

Syntax and Interpretation*

by B. Vauquois, G. Veillon, and J. Veyrunes, C.E.T.A., Grenoble, France

This paper describes a model of syntactical analysis. It shows first how a context-free grammar formalism can be modified in order to reduce the number of rules required by a natural language, and second, how this formalism can be extended to the handling of some non-context-free phenomena. The description of the algorithm is also given. The process of discontinuous constituents is performed by transformations.

Introduction

In a mechanical translation system based on a succession of models (where each model represents a level of the source language or of the target language), one must establish their linkage. In the phase of analysis (related to the source language) the linkage paths are called "directed upward" as the successive models correspond to hierarchical levels which are more and more elevated in the language, whereas in the phase of synthesis (related to the target language) the linkage paths are directed downward.

The analysis of a text of the source language L consists in finding, within the model of the highest level (called model M_3), a formula, or a sequence of formulas, the representation of which in L is the given text. If each formula of M_3 is represented in L by at least one sentence of L , we have a so-called sentence-by-sentence analysis. All sentences of L which are the different representations of one and the same formula of M_3 are called "equivalent" with respect to the model. Every sentence of L which is a representation that two or more formulas of M_3 have in common, is called "ambiguous" in the model. The model M_3 will be admitted to have also a representation in the chosen target language L' but we do not bother to know whether M_3 possesses still further representations in the languages L'' , L''' , etc. Under these conditions, each non-ambiguous sentence of L can be made to correspond to a sentence of L'' . Let us understand by "degree of ambiguity" of a sentence of L with regard to the model, the number of distinct formulas which are represented by this sentence in L . Thus, to each sentence of the degree of ambiguity n in L correspond, at the utmost, n sentences in L' . The translation consists in a unique sentence of L' if the representations of the n formulas of M_3 in L' have a non-empty intersection.

The diagram of the mechanical translation system as we view it is shown in Figure 1.

Thus the models M_1 and M_2 comprise two parts:

a) *The formal part* which answers the decision problem: "Does the proposed string belong to the

artificial language of this model?" If so, all the structures associated with that string must be found.

b) *The interpretative part* on which depends the linkage with the models of higher level.

As for the synthesis part, this diagram corresponds, one or two variations excepted, to the model of a linguistic automaton proposed by S. Lamb.¹

The simplest example is that of the morphological model M_1 : the decision problem of the formal part consists in the acceptance or the rejection of a string of morphemes as being a possible form of a word of that language. The syntactical interpretation of an accepted string consists in transforming it into elements of the terminal vocabulary of the syntactical model (syntactical category, values of the grammatical variables, prohibited rules). The sememic interpretation of this same string consists in giving its meaning either in the form of equivalents in the target language, or in the form of semantic units in an intermediate language.

The study of the syntactical model M_2 is much more complicated. The formal part of this model likewise consists in resolving a decision problem. Given a string of elementary syntagmas furnished by the interpretation of the morphological model, the problem is to accept or to reject this string as a syntactically correct sentence in the source language. In reality, to a simple string of words in the source language, the morphological interpretation in general sets up a correspondence with a whole family of strings of elementary syntagmas because of the syntactical homographies. Thus, unless exploring all the strings of the family successively, a practical resolution has to handle them all simultaneously.

Furthermore, as in fact a sentence built up with syntactically non-ambiguous words can allow several syntactical structures in the natural language, the model has to account for this multiplicity of structures whenever it exists, on each string of syntagmas corresponding to that sentence.

Thus, the formal part of the syntactical model consists in rejecting all the strings of syntagmas that do not correspond to a sentence, and in furnishing all admissible structures for the accepted strings.

The first part of this paper deals with the choice of the logical type of model, the formalism adopted

* Presented at the 1965 International Conference on Computational Linguistics, New York, May 19-21, 1965.

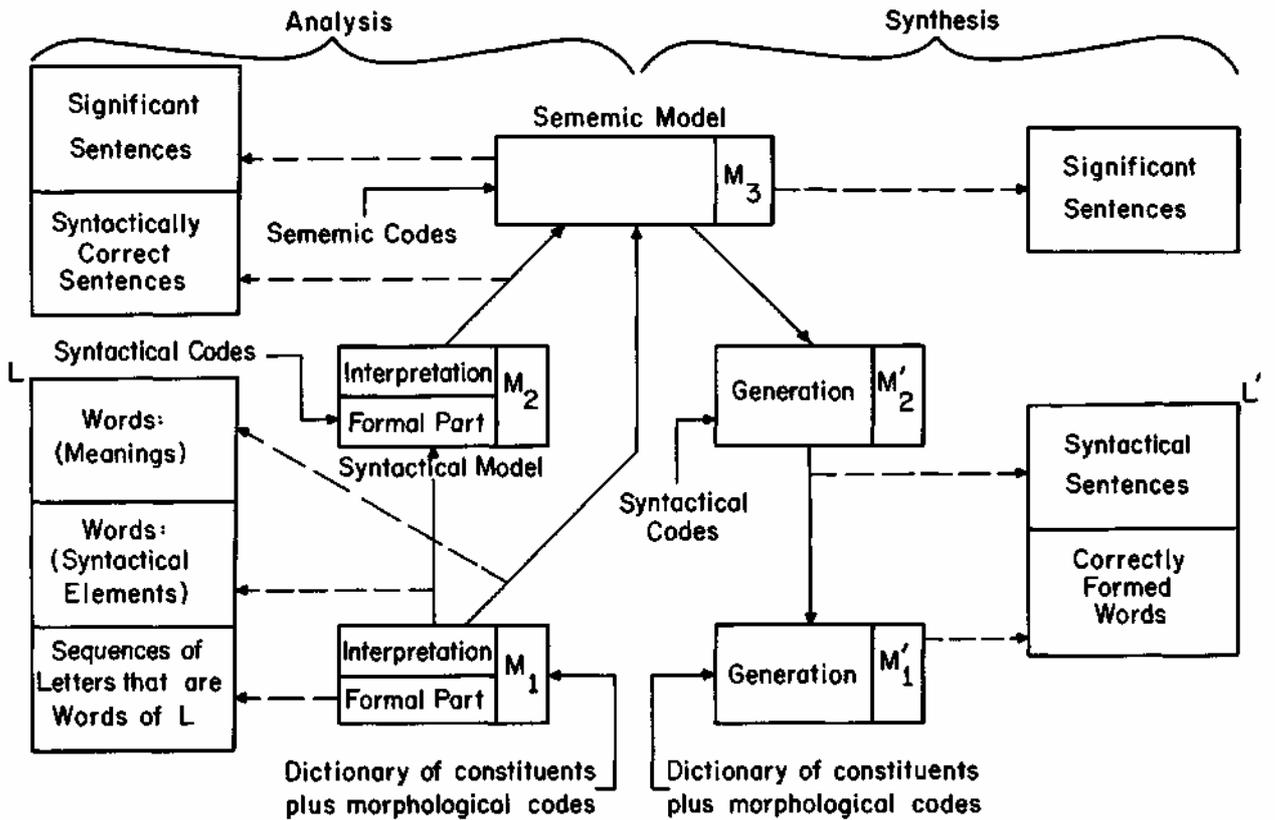


FIG. 1.—Flow chart of the different models occurring in M.T. system

for writing the grammar, and the algorithm of processing this grammar.

