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Article

Is Short-Term Memory Made of Two Processing Units? Clues from Italian and English Literatures Down Several Centuries

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Abstract: We propose that the short-term memory (STM), when processing a sentence, uses two uncorrelated processing units in series. The clues for conjecturing this model emerge from studying many novels of the Italian and English Literatures. This simple model, referring to the surface of language, seems to describe mathematically the input-output characteristics of a complex mental process involved in a reading/writing a sentence. We show that there are no significant mathematical/statistical differences between the two literary corpora by considering deep-language variables and linguistic communication channels, therefore, the surface mathematical structure of alphabetical languages is very deeply rooted in human mind, independently of the language used. The first processing unit is linked to the number of words between two contiguous interpunctuations, variable I_p , approximately ranging in Miller's 7 ± 2 range; the second unit is linked to the number of I_p 's contained in a sentence, variable M_F , ranging approximately from 1 to 6. The overall capacity required to process fully of a sentence ranges from 8.3 to 61.23 words, values that can be converted into time by assuming a reading speed, giving the range 2.64~19.54 seconds for fast-reading and 5.3~30.1 seconds for average reader. Since a sentence conveys meaning, the surface features we have found might be the starting point to arrive at an Information Theory that includes meaning.

Keywords: alphabetical texts; human communication; human mind; information; linguistic communication channels; miller's law; processing; sentence modeling; short-term memory; universal readability index

1. Short-term memory capacity can be estimated from literary texts

The aim of this paper is to propose that the short-term memory (STM) – which refers to the ability to remember a small number of items for a short period of time - is likely made by two consecutive (in series) and uncorrelated processing units with similar capacity. The clues for conjecturing this model emerge from studying many novels of the Italian and English Literatures. Although simple, because only the surface structure of texts is considered, the model seems to describe mathematically the input-output characteristics of a complex mental process, largely unknown.

To model a two-unit STM processing, we further develop our previous studies based on a parameter called the “word interval”, indicated by I_p , given by the number of words between any two contiguous interpunctuations [1–8]. The term “interval” arises by noting that I_p does measure an “interval” - expressed in words - which can be transformed into time through a reading speed [9], as shown in [1].

The parameter I_p varies in the same range of the STM capacity, given by Miller's 7 ± 2 law [10], a range that includes 95% of cases. As discussed in [1], the two ranges are deeply related because interpunctuations organize small portions of more complex arguments (which make a sentence) in short chunks of text, which represent the natural STM input (see [11–31], a sample of the many papers appeared in the literature, and also the discussion in Ref. [1]). It is interesting to recall that I_p , drawn

against the number of words per sentence, P_F , approaches a horizontal asymptote as P_F increases [1–3]. The writer, therefore, maybe unconsciously, introduces interpunctuations as sentences get longer because he/she acts also as a reader, therefore limiting I_p approximately in Miller's range.

The presence of interpunctuations in a sentence and its length in words are, very likely, the tangible consequence of two consecutive processing units necessary to deliver the meaning of the sentence, the first of which we have already studied with regard to I_p and the linguistic I-channel [1–8].

A two-unit STM processing can be justified, at least empirically, according to how a human mind is thought to memorize “chunks” of information in the STM. When we start reading a sentence, the mind tries to predict its full meaning from what it has already read and only when an in-sentence interpunctuation is found (i.e., comma, colon, semicolon), it can partially understand the text, whose full meaning is finally revealed when a final interpunctuation (question mark, exclamation mark, full-stop) is found. This first processing therefore is revealed by I_p , the second processing is revealed by P_F and by the number of word intervals I_p 's contained in the sentence, the latter indicated by M_F [1–8].

The longer and more twisted a sentence is, the longer the ideas remain deferred until the mind can establish its meaning from all its words, with the result that the text is less readable. The readability can be measured by the universal readability index which includes the two-unit STM processing [6].

In synthesis, in the present paper we conjecture that in reading a full sentence humans engage a second STM capacity – quantitatively measured by M_F – which works in series with the first STM – quantitatively measured by I_p . We refer to the second STM capacity as the “extended” STM (E-STM) capacity. The modeling of the STM capacity with I_p has never been considered in the literature [11–31] before our paper in 2019 [1]. The number M_F , of I_p 's contained in a sentence studied previously in I-channels [4], is now associated with the E-STM.

The E-STM should not be confused with the intermediate memory [32,33], not to mention the long-term memory. It should be also clear that the E-STM is not modelled by studying neuronal activity, but from counting words and interpunctuations, whose effects hundreds of writers – both modern and classic – and millions of people have experienced through reading.

The stochastic variables I_p , P_F , M_F , and the number of characters per word, C_p , are loosely termed deep-language variables considered in this paper, following our general statistical theory on alphabetical languages and its linguistic channels, developed in a series of papers [1–8]. These parameters refer, of course, to the “surface” structure of texts, not to the “deep” structure mentioned in cognitive theory.

These variables allow to perform “experiments” with ancient or modern readers by studying the literary works read. These “experiments” have revealed unexpected similarity and dependence between texts, because the deep-language variables may be not consciously controlled by writers. Moreover, the linear linguistic channels present in texts can further assess, by a sort of “fine tuning”, how much two texts are mathematically similar.

In the present paper, we base our study on a large data base of texts (novels) belonging to the Italian Literature spanning seven centuries [1], and to the English Literature spanning four centuries [5]. In References [1,5], the reader can find the list of novels considered in the present paper with their full statistics on the linguistic variables recalled above.

We will show, in the following sections, that the two literary corpora can be merged to study the surface structure of texts, therefore, they make a reliable data set from which the size of the two STM capacities can be conjectured.

After this introduction, Section 2 recalls the deep-language parameters and show some interesting relationships between them, applied to the Italian and English Literatures; Section 3 recalls the nature of linguistic communication channels present in texts; Section 4 shows relationships with a universal readability index; Section 5 models the two STM processing units in series and Section 6 concludes and proposes future work.

2. Deep-language parameters and their relationships

Let us consider a literary work (e.g., a novel) and its subdivision in disjoint blocks of text long enough to give reliable average values, such as chapters, as we have done in References [1–8]. Let n_s be the

number of sentences contained in a text block, n_W the number of words contained in the n_S sentences, n_C the number of characters contained in the n_W words and n_I the number of punctuation marks (interpunctuations) contained in the n_S sentences. All other alphanumeric symbols have been deleted, thus leaving only words and interpunctuations. The four deep-language variables are defined as [1]:

$$C_P = \frac{n_C}{n_W} \quad (1)$$

$$P_F = \frac{n_W}{n_S} \quad (2)$$

$$I_P = \frac{n_I}{n_W} \quad (3)$$

$$M_F = \frac{n_{IP}}{n_S} \quad (4)$$

Notice that Equation (4) can be written also as:

$$M_F = \frac{P_F}{I_P} \quad (5)$$

As recalled above, M_F gives the number of word intervals I_P 's contained in a sentence.

The relationships between these linguistic variables show very interesting and fundamental features of texts, practically indistinguishable in the two literatures, as we show next.

