

## LANGUAGE AND LOGIC

**73-79** **Sampson, Geoffrey.** Natural language and the paradox of the liar. *Semiotica* (The Hague), 5, 4 (1972), 305-23.

The possibility of being able to utter a sentence such as *What I am now saying is false* in English suggests that natural language is an inconsistent (logistic) system. Axioms and rules of inference which must hold for a logistic system are considered.

Recent developments in 'generative semantics' are relevant to the study of natural languages as logistic systems, for if the hypothesis of generative semantics is right, a method becomes available for determining (independent of introspection) a set of well-formed formulae corresponding to a set of sentences of natural language, with associated rules of inference. [Various views on the consistency or inconsistency of natural language as a logistic system are discussed.]

The referring function of NP's is considered and a distinction is drawn between artificial English (as used for logic) and natural English, although no test can be offered for determining to which of these uses a sentence is being put. A contrast must be drawn between the types of reference which an NP may have. Reference within works of fiction must be different from the usual concept of reference. Referring NP's are divided into 'identifying' (including proper names, pronouns, and nouns preceded by definite article, demonstrative or possessive) and 'establishing'. Sentences containing identifying NP's and failing to refer (in the way that *the present King of France* would fail) for a hearer can be said to fail to make a statement when uttered to such a hearer. Sentences such as *What I am now saying is false*, like *The present King of France is bald*, fail to create referents, and they contain no entities which can have truth-values. Whatever possibilities of inconsistency may occur in natural language, the paradox of the liar is not one of them. [Bibliography.]

(420) ADL

## LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

73-80 **Houston, Susan H.** Contingency grammar: introduction to a general theory of competence and performance. *Papers in Linguistics* (Champaign, Ill), 5, 1 (1972), 10-27.

The acceptance of the competence/performance distinction made by Chomsky leads to problems in classifying two types of linguistic data. The first is that interpersonal variation (geographical, social and educational) and intrapersonal variation (style and register) must be assigned either to performance or to competence. A competence model which includes this variation is no longer of general validity, being limited to the shared knowledge of a group or to the knowledge of a particular speaker. The second type of linguistic data whose classification becomes problematical consists of nonfluencies (filled and silent pauses and anacolutha, for instance). If random and assigned to performance, the latter must be seen to accommodate widely divergent features: if at all rule-governed, nonfluencies must be included in competence, no matter how wrong this may feel.

[Account of register variation in Black English of children at school and argument that the variant forms of language are generated by speaker's linguistic competence.] The development of a grammar to account for alternation among language types led to contingency grammar. [Explanation and diagram of grammatical model. Example of rules for the first level of systematic performance; example of generation of the sentence, *The lion he was UH he was trai - he was tame.*]

For a second-language learner the rules leading from the levels of systematic performance to actualized performance are more difficult to acquire than those leading to systematic performance from competence or the acquisition of competence itself. It is possible with a contingency grammar to account for the relative difficulty of learning the same second language for speakers of different language backgrounds. It can also be shown why learning a second language is easier than learning a second dialect.

**ADN AVD**

**73–81 Klinkenberg, Jean-Marie.** *Le linguistique et le sémiologie.* [The linguist and the semiologist.] *Français Moderne* (Paris), **40**, 3 (1972), 193–9.

Saussure conceived of linguistics as a branch of semiology, but progress in linguistic science and the application of its methods to other disciplines has resulted in the subordination of semiology to linguistics. The whole field includes the sum of language-objects built up in code, and metalanguage (all other sign systems). Semiology is not an object but a method, translinguistic in that it works through language and is not reducible to it. This shift of emphasis may have prematurely curtailed the study of code in isolation, but the relationship between sign and referent, hearer and context, code and utterance, means a constant exchange between linguistics and semiology, pointing to fresh priorities, among these the study of *énonciation*, and of lengthy utterances.

The act of uttering (*énonciation*) must be clearly distinguished from its product (*énoncé*) but the points of contact are important. This is of special interest in literary semiotics, throwing light on the relationship between the poet, the creator, his work, and the receiver. It also contributes to the study of narrative structures. More research is needed on *énonciation*, which helps towards an understanding of the conditions in which signification is produced. The study of narrative profits most notably from research in semiotics but it is also linked to the study of *énonciation*. Theoretical and methodological problems are raised and there is some risk of falling into outmoded Crocean speculations; idealism and positivism might hinder the development of semiology. [Other articles in this issue elaborate some of the points mentioned here.]