The second part tries to show the transformation that the structures furnished by the formal part of the model have to go through, in order to be acceptable as "entries" of the model M_3 . In order to justify the necessity of these constraints, we shall give some elements of M_3 in the third part of the paper.

Recognition of the Formal Syntactical Structures

The syntactical model which has the advantage of allowing systematic search of the structures, and which allows us, nevertheless, to represent nearly all the structures of the language, is the model called "context-free."

LANGUAGE OF DESCRIPTION OF SYNTACTICAL GRAMMARS

The classification of formal grammars proposed by N. Chomsky² (whose notations are now classical) leads, in the case of *normal* context-free grammars intended for generation, to the following formalism:

- (1) $A \rightarrow a$ $a \in V_T, A \in V_N$: lexical rules;
 (2) $A \rightarrow BC$ $A, B, C \in V_N$: construction rules.

This notation is simply reversed in the case of

grammars intended for recognition where one writes:

- (3) $a > \text{---} A$ lexical rules;
 (4) $BC > \text{---} A$ construction rules.

The adaptation of such a formalism to the syntactical analysis of a natural language leads to a very great number of terminal and non-terminal elements. Thus we were brought to use an equivalent formalism leading to a grammar of acceptable dimensions.³ We write:

- (5) N° Rule — $a // VVa > \text{---} A // VVA \text{---} SAT$;
 (6) N° Rule — $B // VVB \mid C // VVC \text{---} VIV > \text{---} A // VVA \text{---} SAT$.^{3,4}

The *Terminal Vocabulary* of the syntactical model is composed of three sorts of elements:

1. Syntactical categories written a, b, c, \dots in the rules of type (5).

Examples: common noun
 descriptive adjective,
 coordinating conjunction.

2. Values of grammatical variables, written VVa, VVb, \dots in the rules of type (6).

In fact, with each syntactical category K are associated p grammatical variables V_{ki} ($1 \leq i \leq p$) where each variable V_{ki} can assume $n(V_{ki})$ values. We use the

product of the values of the grammatical variables, each value belonging to a different variable.

Examples: “nominative singular inanimate,”
“indicative present tense first person,” etc.

3. The numbers of prohibited rules: The rules of type (5) and (6) are referred to by a rule number: “*N* rule.”

Example: N26, A12.

If we wish the result of the application of a grammar rule not to figure in one or several other rules, we say that these rules are invalidated. This rule list, eventually empty, is located in the section *SAT*, in the rules of type (5) and (6).

The *Non-terminal Vocabulary* is similarly composed of three elements:

1. The non-terminal categories written *A*, *B*, *C*, One of them is distinguished from all the others; it characterizes the structure of the sentence itself.

Examples: nominal group,
predicate, etc.

2. Grammatical variables: associated this time, with the non-terminal categories.

3. Numbers of prohibited rules, as above.

In fact, the construction rules, as well as the lexical rules, can invalidate lists of rules.

The principal elements that rules of type (5) and (6) are made out of have thus been defined as being constituents of the terminal and of the non-terminal vocabulary.

VIV means “identical values of variables.” This is a condition allowing us to validate a rule of type (6) only if *B* and *C* have certain values of one or several given variables in common.

Example: 12 — *B* // | *C* // — *CAS* >— . . .

Rule 12 will apply only if *B* and *C* have in common one or more values of the variable *CAS* (= declension case).

— // | >— --are separators.

All elements preceding >— are called left-half of the rule, all elements following >— are called right-half of the rule. In the left-half, all elements preceding | are called the first constituent, all elements following | are called the second constituent. They are referred to by 1 and 2 if necessary.

Example: the preceding rule completed:

12 — *B* // | *C* // — *CAS* >— *A* // *CAS* (1.2).

As the full stop symbolizes the intersection, the case values of the resulting *A* will be those which form the intersection of all the case values of the first constituent of the left-half with all the case values of the second constituent.

Grammatical Variables: *

Their interest consists in the partitioning into equivalence classes of the terminal vocabulary V_T associated with the rules of type (2). The quotient sets are the syntactical categories in limited number.

The conditions of application which restore the neglected information in the different partitions, are of two types:

1. Imposed values of variables (*VVA*, *VVB*),
2. Intersection of non-empty values with the variables in common (*VIV*).

Prohibited Rules—Invalidations :^{5,6,7}

Definitions:

The rule numbered *I* invalidates on its left (and respectively, on its right) the rule numbered *J* with regard to its non-terminal category *A*, if—supposing *A* to be obtained by the application of *I—A* is not allowed to be the first constituent (respectively, the second one) of the left-half of the rule *J*.

The elements of *SAT* are: J_g, J_d , according to whether the invalidation is on the left or on the right. We write simply *J* if there is no ambiguity.

Transmission of Invalidations:

In the case of recursive rules, one can decide to transmit the invalidations from the left-half to the right-half.

Example:

1	— <i>B</i> //	<i>A</i> // —>	— <i>A</i> // —	2
2	— <i>A</i> //	<i>C</i> // —>	— <i>B</i> // —	
3	<i>a</i> //	>—	<i>A</i>	
4	<i>and</i> //	>—	<i>C</i>	
5	,//	>—	<i>C</i>	

The use of invalidations offers two advantages:

1. To regroup different syntactical categories into one and the same non-terminal category; the invalidations the two corresponding lexical rules carry along with them will differentiate their future syntactical behavior.
2. To diminish the number of structures judged to be equivalent and which are obtained by applying the grammar.

Thus the preceding example allows one to obtain a *unique* structure when analyzing the enumerations of the type:

a, a, . . . , a and a.

Extensions of the Proposed Formalism:

The above formalism remains context-free.^{6,7} One can think of extending it in order to handle the problems of discontinuous constituents that do not belong to context-free models.

1. Transfer Variables⁵

The problem is to generalize the concept of grammatical variables in order to allow two occurrences to agree

at a distance (e.g., agreement of the relative pronoun with its antecedent) and thus to treat in general the problem of discontinuous constituents.^{8,9,10,11}

The transfer variables created when applying a rule are transmitted to the element of the right-half until a rule calls them.

2. Push-down Storage of Transfer Variables—Treatment of Context-sensitive Structures⁵

The use of transfer variables in *limited* number permits us to treat context-free structures as well as structures of discontinuous structures that can easily be reduced to context-free structures.

The use of a push-down storage of transfer variables—as in an ordinary push-down automaton—permits the handling of essentially context-sensitive structures. That is, for instance, the case in structures using the word “respectively.”

Example: The string $ABCR A' B' C'$ implies coordinations between:

A and A'
 B and B'
 C and C'

So we write:

$RA' > \text{---} R, V_A$
 $RB' > \text{---} R, V_B$
 $RC' > \text{---} R, V_C$
 $CR > \text{---} R, \bar{V}_C$
 $BR > \text{---} R, \bar{V}_B$
 $AR > \text{---} R, \bar{V}_A$

$,V_A$ means that the transfer variable associated with the couple A, A' has been added to the push-down storage.

$,\bar{V}_A$ means that the transfer variable associated with the couple A, A' has been removed from the push-down storage.