2.1. Sentences versus words

Figure 1 shows the scatterplot of sentences per chapter, n_S , versus words per chapter, n_W , for the Italian Literature - blue circles, 1260 chapters - and the English Literature - red circles, 1114 chapters - for a total of 2374 samples. Table 1 reports slopes and correlation coefficients of the two regression lines drawn in Figure 1. There are no significant differences between the two literary corpora therefore underlining the fact that the mathematical surface structure of alphabetical languages - a creation of human mind - is very deeply rooted in humans, independently of the particular language used. This issue will be further discussed by considering the theory of linguistic channels in Section 3.

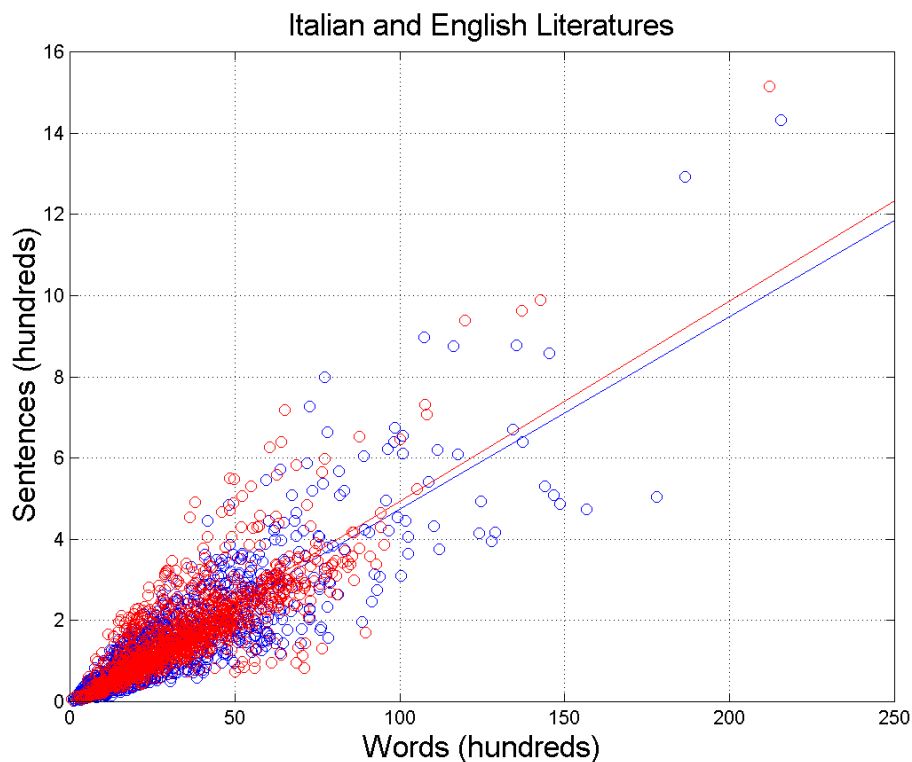


Figure 1. Scatterplot of sentences n_s versus words n_w . Italian Literature: blue circles and blue regression line; English Literature: red circles and red regression line. Samples refer to chapters, 1260 in the Italian Literature, 1114 in the English Literature; total: 2374. The blue and red lines are the regression lines with slope and correlation coefficient reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Slope m and correlation coefficient r of n_s versus n_w of the regression lines drawn in Figure 1.

	m	r
Italian	0.0474	0.877
English	0.0493	0.819

2.2. Interpunctions versus sentences

Figure 2 shows the scatterplot of interpunctions, n_l , versus sentences, n_s , for the Italian and the English literatures. Table 2 reports slopes and correlation coefficients of the two regression lines drawn in Figure 2. The two literary corpora almost coincide – as far as the slope is concerned - as if the samples were extracted from the same data base. This issue will be further discussed by considering the theory of linguistic channels in Section 3.

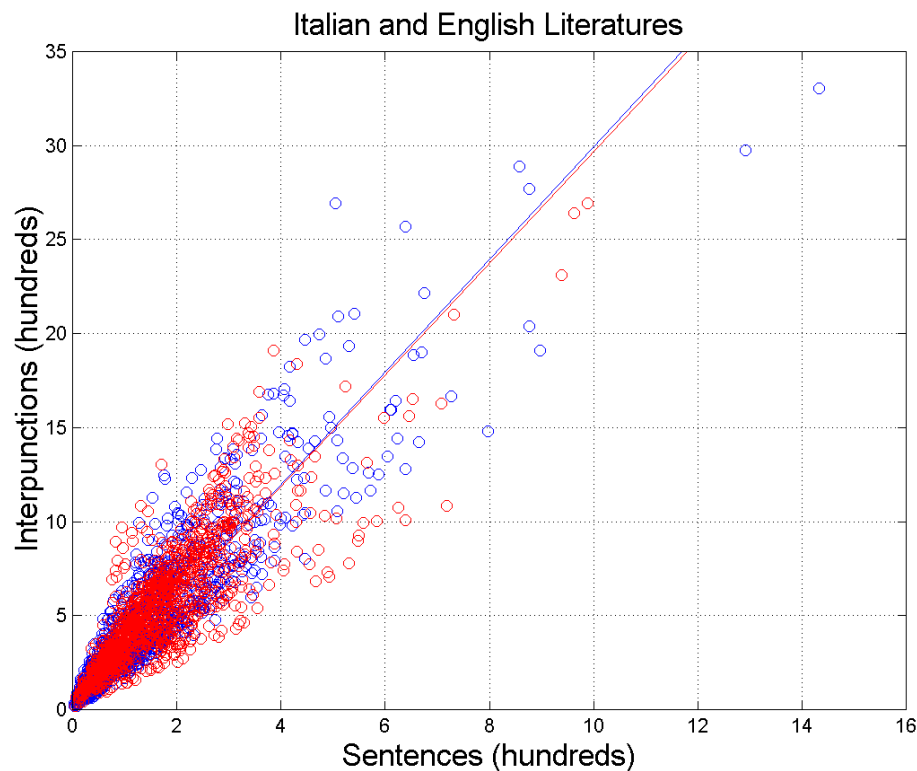


Figure 2. Scatterplot of interpunctions n_l versus sentences n_s . Italian Literature: blue circles and blue regression line; English Literature: red circles and red regression line. The blue and red lines are the regression lines with slope and correlation coefficient reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Slope m and correlation coefficient r of interpunctions per chapter, n_l , versus sentences per chapter, n_s , of the regression lines drawn in Figure 2.

	m	r
Italian	2.994	0.913
English	2.969	0.853

2.3. Words per sentence versus word interval per sentence

Figure 3 shows the scatterplot of words per sentence, P_F , versus word intervals per sentence, M_F . It is interesting to notice a tight similar linear relationship in both literatures, see slopes and correlation coefficients in Table 3. This issue will be further discussed by considering the theory of linguistic channels in Section 3.

The linear relationship shown in Figure 3 states that as a sentence gets longer writers introduce more I_p 's, regardless of the length of I_p . This seems to be a different mechanism - compared to that concerning the words that build up I_p - that writers use to convey the full meaning of a sentence. We think that M_F describes another STM processing beyond that described by I_p and uncorrelated with it, as it can be deduced from the findings reported in the next sub-sections.

