

Serial processing of two words becomes parallel when they combine to form a compound word

Amritha Anupindi*, Liana R. Eisler*, Alex L. White
* co-first authors

Barnard College, Columbia University

Corresponding author:

Alex White, alwhite@barnard.edu

3009 Broadway

New York, NY 10011

Acknowledgements

NIH grant R00 EY02936 supported this work. We are indebted to Nicole Oppenheimer and Kimya Firoozan for assistance with data collection.

Declaration of Interest

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 According to one model of reading, words are recognized one at a time because of a
3 bottleneck in the brain that cannot process two words simultaneously. Consistent with this serial
4 model, we first show that participants can report lexical information about only one of two
5 unrelated words that are flashed briefly above and below fixation and then masked. We then
6 investigate whether two words that compose a single compound word (e.g., bottle + neck) can
7 nonetheless be processed in parallel. The results demonstrate that indeed, under the same
8 conditions in which two unrelated words cannot be recognized simultaneously, accuracy for
9 recognizing either or both of two words that form a compound exceeds the prediction of the serial
10 model. This result complicates theories of a serial bottleneck in lexical access, especially in the
11 context of natural reading when words often form meaning jointly.

12

13 **Key words**

14 Word recognition; reading; visual attention; divided attention; language; parallel processing.

15

16

17 **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 18 • Skilled readers could not identify two unrelated words at the same time.
- 19 • Nonetheless, accuracy increased when two words formed a compound (e.g., pop+corn).
- 20 • Thus, compositional semantic relations between words facilitates parallel processing.
- 21 • Hypothesis 1: a serial process operates over linguistic units that span letter strings.
- 22 • Hypothesis 2: parallel processing is subconscious; conscious perception is serial.

23

24

25

26

27

1 **INTRODUCTION**

2 To understand how skilled readers read, we must determine how much information they
3 can process at each glance at a page. That information intake is constrained by processing capacity
4 limits inherent to the human visual system and linguistic functions in the brain. To read this page,
5 for instance, you must precisely shift your attention down each line to process the text in small
6 chunks (Rayner, 2009). That is primarily because words are not legible in peripheral vision.
7 Nonetheless, the “span” of legibility in the central visual field is wide enough to allow multiple
8 words to be read during a single gaze fixation (Legge, Mansfield, & Chung, 2001; Veldre, Reichle,
9 Yu, & Andrews, 2023; Yeatman & White, 2021).

10 Does that mean that readers extract semantic information from multiple words
11 simultaneously? On the one hand, some researchers argue for parallel processing of multiple
12 words, citing evidence such as the parafoveal preview effect on fixation durations in natural
13 reading (reviewed by Schotter, Angele, & Rayner, 2012). In experimental tasks, the sentence
14 superiority effect, transposed word effect, and flanker effects have also been cited to support
15 computational models that assume that readers distribute their attention to process multiple
16 words in parallel during each gaze fixation (reviewed by Snell & Grainger, 2019).

17 On the other hand, serial models of reading propose that readers process one word at a
18 time, via shifts of attention from word to word within each fixation (Pollatsek, Reichle, & Rayner,
19 2006). One series of experiments has provided support for the serial model by suggesting that it
20 is not possible to recognize two English words at exactly the same time (White, Palmer, &
21 Boynton, 2018, 2020). In these experiments, two randomly selected words were flashed briefly on
22 either side of fixation and then replaced by post-masks (as in Figure 1 below). The key
23 manipulation was that participants were either pre-cued to attend covertly to one side in order
24 to semantically categorize just one word, or they were pre-cued to attend to both sides in order
25 to categorize both words independently. The result was that accuracy in the divided attention
26 condition dropped so far that it supported an ‘all-or-none’ serial model: participants could
27 recognize one of the two words on each trial but had to make a random guess about the other.
28 The post-masks were key to this result: they prevented participants from being able to process
29 one word and then shift their attention, serially, to the other word.

1 Converging evidence is provided by several other studies that used the same approach to
2 limit the time available to process pairs of words, but with variations on the types of stimuli and
3 task requirements (Brothers, 2022; Campbell, Oppenheimer, & White, 2024; Johnson, Palmer,
4 Moore, & Boynton, 2022). These behavioral results were also supported by fMRI evidence that
5 the “visual word form area” in left ventral temporal cortex also responds to just one word at a
6 time (White, Palmer, Boynton, & Yeatman, 2019).

7 In all of that prior research, the words presented simultaneously were randomly selected
8 and unrelated (for an exception, see Brothers, 2022). In natural text, however, words make
9 meaning jointly. To investigate whether compositional semantic relations facilitate parallel
10 processing, we adapted the divided attention paradigm described above and introduced pairs of
11 words that form compound words (e.g., stair + case). Our question is whether such words can be
12 processed together even under conditions when two unrelated words cannot be recognized
13 simultaneously.

14 In Experiment 1, participants first engaged in a divided-attention lexical decision task like
15 those described above. Replicating prior results, divided-attention accuracy supported the serial
16 model: participants could recognize only one word per trial. Then the same subjects performed a
17 second task with nearly identical stimulus sequences, except the task was to report whether the
18 two words formed a compound word. If only one of the two words could be processed on each
19 trial, then accuracy for this “compound word judgment” should be at chance. As shown below,
20 it was not.

21 In Experiment 2, we directly compared processing capacity for word pairs that do or do
22 not form compounds with a novel full-report typing task. Again, two words were flashed briefly
23 followed by post-masks, and participants were prompted to type in the word they saw at one
24 post-cued location. Most word pairs were unrelated, but unbeknownst to the participants, some
25 formed compound words (e.g., water + fall). Unlike in Experiment 1, these participants were not
26 searching for compound words and were motivated to process each of the two words
27 independently on each trial. Nonetheless, the data show that the relation between two words that
28 form a compound can be detected, despite the apparent one-word-at-a-time processing
29 bottleneck.