One can imagine, moreover, several sorts of transfer variables forming several distinct push-down storages.

The languages thus characterized are to be included among the context-sensitive languages. It remains to be proved, eventually, that they can be identified with them.

ALGORITHM OF EXPLOITATION OF THE GRAMMAR

Scanning:

The analysis of a sentence according to a normal context-free grammar will furnish one or several binary arborescent structures.

One can conceive of a systematic search of these structures by considering first the construction of n groupings of level 1 (i.e., the application of the lexical rules), then the groupings of level 2 (i.e., corresponding to the combination of two syntagmas of level 1). More generally, when looking for the syntagmas of level p , one forms for each of them the $(p-1)$ possibilities: $(1, p-1), (2, p-2), (i, p-i) \dots (p-1, 1)$.

This algorithm, which we owe to Cocke^{12,13} presumes the length n of the sentence to be known beforehand. One can see that, by using such a process, all syntagmas of the same level and covering the same terminals are constructed simultaneously. We call level p of a syntagma the number of terminals it covers and q the order of the first of them in the string. If one writes σ_p^q for a node of a binary arborescent structure which has the level p and covers the terminal nodes $q, q+1, \dots, q+p-1$, one can associate with each structure covering n terminals, $2, n-1$ nodes (if we count the terminal ones). An example is given in Figure 2.

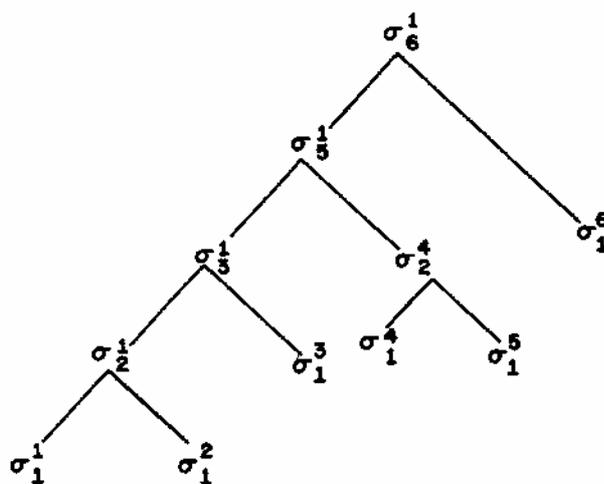


FIG. 2.—Example of a binary tree

On the other hand, it is clear that there are altogether no more than $n(n+1)/2$ distinct nodes σ_p^q : n of level 1, $(n-1)$ of level 2, etc., and a single one of level n .

The algorithm consists in examining all the possible nodes σ_p^q . Lukasiewicz^{14,16} has shown that $1/(2p-1) C_p^{2p-1}$ different structures can be associated with a node of level p .

To each given node the list of homographic syntagmas is attached. At level 1 this list furnishes the various homographs corresponding to the form.

The diagram of Figure 3 allows us to represent the nodes of a sentence of p words. The levels are entered on the ordinate and the serial number on the abscissa.

With the syntagmas S_ν corresponding to the node σ_i^q , we can associate the syntagmas S_μ of the node σ_k^{j+i-1} in order to form the combinations $S_{\nu\mu}$ associated with the node σ_{i+k}^j .

The program uses in fact such a framework, every node being the address of a list of syntagmas. As the length of the sentence is unknown, the nodes are scanned diagonally in succession.

If one supposes that all the syntagmas associated with the $j(j+1)/2$ nodes corresponding to the j first

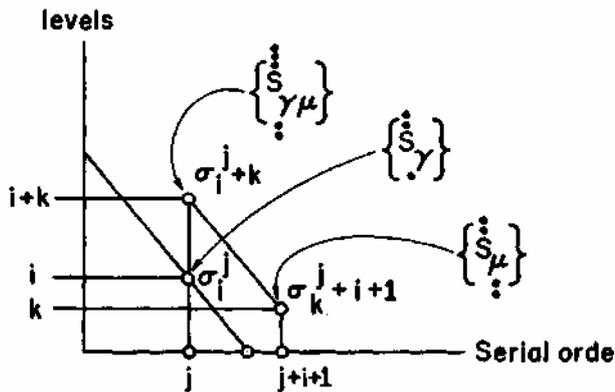


FIG. 3.—The intermediate syntagm locations

terminals have been constructed, the $(j + 1)$ st terminal allows the construction of the syntagmas corresponding to the $j + 1$ nodes on its diagonal. We start by examining all the σ 's of the j th diagonal with σ_j^{i+1} (construction of the syntagmas associated with the σ 's of the $(j + 1)$ st diagonal); then the σ 's of the $(j - 1)$ st diagonal with σ_j^j , etc. as in Figure 4.

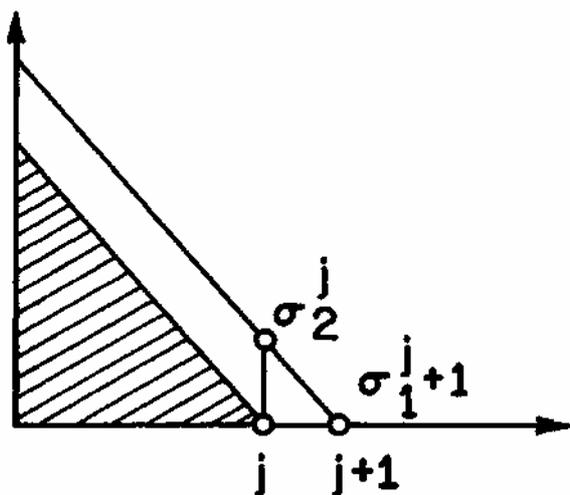


FIG. 4.—Means of construction of the syntagm lists

The advantage of this method is to remove the constraint of the length of the sentence. The analysis progresses word by word and stops at the word p if a syntagma of the sentence, attached to the node σ_p^1 , exists.

On the other hand, it is easy to avoid a good number of scannings whenever we know that all the syntagmas associated with a given node cannot be a left-half element of any rule.

Figure 5 shows this family of nodes.

Representation of Syntactical Structures:

With each node σ_p^q is associated a list of corresponding syntagmas. These syntagmas comprise, besides the syntactical information (i.e., the category, the structure,

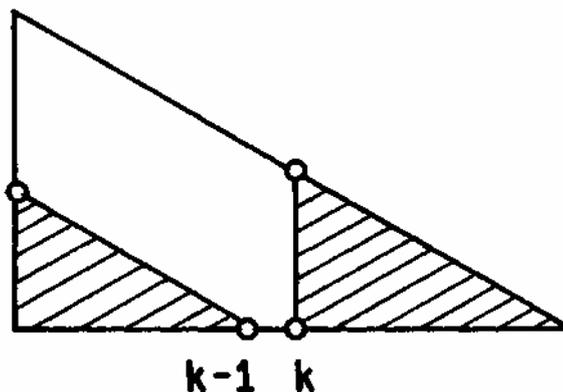


FIG. 5.—Means of construction of the syntagm lists

and the grammatical variables), the number of the rule that was used to construct them and the addresses of the two syntagmas, the left one and the right one, that constitute the left-half of that rule. This is shown in Figure 6.