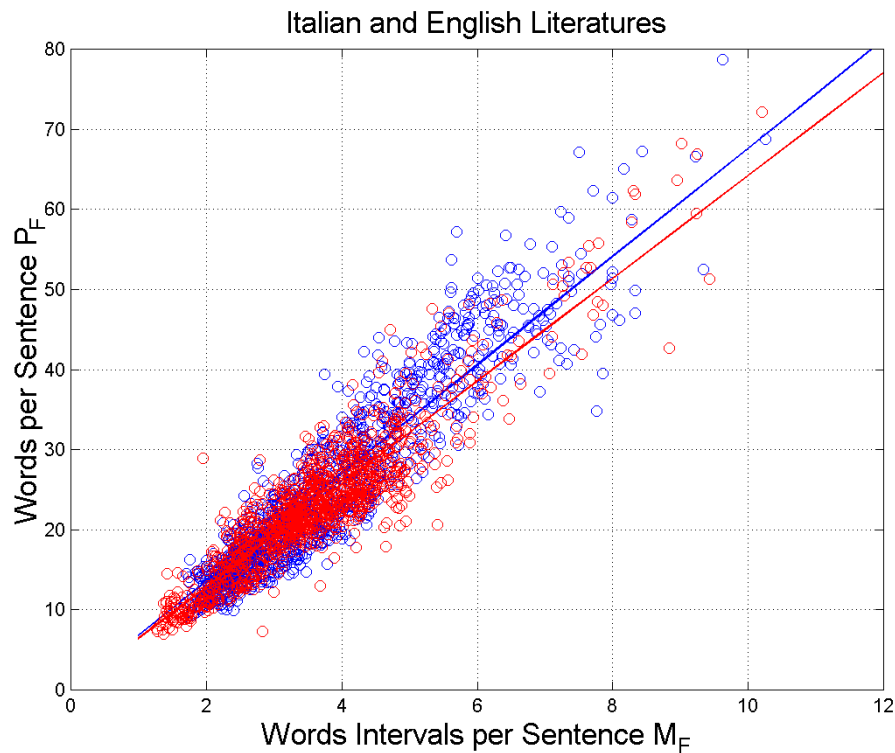


Figure 3. Scatterplot of P_F versus M_F . Italian Literature: blue circles and blue regression line; English Literature: red circles and red regression line. The blue and red lines are the regression lines with slope and correlation coefficient reported in Table 3.

Table 3. Slope m and correlation coefficient r of P_F versus M_F of the regression lines drawn in Figure 3.

	m	r
Italian	6.763	0.937
English	6.421	0.914

2.4. Word intervals versus words per sentence

Figure 4 shows the scatterplot of word interval, I_p , versus words per sentence, P_F , for the Italian Literature (blue circles) and the English Literature (red circles). The magenta lines refer to Miller's 7 ± 2 law range (95% of samples). The black curve models the best-fit relating I_p to P_F for all samples shown in Figure 4, as done in [1,2], given by:

$$I_p = (I_{p\infty} - 1) \times \left\{ 1 - e^{-\frac{(P_F-1)}{(P_{F0}-1)}} \right\} + 1 \quad (6)$$

As discussed in [1–4] and recalled above, Equation (6) models the saturation of I_p as P_F increases. Italian and English texts show no significant differences, therefore underlining a general behavior of human readers/writers, independent of language.

In equation (6), $I_{p\infty} = 7.08$ and $P_{Fo} = 7.88$. It is striking to notice that Miller's range – which, as recalled, refers to 95% of samples – contains about 95% of all samples of I_p shown in the ordinate scale of Figure 4 (precisely in the range from 4.8 to 8.6, see sub-section 2.6 below) and that the horizontal asymptote ($I_{p\infty} = 7.08$) is just Miller's range center value.

Defined the error $\varepsilon = I_p - I_{p,model}$, between the experimental datum and that given by Eq. (6), the average error is -0.067 for Italian and 0.063 for English, with standard deviation 0.852 and 0.956 , respectively. Therefore, the two literary corpora are very similarly scattered around the black curve given by Eq. (6),

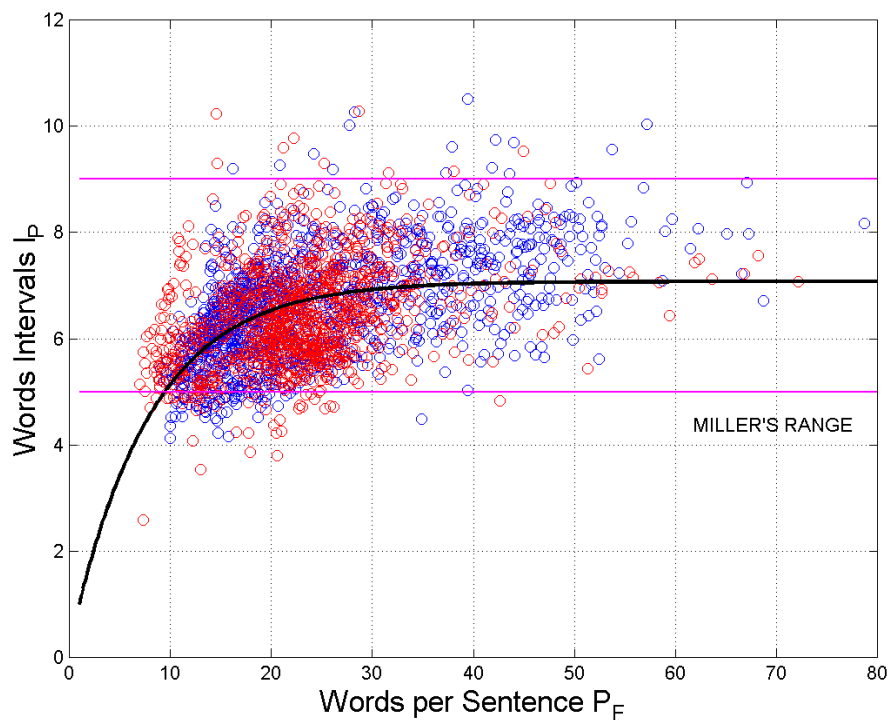


Figure 4. Scatterplot of I_p versus P_F . Italian Literature: blue circles; English Literature: red circles. The black curve is given by Equation (6) and it is the best-fit curve to all samples. The magenta lines refer to Miller's 7 ± 2 law range of STM capacity.

In conclusion, the two literary corpora, for the purpose of the present study, can be merged together and the findings obtained reinforce the conjecture that I_p does describe the STM capacity defined by Millers' Law.

2.5. Word intervals per sentence versus word intervals

Figure 5 shows the scatterplot of word intervals per sentence, M_F , versus word intervals, I_p . The correlation coefficient is $r = 0.248$ in the Italian Literature, and $r = -0.035$ in the English Literature, values which practically state that the two linguistic variables are uncorrelated. The decorrelation between M_F and I_p strongly suggests the presence of two processing units acting independently of one another, a model we discuss further in Section 5.

In the next sub-section, dealing with linguistic communication channels, we reinforce the fact that the two literary corpora can be merged together, therefore, they can give a homogeneous data base of alphabetical texts sharing a common surface mathematical structure from which two STM processing units can be modelled.