1 In both experiments, we placed the words just above and below the point of gaze fixation.
2 This is not the format in which words are typically read, nor is it a typical way to present the two
3 halves of a compound word. But we chose this arrangement for two reasons: first, the two words
4 are both close to fixation and equally legible; second, this arrangement has provided strong
5 evidence for serial processing of two unrelated words (White et al., 2020). Our experiments
6 therefore provide a strict test of the hypothesis that compositional semantic relations between
7 two words can facilitate parallel processing.

8 9 **EXPERIMENT 1**

10 **Methods**

11 *Participants*

12 10 volunteers (6 female, 2 male, 2 non-binary, ages 18-23 years) with normal or corrected-
13 to-normal visual acuity participated in Experiment 1 in exchange for fixed monetary payment
14 (\$20/hour). Each subject gave informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki
15 and the Barnard College Institutional Review Board. All subjects were naïve to the purposes of
16 the experiment and reported learning English before the age of 5. On the composite TOWRE-II
17 Test of Word Reading Efficiency (Torgesen, Rashotte, & Wagner, 1999), the mean score was 114
18 (SEM = 3.7). Nine of ten participants scored above the norm of 100.

19 In the tradition of visual psychophysics, this study used a relatively small number of
20 participants but many trials and multiple testing sessions per participant, with individually
21 calibrated stimuli. The sample size was chosen ahead of data collection by a power analysis of a
22 previous experiment that had a similar design (White et al., 2020). We estimated that at least 6
23 participants were needed to distinguish the fixed-capacity parallel and all-or-none serial models.
24 We rounded up to 10 to be conservative and consistent with previous experiments. Each
25 participant completed two tasks: a lexical decision task, and then a “compound word judgment
26 task.”

1 **Lexical decision task with unrelated words**

2 *Equipment and Stimuli*

3 We used custom MATLAB software (MathWorks) and the Psychophysics Toolbox
4 (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997) to present stimuli on a ViewPixx 3D screen (VPixx Technologies) with
5 a 120 Hz refresh rate and 1920 x 1080-pixel resolution. The background brightness was set to the
6 screen's maximum (100 cd/m²). The stimuli consisted of a black fixation mark and black letter
7 strings. The fixation mark was made of a black cross 0.38 degrees of visual angle (°) wide, with a
8 0.1° white dot at its center, and a thin black ring around it (0.38° diameter). The letter strings were
9 written in Courier New font. The height of the letter "x" was 0.6°.

10 The stimulus set was composed of 820 real English words and 785 pronounceable
11 pseudowords. Both categories were divided equally into strings of three, four, five, and six letters
12 long. The real words came from all syntactic categories, ranging in lexical frequency from 2.4 to
13 6.3 Zipf (mean = 4.5). Zipf is a standardized measure of word frequency calculated through an
14 adjustment of the log frequency per million words (Brysbaert & New, 2009; van Heuven,
15 Mandera, Keuleers, & Brysbaert, 2014). The pseudowords were generated from the MCWord
16 database (Medler & Binder, 2005) to have constrained trigram statistics, which makes them
17 pronounceable and similar to real words. **Tables S2 and S3** at the end of the *Supplementary*
18 *Materials* list all the words used in the experiment.

19 The post-masks were strings of non-letter characters drawn in a false font, BACS-2 Serif,
20 which has several visual features matched to Courier New (Vidal, Content, & Chetail, 2017). Each
21 post-mask was a real word from the stimulus set, of the same length as the word that preceded
22 it, but presented in the illegible false font.

23

24 *Eye-tracking*

25 The subject's right eye gaze position was monitored at 500 Hz by an Eyelink 1000+ video-
26 based eye tracker (SR Research). If the recorded right eye gaze position moved too far from the
27 fixation mark during stimulus presentation, the trial was immediately terminated. Terminated
28 trials were repeated at the end of the block, unless fewer than three trials remained. This applied

1 to 10.7% (SEM = 2.4%) of trials on average in the lexical decision task. For more details, see the
2 *Supplementary Materials*.

3

4 *Trial Sequence*

5 Each trial began with participants focusing on the fixation mark for a minimum of 200ms,
6 followed by a 500 ms pre-cue. On divided attention trials, two green pre-cue lines, 0.16° long,
7 appeared superimposed on the upper and lower arms of the fixation cross (**Figure 1A**). On
8 focused attention trials, only one green pre-cue line indicated the side (above or below) to be post-
9 cued. After a 500ms blank interval containing only the fixation cross, two letter strings appeared
10 for 33ms, positioned above and below fixation and centered at 1.5° eccentricity, matching the
11 stimulus positions used in the lexical decision task from Experiment 2 of White et al (2020). Each
12 letter string had an independent 50% chance of being drawn from either of the two lexical
13 categories (real word and pseudoword). The only constraints were that the letter strings on either
14 side of fixation could not be identical, and neither string could have appeared in the previous
15 trial.

16 The words were followed by an inter-stimulus interval (ISI), containing only the fixation
17 mark. The ISI duration was set to each participant's threshold in the focused attention condition
18 (mean ISI = 8 ms, SEM = 2.6 ms, range = [0 25]), as determined by a pre-test (see *Supplementary*
19 *Materials*). After the ISI, two post-masks were presented for 250ms, at the same locations and with
20 the same number of letters as the preceding words. Following another 100 ms blank interval (not
21 shown in Fig. 1a), a post-cue appeared to indicate which word should be judged. The post-cue
22 was a green line like the focused pre-cues. 500 ms after the post-cue appearance, a 25 ms click
23 sound was played, which prompted the subject to press a key to report the lexical category (real
24 or not real word) of the letter string on the side indicated by the post-cue. Keypresses before the
25 click were not recorded. On focused attention trials, there was only one post-cue and one response
26 (to the one word that was pre-cued). On divided attention trials, subjects were asked to judge
27 both words in a random order. After the first post-cue, click, and keypress response, the post-cue
28 reversed to the other side. 300 ms later, a second click prompted the second response.