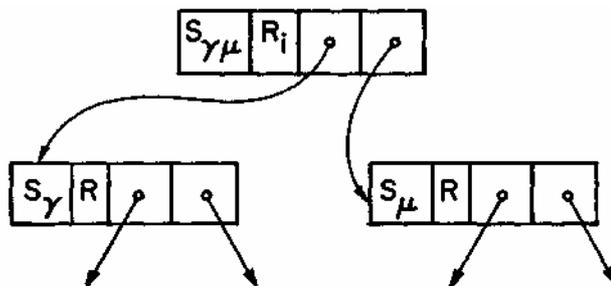


FIG. 6.—Basic elements of a list

Reduction of the Number of Homographs:

The list of homographic syntagmas associated with a given node can be reduced considerably if only those syntagmas are retained which have different syntactical values. The syntagmas associated with a node σ_p^q are then defined as a list of syntagmas which is associated with a list of rules, as in Figure 7.

This avoids the proliferation of homographic structures in the string, as is illustrated in Figure 8.

As the syntagmas S_1 and S_2 have the same syntactical value they will be grouped together. This homographic structure will not produce any multiplicity of structures on a higher level.

Exploitation of the Grammar:

The exploitation of the grammar depends on the scanning algorithm. For every syntagma newly encountered, one tries to find first of all this same syntagma as an element of the left-half of a rule. This exploits the category as well as the invalidation carried by the syntagma.

When such connections are allowed, the grammar rules are applied to the various couples: determination

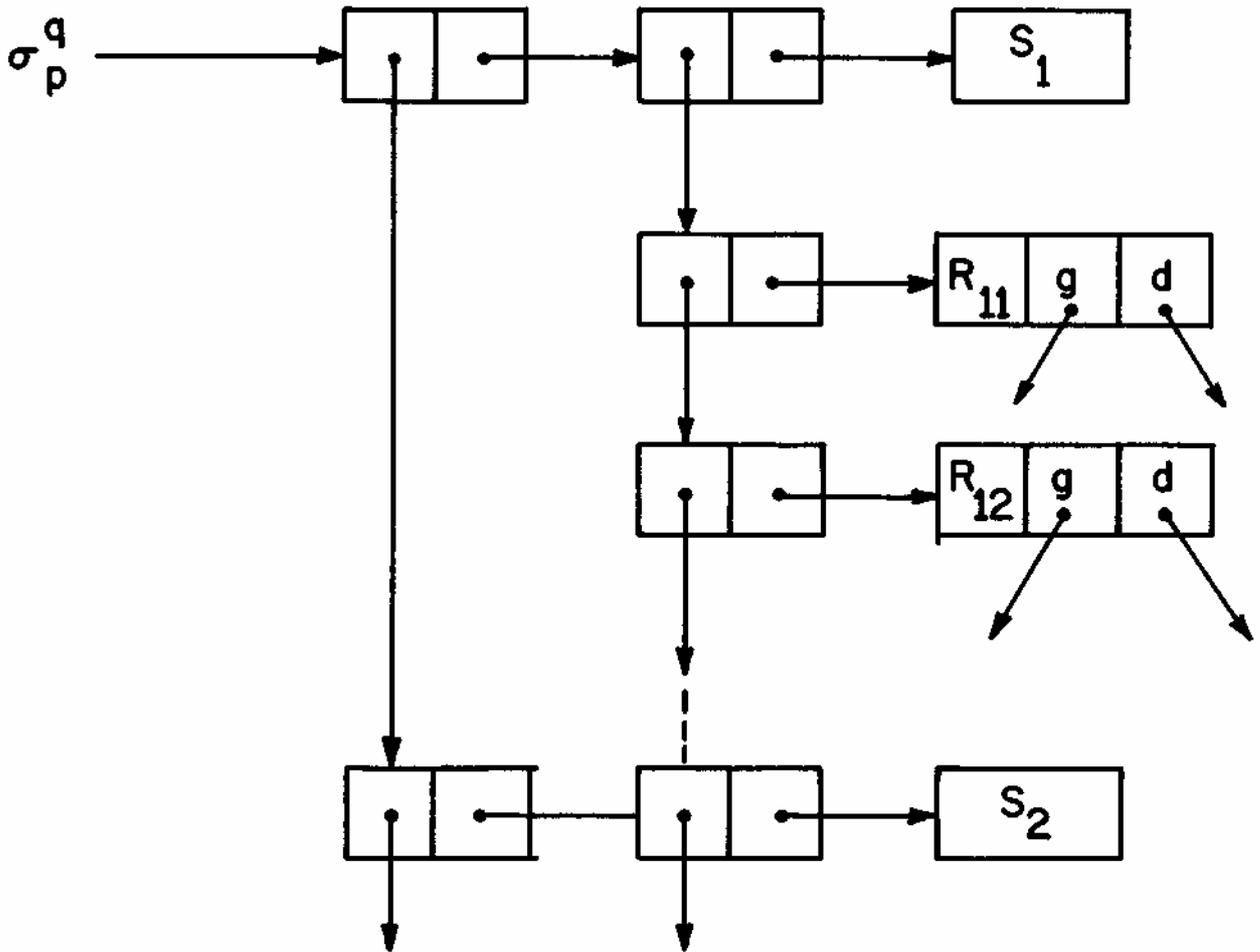


FIG. 7.—Factorization of equivalent syntagms

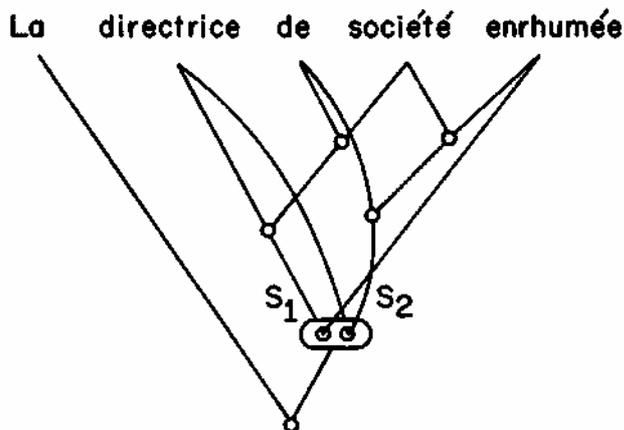


FIG. 8.—Factorization of equivalent syntagms

of the rule, conformity of the grammatical variables and of the invalidations, calculation of the syntagma. The internal codification of the grammar is done by a compiler which executes the rules written in the formalism described above.

Form of the Result:

Whenever a syntagma of type S_j^1 corresponds to a sentence, the analysis of the string is stopped. The result corresponds to the family of structures associated with the found syntagma of the sentence.

It appears as a structure of a half-lattice representing all the binary arborescences which contain all the common or homographie structures in a single connected graph.