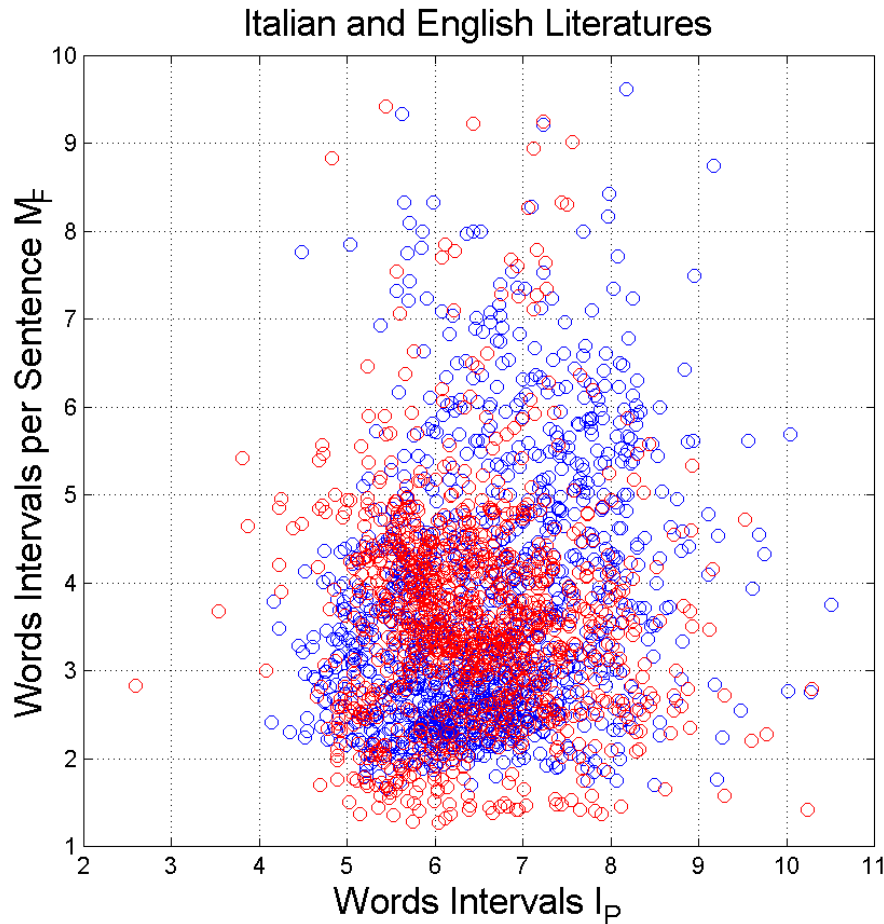


Figure 5. Scatterplot of M_F versus I_P . Italian Literature: blue circles; English Literature: red circles. Correlation coefficient $r = 0.248$ for Italian, and $r = -0.035$ for English.

2.6. Probability distributions

In the previous sub-sections, we have noticed that there are no significant differences between the statistical features of Italian and English novels, therefore we are allowed to merge the two literary corpora for estimating the probability distributions of the deep-language variables. These are shown in Figures 6–8, respectively for I_P , P_F and M_F . These probability distributions can be modelled with a three-parameter log-normal probability density function, as done for Italian Literature for I_P in Ref. [1], given by the general expression (natural logs):

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x(x-1)} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\ln(x-1) - \mu_x}{\sigma_x} \right]^2 \right\} \quad x \geq 1 \quad (7)$$

In Eq. (7), μ_x and σ_x are, respectively, the average value and standard deviation. These constants are obtained as follows. Given the linear average value m_x and the linear standard deviation s_x of the random variable x , the standard deviation σ_x and the average value μ_x of the random variable $\ln(x)$ of a three-parameter log-normal probability density function, defined for $x \geq 1$, are given by [34]:

$$\sigma_x^2 = \ln \left[\left(\frac{s_x}{m_x - 1} \right)^2 + 1 \right] \quad (8)$$

$$\mu_{I_P} = \ln \left[(m_x - 1) - \frac{\sigma_x^2}{2} \right] \quad (9)$$

Table 4 reports these values for the indicated and the error statistics between the number of experimental samples and that predicted by the log-normal model. Table 5 reports some important linear statistical values which we use in the next section.

Table 4. Average value μ_x and standard deviation σ_x of $\ln(x)$ of the indicated variables and the average value and standard deviation of the error defined as the difference between the number of experimental samples and that predicted by the log-normal model.

	μ_x	σ_x	Average error	Standard deviation of error
I_p	1.689	0.180	0.002	56.92
P_F	3.038	0.441	0.049	12.44
M_F	0.849	0.483	0.126	12.72

Table 5. Linear mean, standard deviation and 95% probability range (Miller’s range) of the indicated variables.

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Miller’s Range (95%)
I_p	6.50	1.00	4.80~8.60
P_F	23.98	10.64	21.00~51.00
M_F	3.63	1.36	1.72~7.12

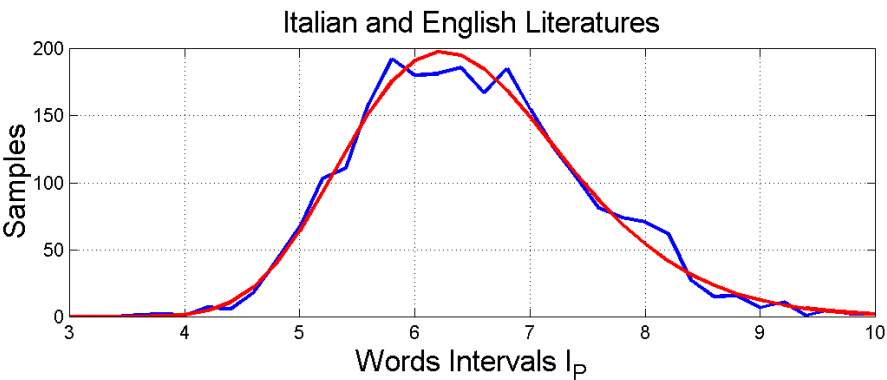


Figure 6. Histogram and log-normal probability modelling of I_p .

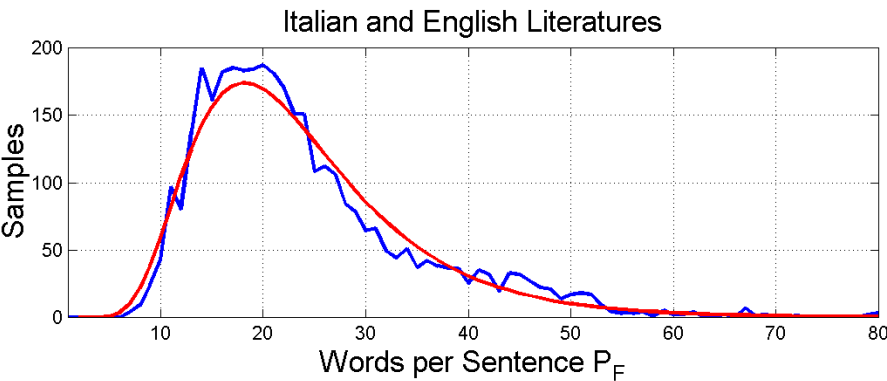


Figure 7. Histogram and log-normal probability modelling of P_F .