1 Subjects pressed one of four keys (*a, s, d, or f*) with their left hand for words in the top
2 location, or one of four keys (*m, <, >, or ?*) with their right hand for words in the bottom location.
3 For each hand, from left to right, the keys indicated “sure pseudoword,” “guess pseudoword,”
4 “guess real word,” and “sure real word.”

5 Feedback about response accuracy (regardless of confidence level) was given with 100 ms
6 auditory beeps (high pitch for correct, low pitch for incorrect). On focused attention trials, the
7 feedback beep was played 350 ms after the participant’s keypress. On divided attention trials,
8 both feedback tones were played after both responses were recorded. After a 500ms inter-trial
9 interval (ITI), the next trial began.

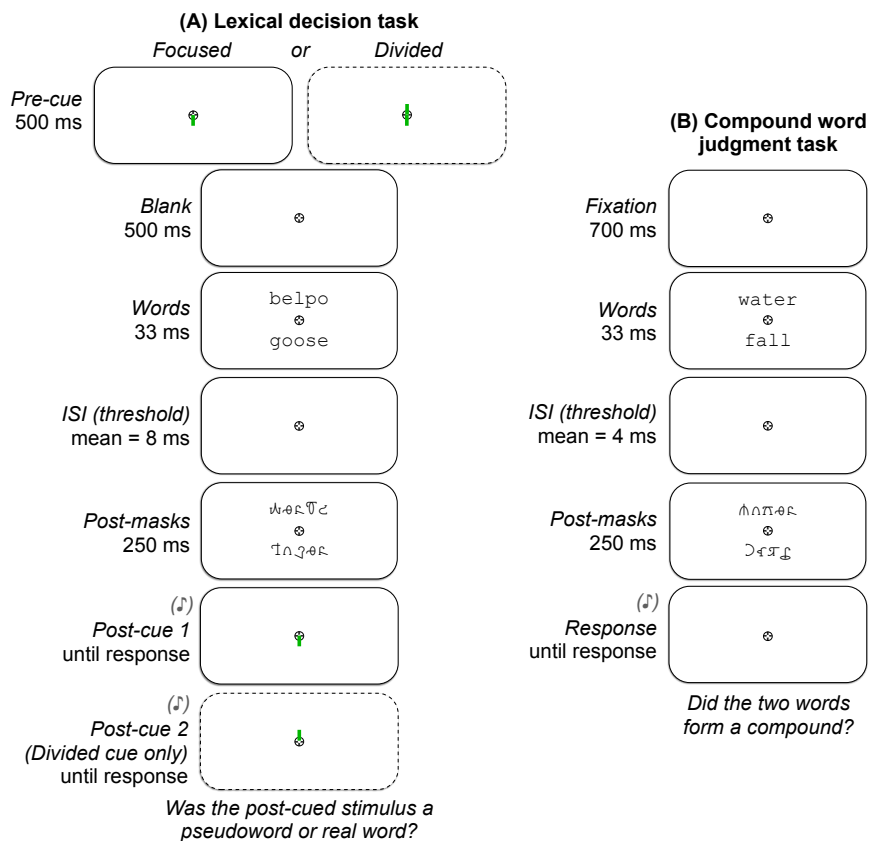
10 The cue condition (focused top, focused bottom, or divided) was blocked. Blocks of 20
11 trials each were run in sets of four: two divided attention and one of each focused attention
12 condition (above and below), in a random order.

13

14 *Organization of experimental sessions*

15 The lexical decision task required four to five 1-hour sessions. In session 1, subjects
16 completed the TOWRE test of word reading efficiency, received instructions, practiced the task,
17 and ran a staircase procedure that adjusted the duration of the ISI to their 75% correct threshold
18 in the focused attention condition (details in the *Supplementary Materials*). The main experiment
19 began in session 2. The ISI was set to the staircase estimate and then adjusted as needed to
20 maintain focused attention accuracy between 70 and 90% correct. Any run of 4 - 12 blocks with
21 an ISI that was too high or too low was discarded and re-run. This exclusion applied to four
22 blocks for two subjects, 8 blocks for one other, and 12 blocks for one other. The ISI did not differ
23 between focused and divided attention conditions within each set of four blocks. Testing sessions
24 continued until each subject had completed a total of 50 blocks (1,000 trials).

25



1
 2 **Figure 1.** Example trial sequences. **(A)** Lexical decision task. The example shows either a focused
 3 attention trial with the target on the bottom side, or a divided attention trial (dashed outlines).
 4 The focused cues were equally likely to point to the top side or the bottom side. Not shown is a
 5 100 ms blank between the post-masks and the post-cue. The musical notes (♩) indicate clicks that
 6 were played 500 ms after each post-cue onset, prompting the participant to respond. **(B)**
 7 Compound word judgment task. On a minority of trials (not represented here), the ISI was set to
 8 400 ms. The musical note (♩) indicates a click that was played 300 ms after the post-masks offset,
 9 prompting the keypress response. In both tasks, feedback for each response's accuracy was
 10 delivered with a beep.

11
 12 *Analysis*

13 We used the confidence ratings to compute accuracy in units of area under the receiver
 14 operating characteristics (ROC) curve, A_g , a bias-free measure of accuracy in each condition
 15 (Pollack & Hsieh, 1969). A_g ranges from 0.5 (chance) to 1.0 (perfect). One can think of A_g as an
 16 unbiased estimate of proportion correct.

17
 18

1 **Compound word judgment task**

2 The same 10 participants then completed the following compound word task. All methods
3 were the same as in the lexical decision task except as indicated reported below.