Interpretation of the Syntactical Model

FORM OF THE STRUCTURES THAT ARE TO BE INTERPRETED

For simplification and in order to separate the theoretical part from the practical realization, we will consider

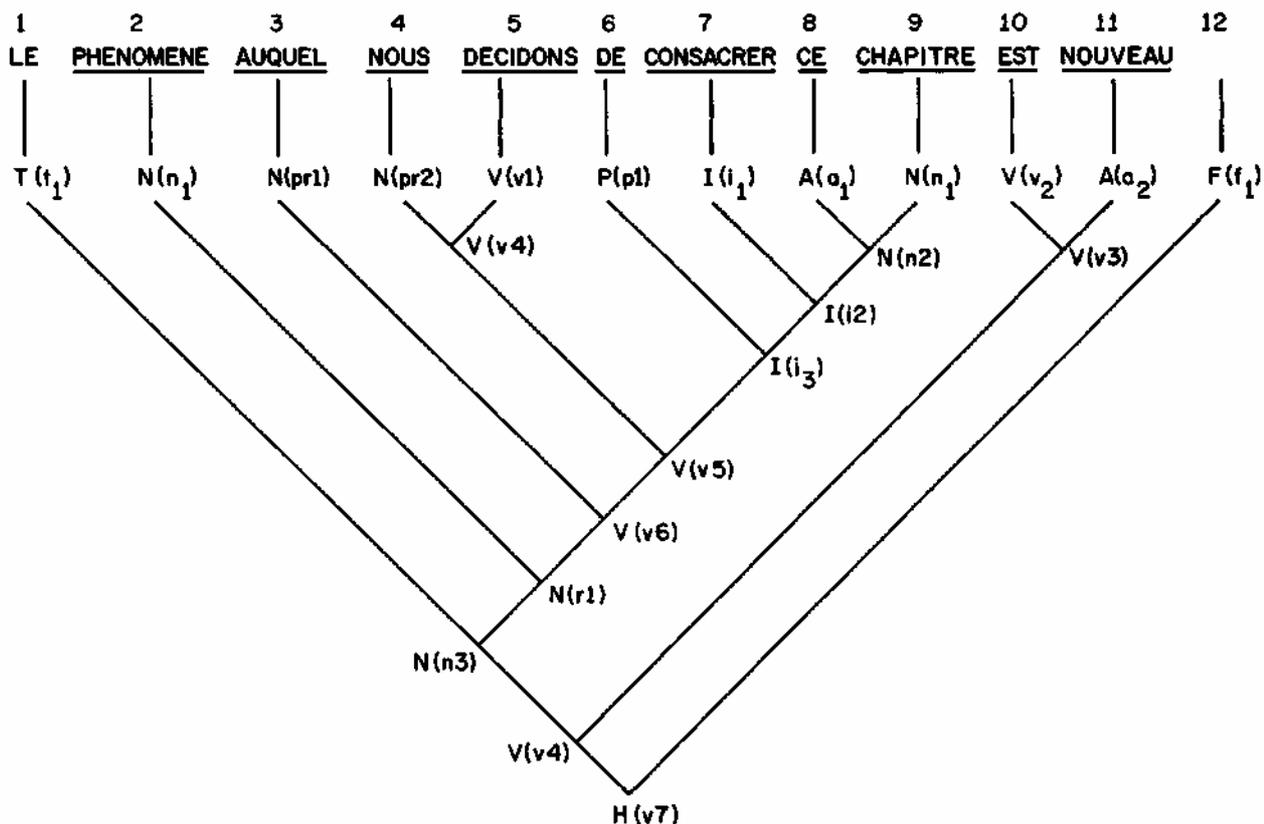


FIG. 9.—Result of formal syntax analysis of a French sentence

here only the case of a unique structure without any homographs.

Thus we are dealing with a binary arborescent struc-

ture in which each non-terminal node is an element of the non-terminal vocabulary of the grammar (syntagma). The terminal elements of the structure belong

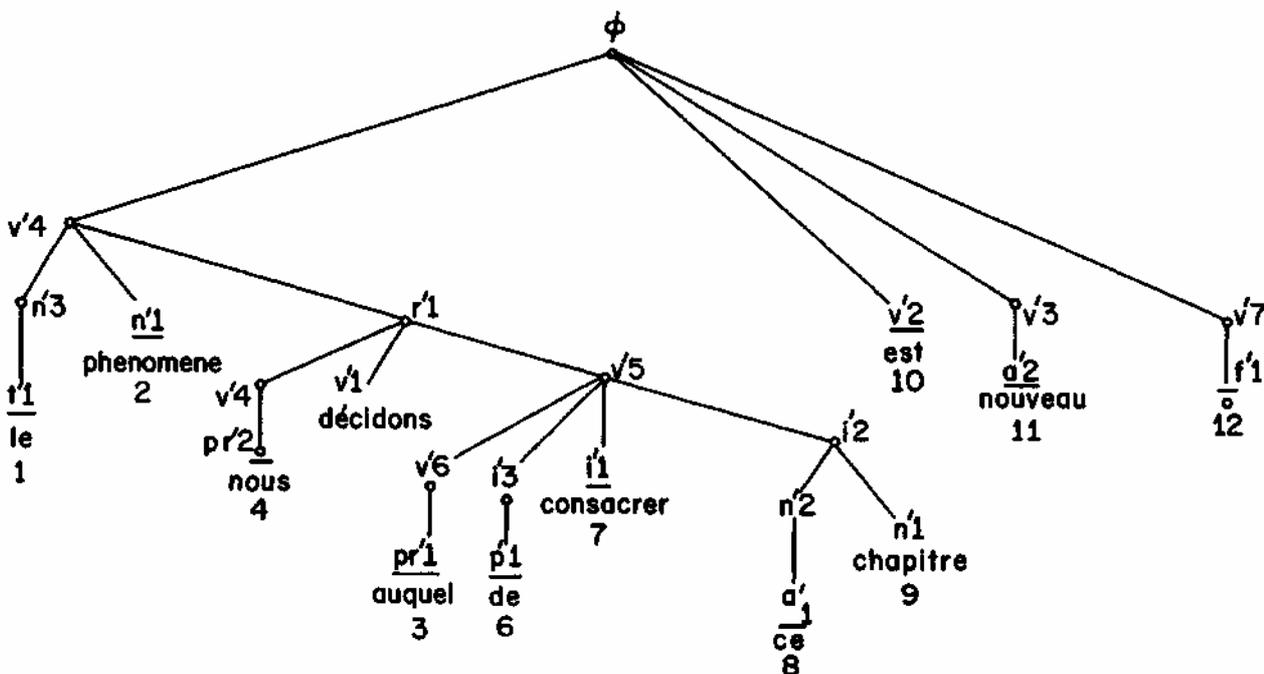


FIG. 10.—Result of syntactical interpretation of the same sentence as in Figure 9

to the terminal vocabulary and are connected with the non-terminal elements (lexical rules) of which they are the only descendants.

Moreover, at every non-terminal node, the name of the grammar rule (r_j) which allowed us to construct it, is to be added to the name of the node. See Figure 9.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF ENTRY OF MODEL M_3
(RESULTING FROM THE INTERPRETATION)

While until now we have had a structure over syntagmas, we shall be interested from now on in functions corresponding to an interpretation of grammar rules. The syntagmas allowed us to determine the constituents of the sentence and to deduce a structure from it. The interpretation is to furnish a new structure over the rules. In particular, the order function (the sequential order of the words of the text that constitutes the entry) can be modified. The resulting structure is limited to an arborescence.