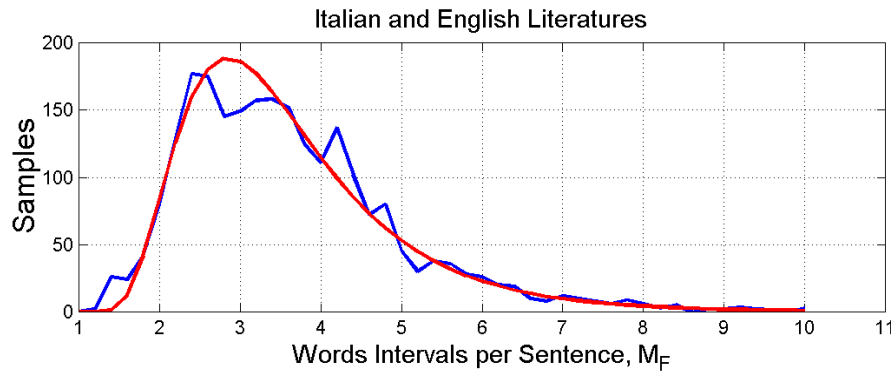


Figure 8. Histogram and log-normal probability modelling of M_F .

3. Linguistic communication channels in texts

To study the chaotic data that emerge in any language, the theory developed in Reference [2] compares a text (the reference, or input text, written in a language) to another text (output text, “cross-channel”, written in any language) or to itself (“self-channel”), with a complex communication channel – made of several parallel single channels, two of which were explicitly considered in [2,4,5,7] – in which both input and output are affected by “noise”, i.e. by diverse scattering of the data around a mean linear relationship, namely a regression line, as those shown in Figures 1–3 above.

In Reference [3] we have applied the theory of linguistic channels to show how an author shapes a character speaking to diverse audiences by diversifying and adjusting (“fine tuning”) two important linguistic communication channels, namely the Sentences channel (S-channel) and the Interpunctuations channel (I-channel). The S-channel links n_S of the output text to n_S of the input text, for the *same* number of words. The I-channel links M_F (i.e., the number of I_P ’s) of the output text to M_F of the input text, for the *same* number of sentences.

In Reference [5] we have further developed the theory of linguistic channels by applying it to Charles Dickens’ novels and to other novels of the English Literature (the same literary corpus considered in the present paper) and found, for example, that this author was very likely affected by King James’ New Testament.

In S-channels the number of sentences of two texts is compared for the same number of words, therefore, they describe how many sentences the writer of text j (output) uses to convey a meaning, compared to the writer of text k (input) – who may convey, of course, a diverse meaning – by using the *same* number of words. Simply stated, it is about how a writer shapes his/her style for communicating the full meaning of a sentence with a given number of words available, therefore it is more linked to author’s style. These channels are those described by the scatterplots and regression lines - shown in Figure 1 - in which we get rid of the independent variable n_W .

In I-channels the number of word intervals I_P of two texts is compared for the *same* number of sentences, therefore, they describe how many short texts make a full sentence. Since I_P is connected to the STM capacity (Miller’s Law) and M_F is linked –in our present conjecture - to the E-STM, I-channels are more related to how the human mind processes information than to authors’ style. These channels are those described by the scatterplots and regression lines - shown in Figure 2 - in which we get rid of the independent variable n_S .

In the present paper, for the first time, we consider linguistic channels which compare P_F of two texts for the same number of M_F , therefore also these channels are connected with the E-STM, as they are a kind on “inverse” channels of the I-channels. These channels are those described by the scatterplots and regression lines - shown in Figure 3 - in which we get rid of the independent variable M_F . We refer to these channels as the P_F -channels.

Recall that regression lines, however, consider and describe only one aspect of the linear relationship, namely that concerning (conditional) mean values. They do not consider the scattering of data, which may not be similar when two regression lines almost coincide, as Figures 1–3 show.

The theory of linguistic channels, on the contrary, by considering both slopes and correlation coefficients, provides a reliable tool to fully compare two sets of data.

To apply the theory of linguistic channels [2,3], we need the slope m and the correlation coefficient r of the regression line between: (a) n_s and n_w to study S-channels (Figure 1); (b) n_i and n_s to study I-channels (Figure 2); (c) P_F and M_F to study P_F -channels (Figure 3), values listed in Tables 1–3.

In synthesis, the theory calculates the slope m_{jk} and the correlation coefficient r_{jk} of the regression line between the same linguistic parameters by linking the input k (independent variable) to the output j (dependent variable) of the virtual scatterplot in the three linguistic channels mentioned above.

The similarity of the two data sets (regression lines and correlation coefficients) are synthetically measured by the theoretical signal-to-noise ratio Γ_{th} (dB) [2]. First, the noise-to-signal ratio R , in linear units, is calculated from:

$$R = (m_{jk} - 1)^2 + \frac{1-r_{jk}^2}{r_{jk}^2} m_{jk}^2 \quad (10)$$

Secondly, from Equation (7), the total signal-to-noise ratio is given (in dB) by:

$$\Gamma_{th}(\text{dB}) = -10 \times \log_{10} R \quad (11)$$

Notice that when a text is compared to itself $\Gamma_{th} = \infty$, because $r = 1$, $m = 1$.

Table 6 shows the results when Italian is the input language k and English the output language j ; Table 7 shows the results when English is the input language k and Italian is the output language j .

Table 6. Slope m_{jk} and correlation coefficient r_{jk} of the regression line between the same linguistic parameter of the two languages and the signal-to-noise ratio Γ_{th} (dB) in the linguistic channel. Input channel: Italian; Output channel: English.

			m_{jk}	r_{jk}	Γ_{th}
S-channel	$n_{S,Eng}$	versus $n_{S,Ita}$	1.040	0.994	18.37
I-channel	$n_{I,Eng}$	versus $n_{I,Ita}$	0.992	0.992	17.80
E-channel	$P_{F,Eng}$	versus $P_{F,Ita}$	0.949	0.998	22.18

Table 7. Slope m_{jk} and correlation coefficient r_{jk} of the regression line between the same linguistic parameter of the two languages and the signal-to-noise ratio Γ_{th} (dB) in the linguistic channel. Input channel: English; Output channel: Italian.

			m_{jk}	r_{jk}	Γ_{th}
S-channel	$n_{S,Ita}$	versus $n_{S,Eng}$	0.962	0.994	19.01
I-channel	$n_{I,Ita}$	versus $n_{I,Eng}$	1.009	0.992	17.65
E-channel	$P_{F,Ita}$	versus $P_{F,Eng}$	1.053	0.998	21.46

From Tables 6 and 7 we can observe the following:

- The slopes are very close to unity, implying, therefore, that the two languages are very similar in average values (i.e., the regression line).
- The correlation coefficients are very close to 1, implying, therefore, that data scattering is very small.
- The remarks in (a) and (b) are synthesized by Γ_{th} which is always significantly large. Its values are in the range of reliable results (see the discussion in References [2–7]).
- The slight asymmetry of the two channels Italian→English (Table 6) and English→Italian (Table 7) is typical of linguistic channels [2–7].