4

5 *Stimuli*

6 The stimulus set (see Supplementary **Table S3**) was constructed from 193 English
7 compound words divided into their constituent words (e.g., waterfall → water + fall). These
8 compound words were defined as whole words that often appear in written form without a space
9 between the two constituents. The set included both semantically transparent (e.g., arrowhead)
10 and opaque (e.g., deadline) compound words. There were 293 unique constituent words, each of
11 which appeared on average 2.6 times within the stimulus set and 3.3 times in the experiment for
12 each subject. The constituent words came from all syntactic categories, ranging in length from
13 three to six letters and ranging in lexical frequency from 2.8 to 6.3 Zipf (mean = 4.6). The whole
14 compound words ranged in lexical frequency from 1.8 to 6.2 Zipf (mean = 3.1). 14 of the 193
15 compound words did not appear in the SCOPE SUBTLEX-US Zipf database, but all were verified
16 as being familiar compounds by five research assistants.

17

18 *Trial Sequence and Procedure*

19 On each trial, two real words were presented simultaneously above and below fixation
20 (**Figure 1B**). The word above fixation was always the first constituent of a compound word (e.g.,
21 “stair” in staircase), and the word below fixation was the second constituent of a compound word
22 (e.g. “neck” in bottleneck). On half of all trials, the two constituent words were paired correctly
23 to form a compound word together. On the other half of trials, the two constituent words came
24 from different compounds. A given pair of words appeared on average 1.3 times in the
25 experiment for each subject. Subjects completed 500 trials total in this experiment (20 blocks of 25
26 trials each).

27 There were no pre- or post-cues. Each subject’s word-to-mask ISI duration was matched
28 to the last ISI used for that subject in the lexical decision task. The ISIs across subjects ranged from
29 0-17ms (mean = 4ms, SEM=1.6ms). On 33% of all trials, the ISI was set to 400 ms instead of the

1 threshold ISI. These provided the subjects with some “easy” trials and allowed us to ensure that
2 the task was easy when subjects were given more than enough time to process both words (see
3 Supplementary Figure S2).

4 300 ms after the offset of the post-masks, a beep prompted the participant’s response.
5 Responses before the beep were not recorded. Participants pressed one of four keys (*a*, *s*, *d*, or *f*),
6 which indicated, in order left to right, “sure not compound word,” “guess not compound word,”
7 “guess compound word,” and “sure compound word.” Auditory feedback was given as in the
8 lexical decision task. On average, 9.7% (SEM = 2.2%) of trials were terminated due to fixation
9 breaks.

10 This compound word task required one 1-hour session. Subjects received instructions and
11 practiced the task before completing 20 blocks (25 trials per block).

12

13 **Results**

14 *Accuracy in the lexical decision task supports the all-or-none serial model*

15 Lexical decision accuracy, reported in units of area under the ROC curve (A_g), was on
16 average 0.82 (SEM = 0.008) in the focused cue condition. It was considerably lower in the divided
17 cue condition, by a mean difference of 0.18 (SEM = 0.05, $t(9) = 10.79$, $p < 10^{-5}$; BF = 8826). To compare
18 this large deficit to the predictions of three different models, we plot our data on attention
19 operating characteristics (AOCs; Sperling & Melchner, 1978). The mean AOC, shown in **Figure**
20 **2A**, plots accuracy for words above fixation against accuracy for words below fixation. The two
21 focused-attention accuracies are pinned to their respective axes. The accuracy with divided
22 attention forms a single point (open circle) in that 2-D space, which we then compare to the
23 predictions made by three quantitative models of capacity limits (Bonnell & Prinzmetal, 1998;
24 Scharff, Palmer, & Moore, 2011; Sperling & Melchner, 1978; White et al., 2018). Note that these are
25 not all possible serial and parallel models, but they provide clear benchmarks against which to
26 compare task performance. The three models are:

27 1. *Independent parallel model*: Two stimuli can be processed simultaneously just as well as
28 single stimuli with focused attention. Thus, there is no cost to dividing attention. In the

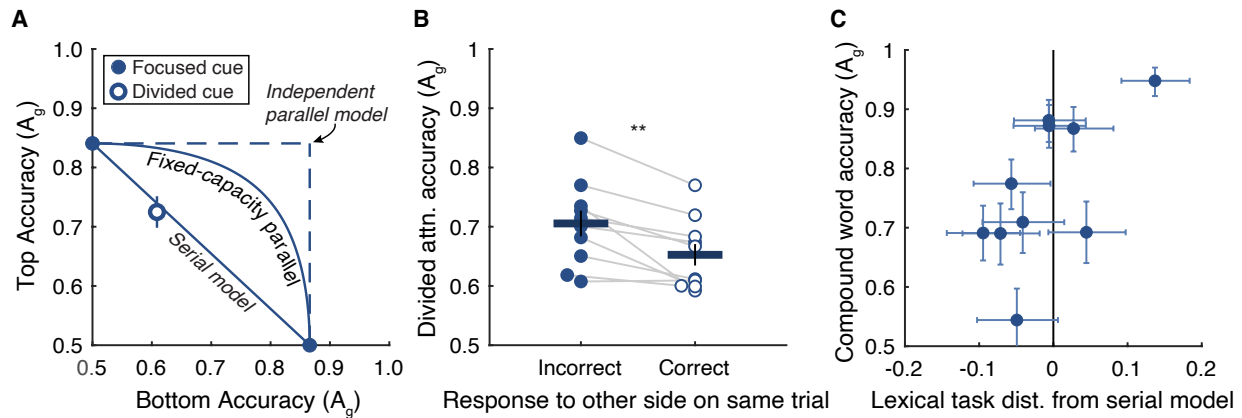
1 AOC, this model predicts that the divided attention point will fall at the intersection of
2 the dashed lines.

