etc. The meanings of terms used in a metalanguage tend to be stable, i.e. independent (as far as possible) of any specific context.

***Plurilingualism*** is closely tied with the aim of developing European citizenship, with an educated European able to get by in several languages. Standing in what we could term „political” contrast to multilingualism, which denotes at least decent fluency in three or more languages, plurilingualism is satisfied by *in*complete linguistic competence in these. It makes emphasis on helping learners communicate with users of another language, however laboriously and incompletely. As such, it inextricably involves recognition of the role of the mother tongue (or another already mastered language):

***Pragmatics*** concerns the relation of signs to their interpreters. Since most, if not all, signs have as their interpreters living organisms, it is a sufficiently accurate characterization of pragmatics to say that it deals with the biotic aspects of semiosis, that is, with all the psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs (Morris 1938). Pragmatic theory was first originated as a philosophical theory (Morris, 1938; Wittgenstein, 1953; Austin, 1962; Strawson, 1964; and Searle, 1969). It can be seen, at least, in two fields: (1) a branch of semiotics – the study of signs and symbols, where it is concerned with the relationship between signs or linguistic expressions and those who use them; (2) a branch of linguistics which deals with the contexts in which people use language and behaviour of speakers and listeners.

***Research design*** is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problems to the pertinent (and achievable) empirical research. The research design articulates what data is required, what methods are going to be used to collect and analyse this data, and how all of this is going to answer your research question.

***Sapir – Whorf hypothesis*** is a hypothesis holding that the structure of a language affects the perceptions of reality of its speakers and thus influences their thought patterns and worldviews. The structures are different from one language to another/ The hypothesis is named after the American anthropological linguist Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and his student Benjamin Whorf (1897-1941).

***Semiotics*** is the theory of signification, that is, of the generation or production of meaning. In contrast to semiology, which studies sign systems and their organization (e.g. traffic codes, sign language), semiotics concerns itself with how meaning is produced. In other words, what interests the semiotician is what makes an utterance meaningful, how it signifies and what precedes it on a deeper level to result in the manifestation of meaning. Semiotic theory is based on the belief that meaning is not inherent in objects, that they do not signify by themselves, but that meaning is *constructed* by a competent observer – a subject – capable of giving „form” to objects.

***„Sign theory”*** was a method of comparing grammatical phenomena in two languages, initially Latin and English, whereby equivalence was established between different grammatical signals on the grounds that they express identical notions.

***Similarity-as-trigger*** is defined as the notion of a particular relation existing between entities in the world, a relation that impinges upon human perception, from matter to mind.

***Similarity-as-attribution*** – goes in the opposite direction, from mind to matter. It is essentially a subjective, probabilistic, cognitive process that perceives two entities as being similar.

***Tertium comparationis*** is a background of sameness, and the sine qua non for any justifiable, systematic study of contrasts. All comparisons involve the basic assumption that the objects to be compared share something in common, against which differences can be stated. This common platform of reference is called tertium comparationis. Depending on the platform of reference (or tertium comparationis), which we adopt, the same objects turn out to be either similar or different.

***Theory*** is a system of hypotheses for describing and/or explaining a certain area of objects. Each theory must satisfy certain requirements, such as consistency, completeness, adequacy, simplicity. It must be falsifiable in principle.

***Theoretical contrastive studies*** give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provide an adequate model for the comparison, and determine how and which elements are comparable. They are language independent, which means that they do not investigate how a particular category or item present in language A is presented in language B, but they look for the realization of an universal category X in both A and B. The adequacy of the comparison as well as its exhaustiveness will be determined by the adequacy of the theoretical model underlying the analysis.

***Transfer*** is defined as the carry over of prior linguistic knowledge to a L2 context. It refers to the psychological process whereby prior learning is carried over into a new learning situation. The main claim with regard to transfer is that one can explain the reason of committing L2 errors by the previous experiences that the learner gets from his mother tongue and tries to impose into the second language learning. This view, to a great extent, supports the assumption that language is some sort of habit-structure as behaviourists regard it. The transfer is either positive or negative: i) *positive transfer* (facilitation): features of the Ll and the L2 match, and acquisition of the L2 is facilitated; ii) negative transfer (interference): acquisition hindered where features of Ll and L2 differ. Positive transfer takes place when L1 habits facilitate L2 learning, while negative transfer occurs when L1 linguistic characteristics interfere with L2 learning. Pragmatic and discourse transfer refers to the learners’ carrying over their L1 sociocultural and linguistic norms of politeness and/or appropriateness into their L2 performance of communicative acts.

***Typological linguistics*** is concerned with assessing the structural features according to which languages may differ. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an [isolating language](http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/296308/isolating-language) is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and Vietnamese are highly isolating. An [agglutinating](http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/9059/agglutination) language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An [inflecting](http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/287731/inflection) language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix -is represents the combination of categories „singular” and „genitive” in the word form hominis „of the man,” but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to „singular” and another to „genitive,” and -is is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of „singular” and „genitive”.