In other words, the “fine tuning” done through the three linguistic channels strongly reinforces the conclusion that the two literary corpora are “extracted” from the same data set, from the same “book”, whose “text” is interweaved in a universal surface mathematical structure that human mind imposes to alphabetical languages. The next section further reinforces this conclusion when text readability is considered.

4. Relationships with a universal readability index

In Reference [6], we have proposed a universal readability index which includes the STM capacity, modelled by I_p , applicable to any alphabetical language, given by:

$$G_U = G - 6(I_p - 6) \quad (12)$$

With

$$G = 89 - 10kC_p + 300/P_F \quad (13)$$

$$k = \langle C_{p,ITA} \rangle / \langle C_p \rangle \quad (14)$$

In Equation (12) the E-STM is also indirectly present with the variable P_F of Equation (13). Notice that a text readability increases (text more readable) as G_U increases.

The observation that differences between readability indices give more insight than absolute values has justified the development of Equation (9).

By using Eqs. (10) and (11), the average value $\langle 10 \times kC_p \rangle$ of any language is forced to be equal to that found in Italian, namely 10×4.48 . In doing so, if it is of interest, G_U can be linked to the number of years of schooling in Italy [1,6].

There are two arguments in favor of Equation (14), the first is that C_p affects a readability formula much less than P_F [1]. The second is that C_p is a parameter typical of a language which, if not scaled, would bias G_U without really quantifying the change in reading difficulty of readers, who are accustomed to reading, in their language, shorter or longer words, on the average, than those found in Italian. This scaling, therefore, avoids changing G_U only because in a language, on the average, words are shorter or longer than in Italian.

Figure 9 shows the histogram of G_U . The mean value is 55.0 (practically the peak), the standard deviation is 11.0 and the 95% range is 35.0~78.5.

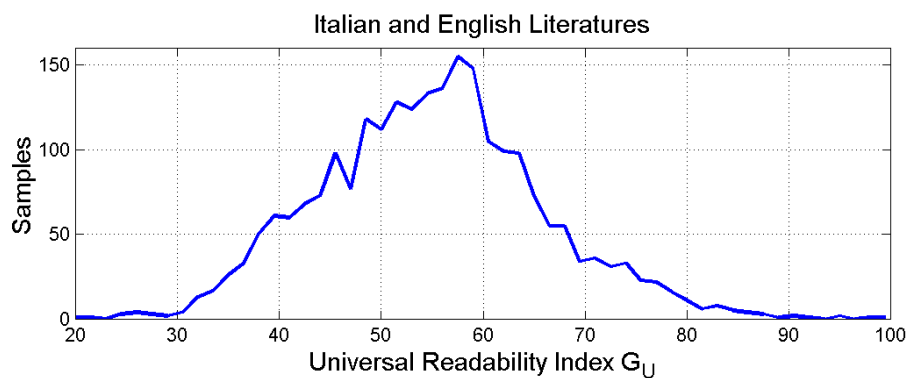


Figure 9. Histogram of G_U . The mean value is 55.0 (peak), the standard deviation is 11.0 and the 95% range is 35.0~78.5.

Figure 10 shows the scatterplot of G_U versus I_p in the Italian and English Literatures. There are no significant differences between the two languages, therefore we can merge all samples. The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $I_p = 6.50$, and at the values exceeded with probability 0.025 ($I_p = 4.8$) and 0.975 ($I_p = 8.6$). The range 4.8~8.6 includes, therefore, 95% of the samples and it corresponds to Miller’s range (Table 5)

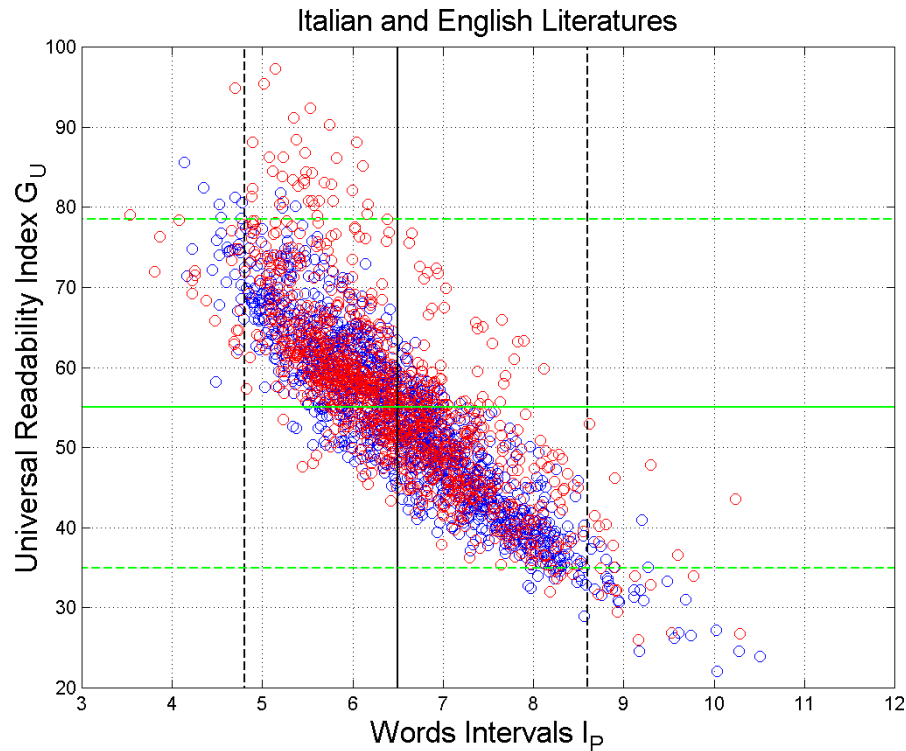


Figure 10. Scatterplot of the universal readability index G_U versus the word interval I_p . Italian Literature: blue circles; English Literature: red circles. The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $I_p = 6.5$, and at the values I_p is exceeded with probability 0.025 ($I_p = 4.8$) and 0.975 ($I_p = 8.6$). The range 4.8~8.6 includes 95% of the samples, therefore, it corresponds to Miller's range 7 ± 2 . The horizontal green lines refer to G_U (95% range 35.0~78.5).

Figure 11 shows the scatterplot of G_U versus P_F . The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $P_F = 24.0$, and at the values exceeded with probability 0.025 ($P_F = 11.0$) and 0.975 ($P_F = 51.0$). The range 11.0~51.0 includes 95% of the merged samples corresponding to Miller's range (Table 5). The horizontal green lines refer to G_U (95% range 35.0~78.5).

Figure 12 shows the scatterplot of G_U versus M_F . The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $M_F = 3.58$, and at the values exceeded with probability 0.025 ($M_F = 1.72$) and 0.975 ($M_F = 7.12$). The range 1.72~7.12 includes, therefore, 95% of the samples and it corresponds to Miller's range (Table 5). The horizontal green lines refer to G_U (95% range 35.0~78.5).

In all cases, we can observe that G_U , as expected, is inversely proportional to the deep-language variable involved in the STM processing. In other words, the larger is the independent variable, the lower is the readability index.