3 2. *Fixed-capacity parallel model*: The perceptual system can extract a fixed amount of
4 information from the entirety of the stimulus display on each trial. Processing resources
5 are devoted to just one word in the focused cue condition but shared between two words
6 in the divided attention condition, thus, there is a modest deficit. This model traces the
7 black curve in the AOC.

8 3. *All-or-none serial model*: The meanings of words are processed one at a time. Because the
9 post-masks appear after an interval set to each participant's threshold, there is just enough
10 time to recognize one word with focused attention. In the divided attention condition,
11 participants can therefore process one word fully. If they then try to process the second
12 word, it has been replaced by the post-masks, which removed any sensory memory trace.
13 Therefore, only one word can be processed per trial, with equal accuracy as in the focused
14 attention condition. When participants are asked to judge the word they did not process,
15 they make a random guess. This model traces out the diagonal black line in the AOC.

16
17 As shown in **Figure 2A**, mean accuracy for the lexical decision task was best predicted by
18 the all-or-none serial model. To test each model statistically, we constructed AOCs for each
19 participant (see Supplementary **Figure S1**) and then computed the Euclidean distances between
20 the divided attention point and the nearest points on the serial model's prediction line and the
21 fixed capacity parallel model's prediction curve. Points below the predictions were assigned
22 negative values. **Table 1** lists statistics on the means of these two distances. Divided attention
23 accuracy significantly below the fixed-capacity model's prediction but was indistinguishable
24 from the serial model's prediction. Evaluated individually, all but one participant was best
25 predicted by the serial model (**Figure S1**).

26



1
2 **Figure 2.** Results of Experiment 1. (A) Mean attention operating characteristic (N=10) for the
3 lexical decision task. Solid points pinned to the axes represent focused attention accuracy (in units
4 of area under the ROC curve, A_g). The open point represents divided attention accuracy. Error
5 bars are ± 1 SEM. Divided attention accuracy is closest to the all-or-none serial model's prediction.
6 Individual subject AOCs are plotted in the Supplementary Material. (B) Stimulus processing
7 tradeoff effect on accuracy (A_g) in the divided attention condition of the lexical decision task.
8 Horizontal bars show across-subject means. Each dot is an individual participant's data, with
9 each participant's two points connected by a thin gray line. The asterisk indicates $p < 0.01$. (C)
10 Individual participants' accuracy (A_g) in the compound word judgment task plotted against their
11 result from the lexical decision task; specifically, the x-axis is the distance of each participant's
12 divided attention point to the all-or-none serial model (see Table 1). Both horizontal and vertical
13 error bars represent 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals.

14
15 Thus, the AOC analysis allows us to reject both parallel processing models and supports
16 the serial model: participants could fully process only one of the two words (or pseudowords)
17 presented on each trial. These results match what has been reported before in a similar study with
18 unrelated word pairs (White et al., 2020).

19

Model of Comparison	Mean	SEM	t	p	95% Confidence Interval	Bayes Factor
Fixed-capacity parallel	-0.105	0.02	4.798	0.001	[-0.138 -0.051]	42
All-or-none serial	-0.012	0.02	0.542	0.601	[-0.044 0.036]	0.35

20 **Table 1.** Lexical decision performance: Mean distances of the divided attention point from the all-
21 or-none serial and fixed-capacity parallel processing models. Statistics were computed by two-
22 tailed t-tests, with 95% confidence intervals and Bayes Factors.

23
24

1 *A stimulus processing tradeoff also supports the serial model for the lexical decision task*

2 The all-or-none serial processing model further assumes that there is a trial-by-trial
3 tradeoff between the two words, because participants can process only one per trial. This predicts
4 that accuracy for each side (top word or bottom word) should be lower on trials when the
5 response to the other side was *correct* than on trials when the response to the other side was
6 incorrect (Braun & Julesz, 1998; Lee, Koch, & Braun, 1999; White et al., 2018, 2020). For example,
7 if the response to the top word is correct, the top word was probably processed and therefore the
8 response to the bottom word is less likely to be correct.

9 We tested that prediction by separating all responses on divided attention trials into two
10 sets: (1) the response to the other side on the same trial was correct, and (2) the response to the
11 other side on the same trial was incorrect. Within each set, we computed accuracy (A_g). These
12 data are plotted in **Figure 3B**. The horizontal bars are the means and each participant's two data
13 points are connected by a thin gray line. Accuracy was significantly worse when the response to
14 the other side was incorrect than correct (mean difference = 0.053, SEM = 0.012; $t(9) = 4.06$, $p =$
15 0.003 ; BF = 17.3). This negative correlation between accuracies for the two responses is rare for
16 dual-task performance, and, like the AOC analysis, rejects the two parallel models described
17 above and supports the serial model.

18

19 *Accuracy in the compound word task nonetheless exceeds the serial model's prediction*

20 In the compound word judgment task, participants also viewed pairs of words flashed at
21 the same positions and masked after the same brief interval. The task was to report whether the
22 two words together formed a compound (like stair + case or grand + father), which was true on a
23 random 50% of the trials. On the remaining trials, the same individual words were mismatched
24 to not form compounds (e.g., stair + father). In one sense, this is also a lexical decision task: to
25 report whether the two letter strings together form a single word or not.

26 A strict version of the serial model would assume that participants in this task are still
27 able to identify only one of the two letter strings per trial. This predicts that accuracy in the
28 compound word judgment task should be at chance ($A_g = 0.5$, or 50% correct), because identifying

1 any one word provides no information as to whether the other word formed a compound with it
2 or not.

3 However, accuracy on trials with the threshold-level ISI greatly exceeded the chance level
4 (mean $A_g = 0.767$, SEM = 0.037, 95% bootstrapped CI = [0.19 0.33]; $t(9) = 6.84$, $p < 0.0001$; BF = 362).
5 This rejects the strict all-or-none serial model's prediction. (See Supplementary **Figure S2** for an
6 analysis of accuracy in units of d').