The terminals of this new arborescence express in model M_2 the syntactical functions which depend on the lexical units. See Figure 10.

A node of the interpreted structure is a syntactical function for its antecedent. This antecedent is itself provided with a certain number of functions which characterize it. The structure is such that all the information necessary to characterize a node is given at the nodes of the next higher level. In general, there exists a distinguished element which characterizes the preceding node. This element (or this rule) could be defined as the "governor" in a dependency graph. This is the case, for instance, for v'_2 (*EST*) with regard to ϕ , or for n'_1 (*PHENOMENE*) with regard to v'_4 .

There exist, however, cases

a) where several distinguished rules are encountered:

Example: The enumeration of Figure 11, where n'_1 appears three times.

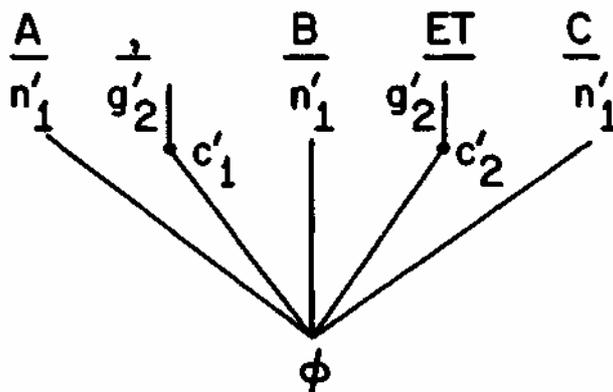


FIG. 11.—Case of several distinguished rules

b) where the distinguished rule does not lead directly to any terminal element.

Example: This is the case in Figure 12 for the node ϕ

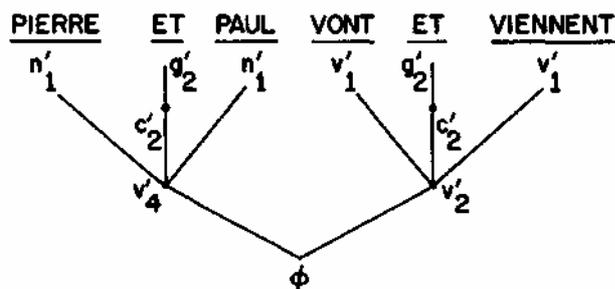


FIG. 12.—Case where the distinguished rule does not lead directly to any terminal element

where v'_2 , the distinguished rule, does not lead directly to VONT (or VIENNENT) but requires the intermediate v'_1 .

CONSTRUCTION PROCESS INTERPRETED STRUCTURE

The example which served previously as an illustration, and which corresponds to Figures 9 and 10, shows the formal structure and the interpreted structure, respectively. In order to carry out the transformation in which

- a) the syntagma names disappear,
- b) the rules r_j become r'_j ,
- c) the order of the elementary (terminal) syntagmas may eventually be modified
- d) the arborescence no longer shows a binary structure,

we appeal, on the one hand, to interpretation data concerning the rules r_j and, on the other hand, to exploitation algorithms of these data.

Interpretation Data:

The interpretation data are the following ones:

Each binary construction rule r_j of the form $AB \rightarrow C$ indicates by the symbol g or d that the distinguished constituent is the left-side A or the right-side B .

Each rule implying transfer variables VHL indicates by its own formalism of notation whether we have to do with the creation, the transmission, or the removal of each one of these transfer variables.

Algorithm of Exploitation:

1. Transformation Algorithm

The problem is to make a certain number of changes in the hierarchy of the structure as presented in Figure 9, in order to restore the correct connections in the case of discontinuous governments. The creation of a transfer variable is defined by:

- the symbol \downarrow associated with the creation rule;
- the transmission by the symbol $*$ associated with the transmission rule;

— the removal by the symbol \uparrow associated with the removal rule.

These symbols as well as g or d are written in the formal recognition phase.

A path of the graph in which the initial node contains the symbol \uparrow and the intermediate nodes contain the symbol $*$ is called an $*$ -path.

The final node is the one which follows the node containing the symbol \downarrow and is reached from the latter one by following the information \bar{g} (respectively, \bar{d}).

Let C_{ni}^* be an $*$ -path of length p beginning at node n_i'
 $C_{ni}^* = (n_i, ni+1, \dots, ni+p+i)$.

With each node n_{i+j} of C_{ni}^* is associated the sub-graph Γ_{i+j} , with the node n_{i+j} containing neither n_{i+j+1} nor its descendants.

The algorithm consists in dealing successively with all the C_{ni}^* of the graph, by starting from the root of the structure.

For every one of them, taken in this order, the treatment consists in:

a) transforming $C_{ni}^* = (n_i, n_{i+1}, \dots, n_{i+p}, n_{i+p+1})$ into the path (which is no $*$ -path) of length p : $C_{ni+1} = (n_{i+1}, \dots, n_{i+p}, n_i, n_{i+p+1})$ where the Γ_{i+j} remain attached to the nodes n_{i+j} with which they were primitively associated.

b) noting on the n_i as many different $*$ as $*$ -paths between n_{i+p} and n_{i+p+1} have been interrupted.

2. Algorithm for the Construction of the Nuclei

On the theoretical level, this algorithm is divided into two phases. First of all, we execute the following sequence of operations:

Starting with the terminal level and proceeding level by level, we assign to each node a noted symbol, either r_j deduced from the rule name rj of the immediately preceding node, or Λ .

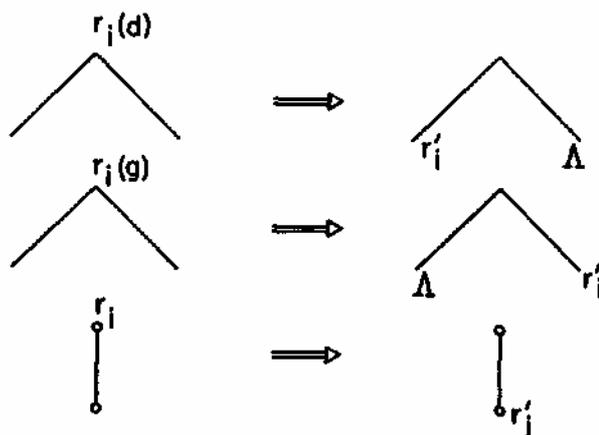


FIG. 13.—Transformation rules

The graphs of Figure 13 give the rule of assignment for all the possible cases. Figure 14 gives an example.

Moreover, in certain cases we will have rules of type $r_i(d, g)$; then the application rule will be as in Figure 15 (there is no r'_i).

Figure 16 shows the result of the application of the transformation algorithm and of this phase of the algorithm for the construction of the nuclei as applied to the formal structure of Figure 9.

Then the binary arborescence is transformed so as to constitute the nuclei of the sentence. In order to do this, all the paths of type $(R'_i, \Lambda, \dots, \Lambda)$ noted p'_i associated with each R'_i are considered in the resulting graph.

Then the graph (ρ'_i, G) , with $G(R'_i, \Lambda, \dots, \Lambda) = \Gamma(R'_i)\nu\Gamma(\Lambda) \dots$ is defined.

In practice, this graph is obtained by canceling the nodes Λ and restoring the connections of Λ with its successors by making them bear on R'_i . Thus the nodes R'_i are preserved.