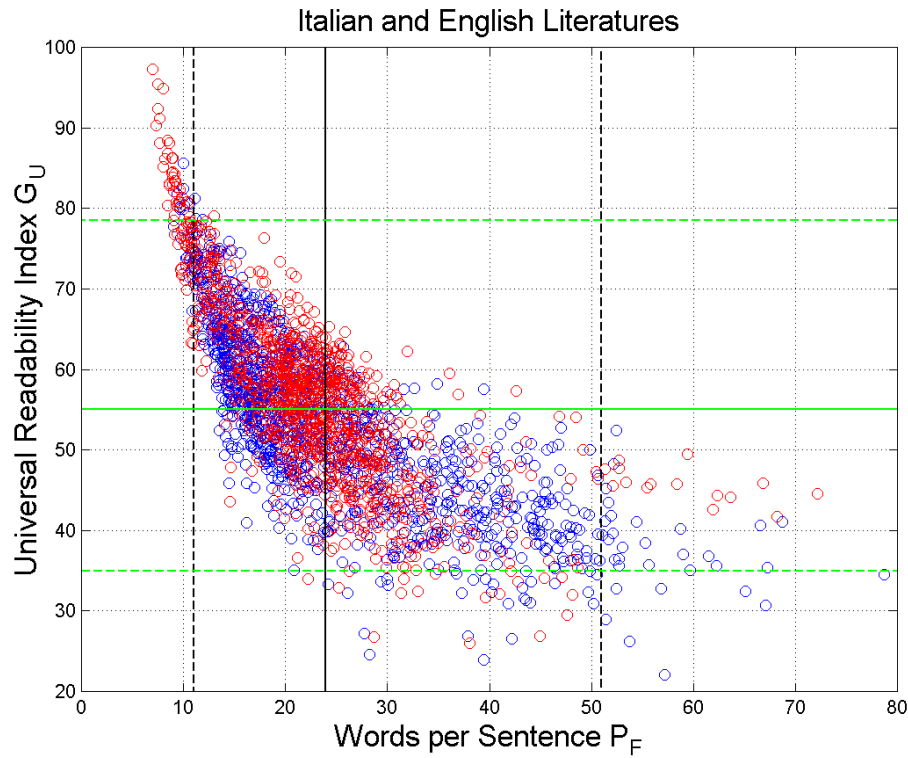


Figure 11. Scatterplot of the universal readability index G_U versus the words per sentence $s P_F$. Italian Literature: blue circles and blue regression line; English Literature: red circles and red regression line. The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $P_F = 24.0$, and at the values exceeded with probability 0.025 ($P_F = 11.0$) and 0.975 ($P_F = 51.0$). The range 11.0~51.0 includes 95% of the samples, therefore, it corresponds to Miller's range 7 ± 2 of I_P . The horizontal green lines refer to G_U (95% range 35.0~78.5).

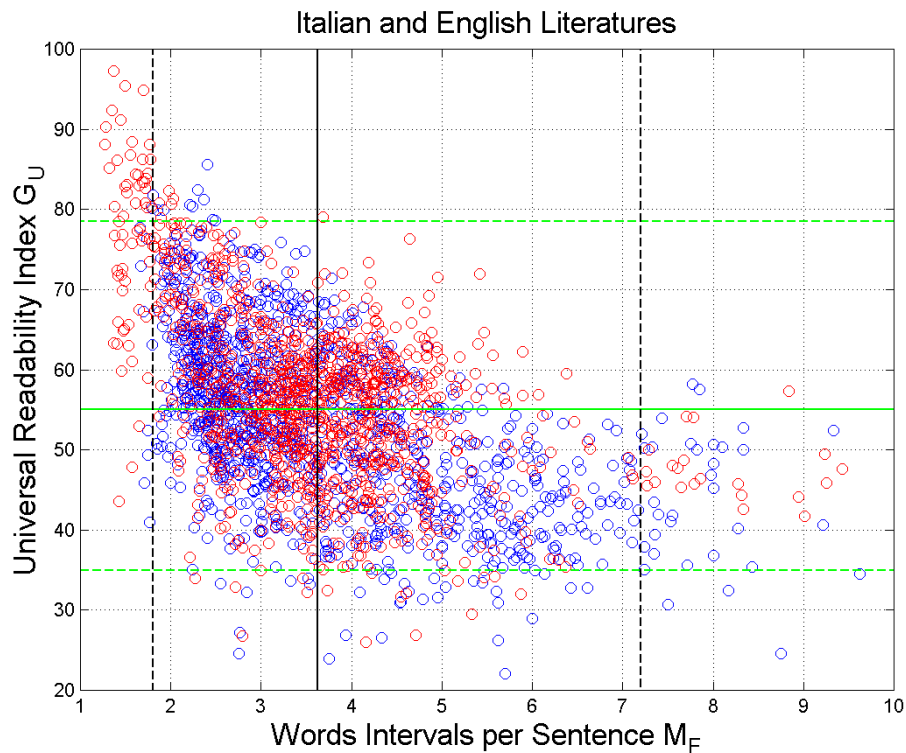


Figure 12. Scatterplot of the universal readability index G_U versus the word intervals M_F . Italian Literature: blue circles and blue regression line; English Literature: red circles and red regression line.

The vertical black lines are drawn at the mean value $M_F = 3.58$, and at the values exceeded with probability 0.025 ($M_F = 1.72$) and 0.975 ($M_F = 7.12$). The range 1.72~7.12 includes 95% of the samples, therefore, it corresponds to Miller's range. The horizontal green lines refer to G_U (95% range 35.0~78.5).

5. Two STM processing units in series

From the findings reported in the previous sections, we are justified to conjecture that the STM elaborates information with two processing units, regardless of language, author, time and audience. The model seems to be universally valid, at least according to how this largely unknown surface processing is seen through the lens of the most learned writings, down several centuries. The main reasons to propose this conjecture are the following.

According to Figure 5, M_F and I_P are decorrelated. This suggests the presence of two processing units working with different, although similar, "protocols", the first capable of processing approximately 7 ± 2 items (Miller's law) – capacity measured by I_P – and the second capable of processing 1~6 items – capacity measured by M_F .

Figure 13 shows how these two capacities are related at equal probability exceeded. We can see that the relationship is approximately linear in the range 5~8 of I_P (2~6 of M_F).