7 **Figure 2C** further demonstrates how the serial model fails to account for compound word
8 accuracy at the level of individual participants. Each participant's accuracy in the compound
9 word judgment task (y-axis) is plotted as a function of their distance from the serial model in the
10 divided-attention lexical decision task (x-axis). These distance metrics are negative when lexical
11 decision accuracy was lower than the serial model predicted.

12 All participants except one performed significantly above chance in the compound word
13 task (in Fig. 2C their vertical 95% CIs exclude 0). That is true even when their lexical decision
14 performance was near or worse than the serial model's prediction. (Only one participant,
15 represented by the rightmost dot in Figure 2C, outperformed the serial model in the lexical
16 decision task). This result should not have occurred if the participants could recognize only one
17 half of each compound pair, as would be predicted by their lexical decision performance.

18 We may also make a prediction based on the independent parallel model. It assumes that
19 both letter strings are processed simultaneously, with the same accuracy as when attention is
20 focused on one word at a time. We may further assume that the probability of a correct response
21 in the compound word task is the product of the probabilities of correct responses to the top and
22 bottom words in the focused attention conditions of the lexical decision task. In other words, the
23 probability of correctly determining that the two words form a compound is the joint probability
24 of recognizing both words independently. The mean $p(\text{correct})$ predicted by this model is 0.659
25 (SEM=0.018), which was somewhat *lower* than the empirical compound word accuracy levels
26 (mean difference = 0.087, SEM=0.129, 95% CI = [0.001 0.159], $t(9) = 2.03$, $p = 0.0724$; BF = 1.336).
27 Thus, the prediction based on independent parallel processing of the two words comes close to
28 *underestimating* the empirical compound word judgment accuracy.

1 One concern is that participants saw the words in this experiment more than once.
2 Although each individual word was equally likely to appear in a compound pair or scrambled
3 pair, it is possible that learning compound words boosted accuracy. However, we also analyzed
4 the subset of trials when each word pair appeared for the first time (see Supplementary **Figure**
5 **S2**). Accuracy still exceeded chance by a healthy margin. Therefore, the above-chance accuracy is
6 not due to learning of compound word pairs.

7 8 *Interim Discussion*

9 For the lexical decision task with pairs of unrelated words, we reject two standard parallel
10 processing models in favor of a serial model (one word processed per trial). The serial model
11 accounts for both the cost of dividing attention and the negative stimulus processing tradeoff in
12 accuracy, replicating prior experiments with unrelated word pairs (White et al., 2020).
13 Nonetheless, the serial model cannot account for above-chance accuracy in the compound word
14 recognition task, in which participants viewed very similar stimulus sequences as in the lexical
15 decision task. This suggests that when two words combine to form a compound word, they can
16 pass through any “bottleneck” in the word recognition circuitry together.

17 One interpretation of this result is that the serial bottleneck arises at the stage of lexical
18 access: identifying a set of input letters with a concept in memory. The set of input letters could
19 be divided into two strings with space between them (as in the experiments here). Thus, the
20 compound word result is compatible with the serial model, if we assume the serial processing
21 does not apply to single letter strings, but rather to single lexical items that can span multiple
22 letter strings.

23 If this account is true, one may ask whether such holistic processing of multiple letter
24 strings depends on the participants’ voluntary effort to process them in that manner (which they
25 were doing in the compound word judgment task). Experiment 2 was designed to answer that
26 question.

1 **EXPERIMENT 2**

2 Experiment 2 investigated whether the two words that happen to form a compound can
3 be processed in parallel, under conditions when compound words are rare and unexpected, and
4 when participants attempt to process the two words independently.

5 Subjects were presented with two real words on each trial and their task was to report one
6 post-cued word by *typing* it into a text box (see **Figure 3**). In separate blocks, a pre-cue either
7 instructed participants to focus attention on the top side or bottom side (because they would only
8 be asked to report the word on that side), or to divide attention between both sides (because they
9 could be asked to report either one of the two words). On 70% of all trials, the two words
10 presented together were unrelated. Participants were always motivated to process the two words
11 independently as best they could. On a random 15% of trials, the two words formed a compound
12 word – for example, “cow” above fixation and “boy” below. Participants were not informed of
13 the presence of compound words and almost never noticed them, as demonstrated by debriefing
14 interviews after the experiment. The primary control condition that provides the baseline against
15 which we compare accuracy used “scrambled compound” pairs: the halves of two different
16 compound words were mismatched. We also included a “reversed compound” condition when
17 the two halves of one compound word were in reverse order (the second word on top).

18

19 **Methods**

20 All methods were the same as in Experiment 1 except for as described below.

21

22 *Participants*

23 13 volunteers (all female, ages 18-22) were recruited in the same manner and from the
24 same pool as in Experiment 1, again with informed consent. The sample size was determined
25 based on a power analysis of a pilot experiment with a similar design. On the composite TOWRE-
26 II Test, the mean score was 112 (SEM=2.4), with all but one of the participants scoring above the
27 norm of 100.