For the case where there are two Λ under one

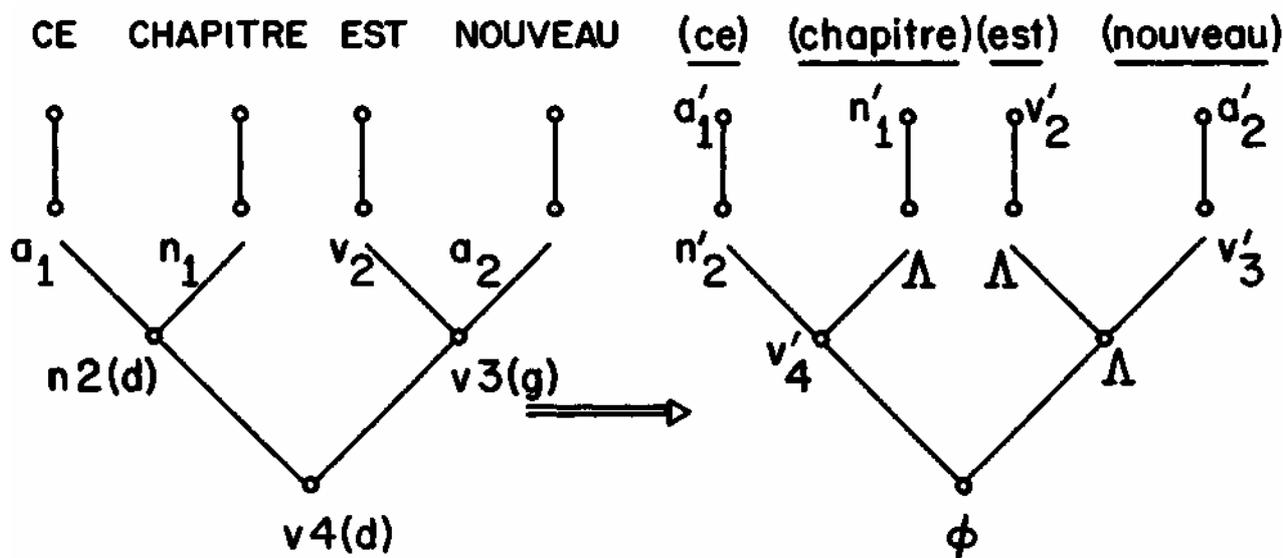


FIG. 14.—Transformation rules

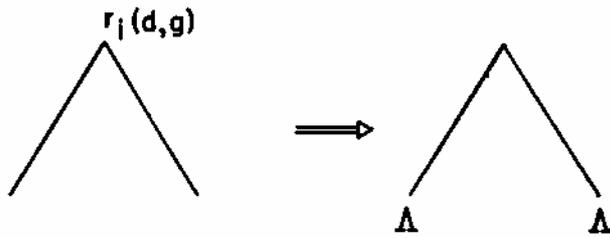


FIG. 15.—Transformation rules

R'_i, ρ'_i , is to be defined as the union of the paths ρ'^{nd}_i and ρ'^{gs}_i in order to define the transformed graph. This is the case, in particular, for the coordination shown in Figure 17.

Model M_8

This is an artificial language in which each formula is represented by a family of significant sentences which are equivalent in the source language L (and also in the target language so that the translation will be possible).

The "degree of significance" which can be reached in L depends, of course, on the model. We limit ourselves here to making obvious the syntactical significance.

Starting from the structure furnished by the syn-

tactical interpretation (Fig. 10) with regard to the chosen example, the formula derived in M_8 is the one given by the graph in Figure 16.

Model M_3 accepts an interpreted structure of M_2 if the rules of its grammar, after having taken into account the elements r'_j as well as the sememic codes associated with the lexical units, allow us to attach to the nodes elements of the vocabulary of M_3 (for instance: subject, action, attribution, etc.).

The result of application of model M_3 on the chosen example is shown in Figure 18.

Received July 19, 1965

References

1. Lamb, S. M., "Stratificational Linguistics as a Basis for Machine Translation," in Bulcsú Laszló (ed.), *Approaches to Language Data Processing*. The Hague: Mouton, in press.
2. Chomsky, N. "On Certain Formal Properties of Grammars," *Information and Control*, Vol. 2 (1959), pp. 137-167.
3. Nedobejkine, N., and Torre, L. *Modèle de la syntaxe russe—I. Structures abstraites dans une grammaire "Context-Free."* Document CETA G-201-I, 1964.
4. Colombaud, J. *Langages artificiels en analyse syntaxique*. Thèse de 3ème cycle, Université de Grenoble, 1964.

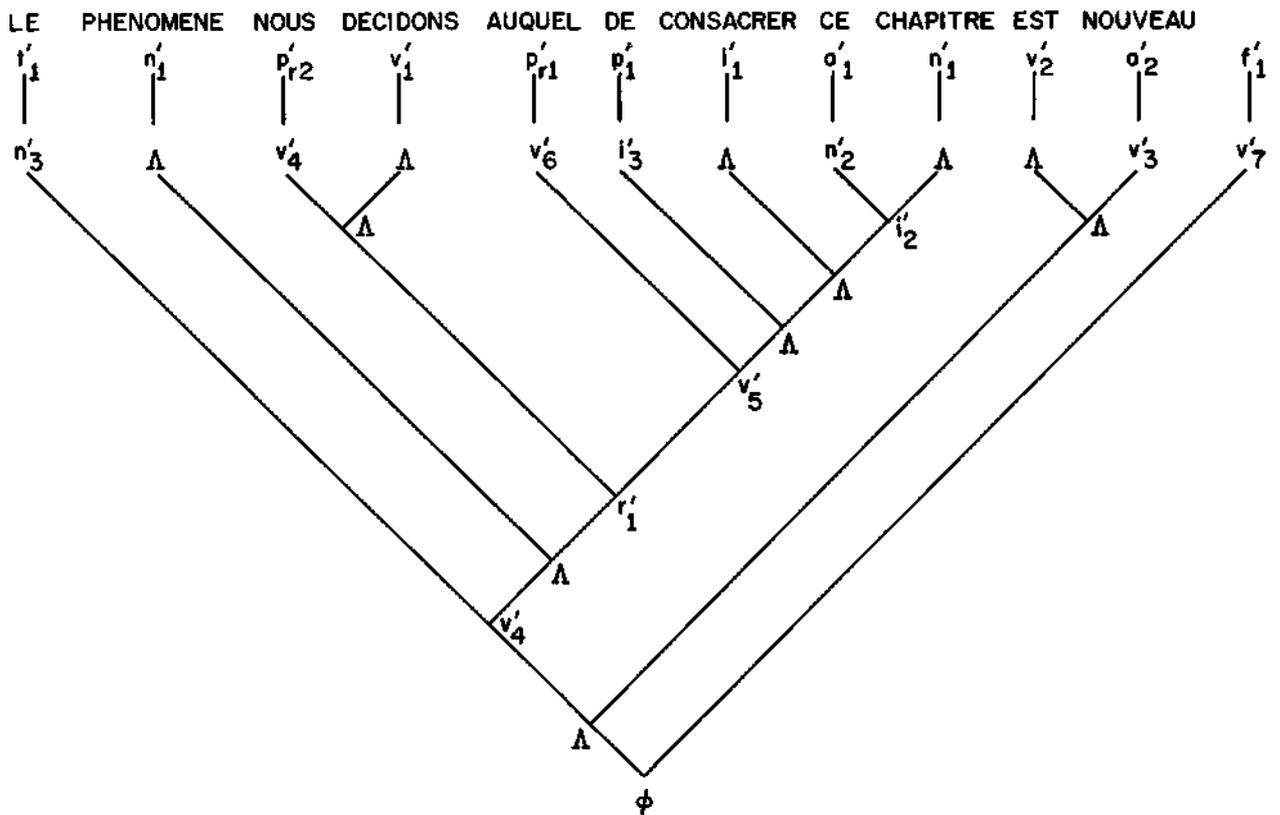


FIG. 16.—Intermediate step between formal syntax analysis result (Fig. 9) and syntactical interpretation result (Fig. 10), using the transformation rules.