**ADN AXD**

LINGUISTIC SOCIOLOGY

- 73-82 **Hälsig, Margot.** Das Verhältnis von Sprache und Gesellschaft im Lichte soziolinguistischer Untersuchungen. [The relationship of language and society in the light of sociolinguistic investigations.] *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), 25, 3 (1972), 207-24.

Language is a social phenomenon exemplified in an individual, but effective only in society. Society influences languages by requiring changes to meet needs, thus improving communication; as the means of communication, language influences social development and national consciousness. The inner structure of language and its social functions are always interrelated; the Marxist-Leninist school supports this view and cannot therefore accept Saussure's contention that extralinguistics have no influence on intralinguistics. The extension of the social functions of a language will affect its functional development and, therefore, ultimately its structure. Language as a medium of communication and information has, in developed countries, various aspects: popular speech, the oral form of literary language, the language of social life, the language of science and technology, culture, art and literature. In multinational states it has its special value as a means of internal communication and here sociolinguistics can play a part in bilingualism.

Bright's assertion that sociolinguistics is concerned with linguistic diversity represents only part of the picture; it is concerned with the social variants of language and will show that linguistic and social groupings do not necessarily coincide. It should also investigate the social relationships, processes and formations arising from the interplay of language and society. It is a part of the discipline of linguistics and should, therefore, be carried on by linguists, collaborating with historians, ethnologists and economists.

Sociolinguistics contributes to the understanding of society by investigating: (1) the general laws of the development of language as a social phenomenon; (2) the special laws of communication relationships; (3) the inherent principles of language development in society's

subsystems, thus revealing the nature of communication; (4) the inherent principles of communication behaviour in various structural units of society.

Examples of the application of dialectical materialism to socio-linguistics do exist but a system has not yet been elaborated. It will have to include empirical investigation into both the qualitative and quantitative problems, and will involve statistical methods. Oral questioning is likely to be of value, especially in bilingual areas, leading to improved communication. [Bibliography.] **AFK**

## LEXICOGRAPHY

**73-83 Felber, H.** Internationale terminologische Tätigkeiten im Österreichischen Normungsinstitut. [International terminological activities at the Austrian Standards Institute.] *Sprachmittler* (Mannheim), **10**, 1/2 (1972), 33-9.

Since 1952 the Austrian Standards Institute has housed the International Standardization Organization's Technical Committee 37 on 'Terminology (Principles and Coordination)' which has forty-three member countries. Seven recommendations embodying terminological and lexicographical principles have been published. These have led to an *International Dictionary of Machine Tools* and the *International Technical Vocabulary* of the ISO. The *International Electrotechnical Vocabulary* is in preparation. The German Standards Organization is to arrange seminars on the principles while ISO/TC 37 coordinates all work on terminology. A world-wide network for information exchange needs bibliographies of standard vocabularies and systematic definition dictionaries and these are appearing under UNESCO. Guidelines for multilingual thesauri are still needed. A clearing house for terminological work which was proposed in 1964 may soon be set up in Austria and eventually a databank.

**ALG ANG (943.6)**

## MACHINE TRANSLATION

**73-84 Sinaiko, H. Wallace and George R. Klare.** Further experiments in language translation: readability of computer translations. *ITL* (Louvain), **15** (1972), 1-29.

An experimental study is described of the readability of technical material translated from Vietnamese into English by three methods: expert translators, unedited translation by computer and edited computer translation. (English was used as a control.) The translation of technical material is specially vulnerable to error, and good technical translators are expensive and in short supply: their productivity is only about 3,000 words a day, whether from Russian into English, English into Vietnamese or French into English. Translators of technical terms into Vietnamese have to coin words, invent compounds or transliterate from English. [Examples.]

Recently the American Air Force sponsored a machine translation system called LOGOS I for English into Vietnamese. One of the documents put through it, *Instrument Flying*, became the corpus for the present study. [Larger issues, including comparative costs of the various methods, briefly discussed.] Three passages of 500 words each, ranging from high school to graduate level, were submitted to a group of American student pilots, and a group of Vietnamese student pilots. [Test procedure described.] Readability was measured by reading comprehension tests, cloze procedure and clarity ratings, and the tests were timed. The results show that expert human translation produces more readable, though longer, versions of technical material than is done by computer, and that Vietnamese students, trained in English, performed well in second-language reading and comprehension. Comprehension loss becomes relatively greater for computer-based translations than for human translations as more and more difficult material is read. The method of translation does not affect reading speed. [Detailed analysis of results, tables and graphs, bibliography.]

(420) ANG ARK 495.92