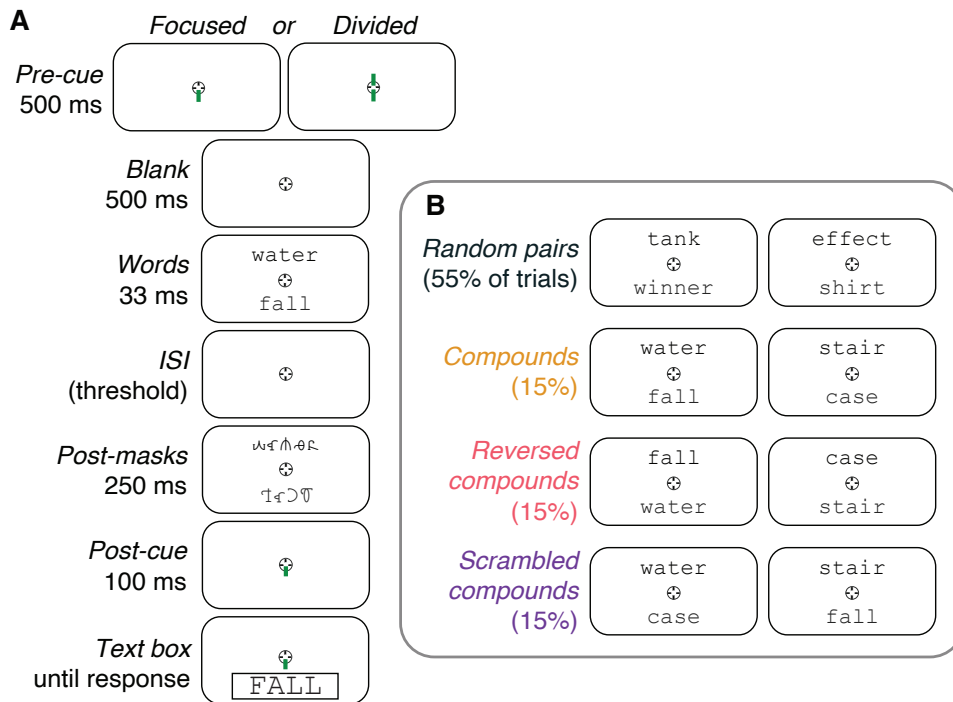
28

29

1 *Stimuli*

2 The stimulus set (which is reproduced in full in the *Supplementary Materials, Tables S4-*
 3 *S6*) consisted of 918 English nouns from the MCWord database, ranging in length from three to
 4 six letters and in lexical frequency from 2.0 to 6.7 Zipf (mean = 4.4). 242 words were selected such
 5 that they could form 121 compound words when combined in pairs (e.g., “water” and “fall”). As
 6 in Experiment 1, this set included both semantically transparent and opaque compound words.
 7 66.4% of the compound words also appeared in Experiment 1. The remaining 676 nouns that did
 8 not form compound word pairs were used for the “random pair” condition. The distributions of
 9 length, concreteness, orthographic neighborhood, and lexical frequency in the “compound” word
 10 set were roughly matched to the “random” set (see the *Supplementary Materials*).

11



12

13 **Figure 3.** Design of Experiment 2. (A) Example trial sequence, which could be a focused attention
 14 or divided attention trial, depending on the pre-cue. The mean threshold-level inter-stimulus
 15 interval (ISI) was 12 ms (range 0 to 33 ms). The participant’s task was to type in the word they
 16 saw on the post-cued side (in this case, the bottom side). Not shown is a 100 ms blank interval
 17 between the post-masks and the post-cue. Central gaze fixation was enforced. (B) Examples of
 18 the four different word pair types, along with the percentage of trials in which they appeared.

19

1 *Trial sequence and procedure*

2 The trial sequence, which is illustrated in **Figure 3A**, was the same as the lexical decision
3 task of Experiment 1 except as indicated here. At the end of the trial, a post-cue (green line)
4 pointed to either the top or bottom side, followed 100 ms later a black-outlined text box appeared,
5 centered 2.1° from fixation on the same side as the post-cue. (The post-cue remained visible along
6 with the text box). The post-cued side matched the pre-cue on focused attention trials and was
7 equally likely to be the top or bottom on divided attention trials. The response was prompted by
8 the appearance of the text box, with no accompanying beep (unlike Experiment 1). The participant
9 then had unlimited time to *type in* the word they had seen on the post-cued side. The letters they
10 typed appeared in capital letters within the text box, and they could delete letters as necessary,
11 then press the return key once they were satisfied. Feedback for correct or incorrect responses
12 was delivered with beeps as in Experiment 1.

13 As shown in **Figure 3B**, there were four types of word pairs: (1) *Random pairs*: two
14 randomly selected nouns from the set that do not form compounds. These pairs appeared in 55%
15 of trials. (2) *Compound pairs*: the two words formed a compound word in the correct order, for
16 example “sun + flower” and “grand + father.” The first constituent word (e.g., sun in sunflower)
17 appeared above fixation, while the second constituent (e.g., father in grandfather) appeared
18 below fixation. (3) *Reversed compound*: two words could form a compound but were presented in
19 reverse order, with the second constituent on top and the first constituent on bottom. For
20 example, “flower + sun” and “father + grand.” (4) *Scrambled compound*: the two words presented
21 together were mismatched constituents from two different compound word pairs. The top word
22 was the first constituent from one compound pair and the bottom word was the second
23 constituent from another. For example, “sun + father” and “grand + flower”.

24 The “non-compound” condition was presented in 55% of trials, while the other three
25 conditions were presented in 15% of trials each (randomly intermixed). The participants received
26 no explicit information about these conditions, were not aware that some word pairs would form
27 compound words, and were solely instructed to enter the *single* post-cued word for each trial
28 (even on divided attention trials). Importantly, the scrambled compound condition is the baseline

1 against which we compare the reversed and compound conditions, as they all used the same set
2 of constituent words.

3 The study required 2-3 one-hour sessions per participant. Following the instructions in
4 the initial session, the participant practiced the task with slow stimulus presentation. Then we
5 used a staircase procedure to estimate participant's threshold for the stimulus-mask ISI, as in
6 Experiment 1 using focused cue trials only. The staircase converged on the 67% correct threshold.
7 Then each participant completed 640 trials of the main experiment (in 32 blocks of 20 trials). The
8 cue condition (focused top, focused bottom, or divided) was blocked, and the word pair types
9 were randomly intermixed.

10 Throughout the experiment we adjusted the word-to-mask ISI to keep each participant's
11 focused-attention accuracy between 65% and 85% correct. Any run of 4 to 12 blocks with an ISI
12 that was too high or too low was discarded and re-run. The mean number of excluded blocks per
13 subject was 4 (ranging from 0 to 16). The mean ISI on included trials was 12 ms (SEM = 2.5 ms,
14 range across participants 0 to 33 ms).