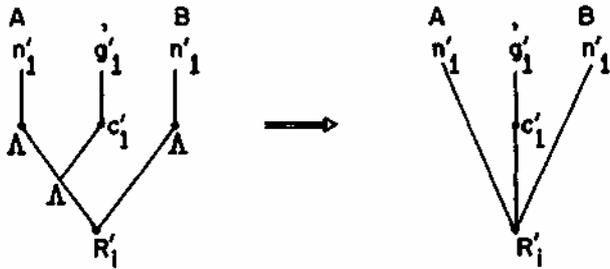


FIG. 17.—The handling of a coordination

5. Vauquois, B., Veillon, G., and Veyrunes, J. "Application des grammaires formelles aux modèles linguistiques end traduction automatique." Address at the Prague Conference, September, 1964.
6. Veillon, G., and Veyrunes, J. *Étude de la réalisation pratique d'une grammaire "Context-Free" et de l'algorithme associé.* Document CETA G-2001-I, 1964.
7. ———. "Étude de la réalisation pratique d'une grammaire 'Context-Free' et de l'algorithme associé," *Traduction Automatique*, Vol. 5 (1964), pp. 69-79.

8. Wells, R. S. "Immediate Constituents," *Language*, Vol. 23 (1947), pp. 81-117.
9. Yngve, V. H. "A Model and an Hypothesis for Language Structure," *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, Vol. 104 (1960), pp. 444-466.
10. Matthews, G. H. "Discontinuity and Asymmetry in Phrase Structure Grammars," *Information and Control*, Vol. 6 (1963), pp. 137-146.
11. ———. "A Note on Asymmetry in Phrase Structure Grammars," *ibid.*, Vol. 7 (1964), pp. 360-365.
12. Hays, D. "Automatic Language-Data Processing," in H. Barko (ed.), *Computer Applications in the Behavioral Sciences*, pp. 394-421. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.
13. Hays, D. G. (ed.). "Parsing," *Readings in Automatic Language Processing*, pp. 73-82 (esp. pp. 77, 78). New York: American Elsevier, 1966.
14. Berge, G. *Théorie des graphes et ses applications.* Paris: Dunod, 1958.
15. ———. *The Theory of Graphs and its Applications*, trans. by Alison Doig. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.

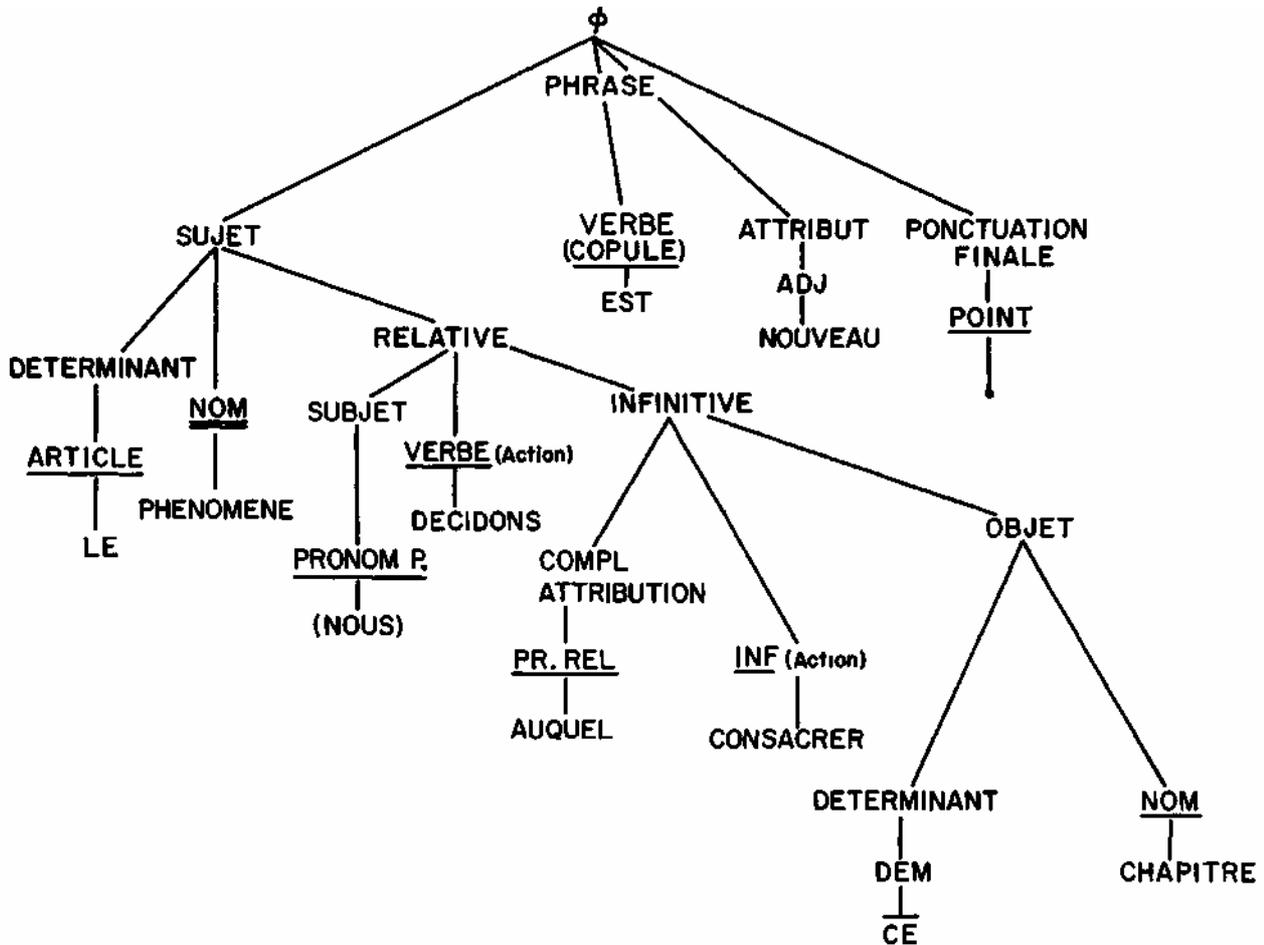


FIG. 18.—What a M_s representation could be