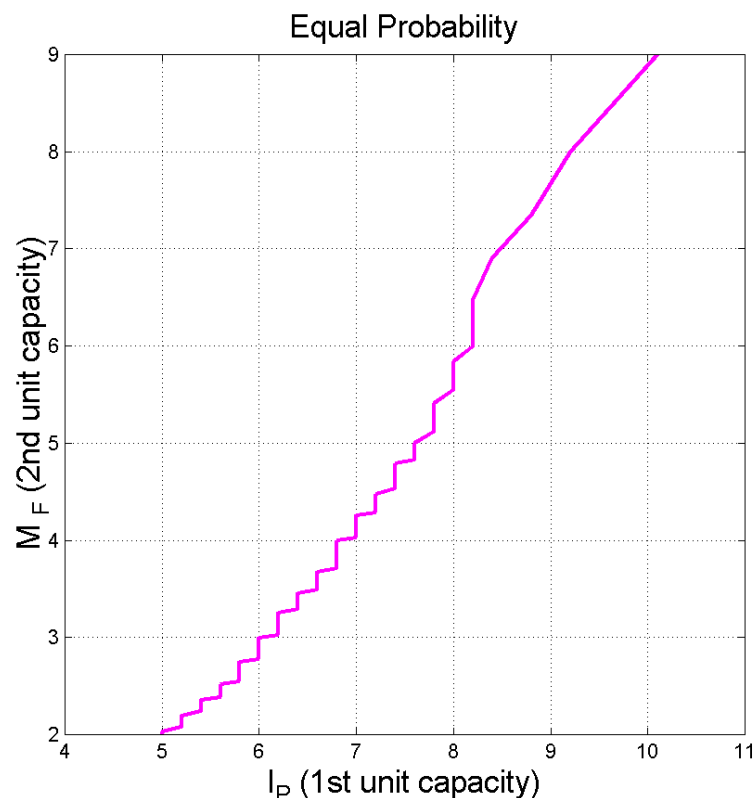


Figure 13. Capacity of the second STM processing unit, M_F , versus capacity of the first STM processing unit, I_P , calculated at equal probability exceeded.

Figure 14 shows the ideal flow-chart of the two STM units that process a sentence. After the previous sentence (not shown), a new sentence starts: The words p_1, p_2, \dots, p_j are stored in the first buffer, with capacity given by a number approximately in Miller's range, until an interpunction is introduced to fix the length of I_P . The word interval I_P is then stored in the E-STM buffer up to k items, from about 1 to 6, until the sentence ends. The two buffers are afterwards cleared and a new sentence can start.

Let us calculate the overall capacity required by the full processing described in Figure 14. If we consider the 95% range in both processing units (Table 5) we get $4.80 \times 1.72 = 8.26$ words and $8.60 \times 7.12 = 61.23$ words.

We can roughly estimate the time necessary to complete the cycle of a sentence, by converting the capacity expressed in words into a time interval required to read them by assuming a reading speed, such as 188 words for Italian, or very similar values for other languages [9]. Notice, however, that this reading speed refers to a fast reading reader not to a common reader of novels, whose pace can be slower, down to approximately 90 words per minute [35]. Now, reading 188 words in 1 minute gives 2.6 and 19.5 seconds, respectively, values that become 5.3 and 30.1 seconds when reading 90 words per minute, very well contained in experimental findings concerning the STM processing [11–31].

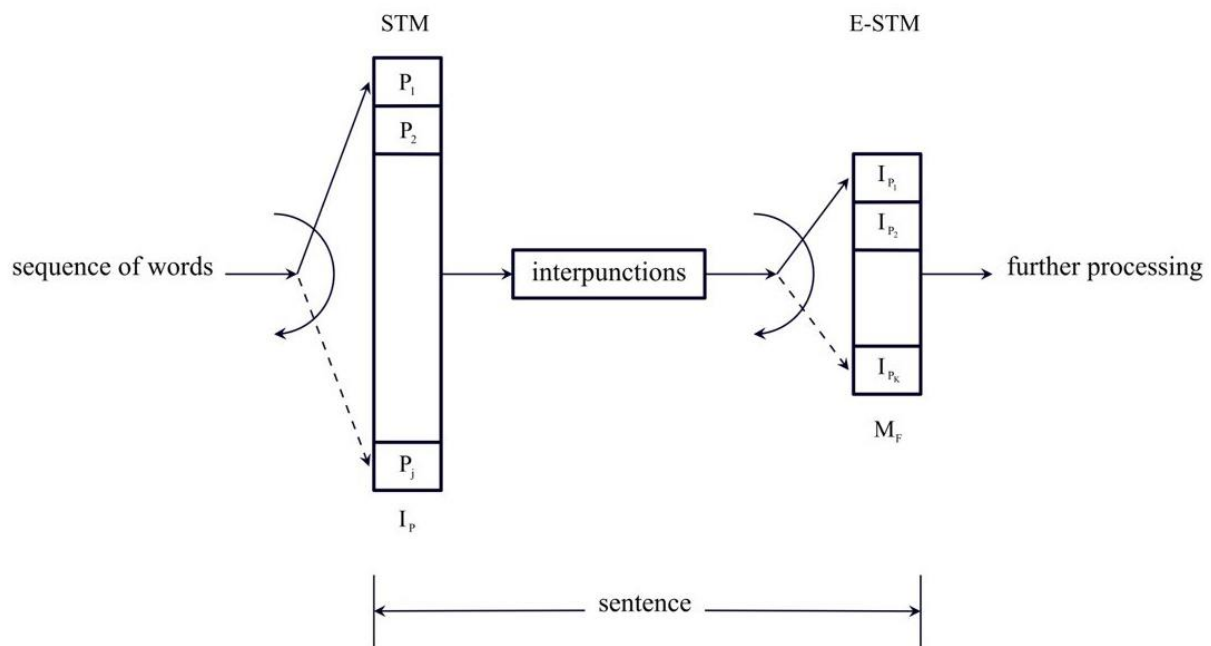


Figure 14. Flow-chart of the two processing units that make a sentence. The words p_1, p_2, \dots, p_j are stored in the first buffer up to j items, approximately in Miller's range, until an interpunction is introduced to fix the length of I_p . The word interval I_p is then stored in the E-STM buffer up to k items, from about 1 to 6 items, until the sentence ends.

6. Conclusion

We have shown that during a sentence, the alphabetical text is processed by the short-term memory (STM) with two uncorrelated processing units in series, with similar capacity. The clues for conjecturing this model has emerged by considering many novels belonging to the Italian and English Literatures.

We have shown that there are no significant mathematical/statistical differences between the two literary corpora by considering deep-language variables and linguistic communication channels. This finding underlines the fact that the mathematical surface structure of alphabetical languages - a creation of human mind - is very deeply rooted in humans, independently of the particular language used, therefore we have merged the two literary corpora in one data set and obtained universal results.

The first processing unit is linked to the number of words between two contiguous interpunctions, variable indicated by I_p , approximately ranging in Miller's 7 ± 2 law range; the second unit is linked to the number of I_p 's contained in a sentence, variable indicated by M_F and referred to as the extended STM, or E-STM, ranging approximately from 1 to 6.

We have recalled that a two-unit STM processing can be empirically justified according to how a human mind is thought to memorize “chunks” of information contained in a sentence. Although simple and related to the surface of language, the model seems to describe mathematically the input-output characteristics of a complex mental process, largely unknown.

The overall capacity required by the full processing of a sentence ranges from 8.3 to 61.2 words, values that can be converted into time by assuming a reading speed. This conversion gives the range 2.6~19.5 seconds for a fast-reading reader and 5.3~30.1 seconds for a common reader of novels, values well supported by experiments reported in the literature.

A sentence conveys meaning, therefore, the surface features we have found might be the starting point to arrive at an Information Theory that includes meaning.

Future work should be done on ancient readers of Greek and Latin Literatures to assess whether their STM processing was, very likely, similar to that discussed in the present paper.

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