15

16 *Analysis*

17 Our primary method of analyzing accuracy in this full-report typing task is to score a
18 response as "correct" if the typed letter string exactly matches the post-cued word. This is a strict
19 measure of how well the words were perceived, and it is the basis of the primarily analyses
20 presented below. Specifically, $p(\text{correct})$ is the proportion of trials with an exactly correct response.
21 To construct the AOCs from these data, we must specify the chance level of accuracy (accuracy
22 achieved if the participant makes totally random guesses). This chance level forms the origin of
23 the AOCs. To estimate the chance level, we assume that a participant with 0 information about
24 the target word would type a word drawn randomly from the set of all 1,794 words that were in
25 a set of unique words that includes the stimulus set and all words entered by all participants.
26 Thus, the chance level is effectively 0: $1/1794 = 0.00057$.

27 For these AOCs, we can compute the all-or-none serial model's prediction (diagonal line
28 between the two focused cue accuracy points) and the independent parallel model's prediction
29 (focused cue accuracy = divided cue accuracy). However, we lack the fixed-capacity parallel

1 model for this task, as it has only been developed for 2-alternative forced-choice tasks like that
2 used in Experiment 1. Therefore, we simply computed the minimum distance between each
3 participant's divided-attention accuracy point and their own serial model's prediction.

4 An alternate method to compute accuracy is the "edit distance" between the participant's
5 typed response and the target word that was presented. This metric could be sensitive to partial
6 information about the words that the participant perceived. However, as briefly described in the
7 discussion section below and reported at length in the *Supplementary Materials*, the analyses of the
8 edit distance led to the same conclusions as the analyses of p(correct).

9

10 Results

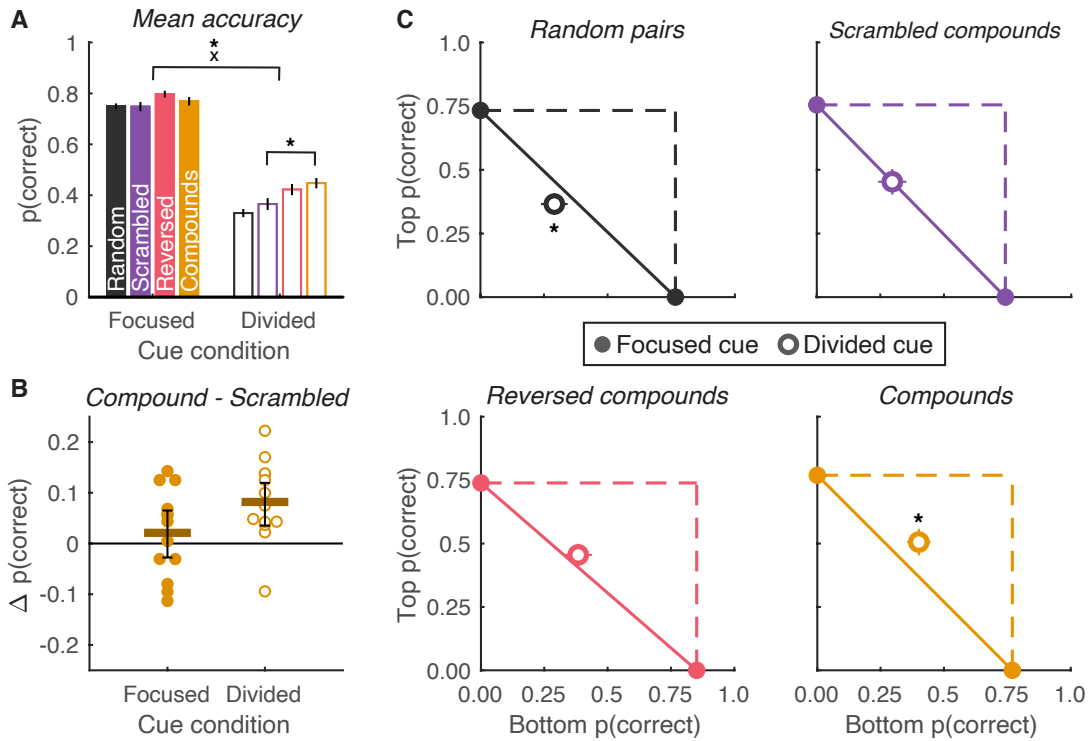
11 *Accuracy is affected by the semantic relations between words in each pair*

12 **Figure 4A** plots the mean p(correct) in the focused and divided cue conditions, separated
13 by word pair type. To analyze these data, we fit a linear mixed effects model to each participant's
14 proportion correct, with fixed effects of cue and word pair type, and with random slopes and
15 intercept by participant. First, overall accuracy in the divided attention condition was
16 significantly lower than that in the focused attention condition ($F(1,96)=401$, $p<10^{-35}$). Mean
17 accuracy on focused cue trials was 0.76 (+/- 1 SEM = 0.01), while accuracy on divided cue trials
18 was 0.37 (+/- 0.02). Accuracy also varied across word pair types ($F(3,96) = 19.4$, $p<10^{-9}$), and word
19 pair type interacted with cue condition: $F(3,96) = 15.4$, $p<10^{-7}$).

20 To interpret that interaction, within each cue condition we computed pairwise
21 comparisons between each word pair type and the "scrambled compound" condition, which
22 serves as our baseline. After correcting for false discovery rate ($q=0.05$), only one significant
23 difference emerged: under divided attention, accuracy in the correctly ordered "compound"
24 condition was greater than the "scrambled" compound condition ($t(12)=3.69$, FDR-corrected p-
25 value = 0.018, $BF=15$). **Figure 4B** plots that difference estimated from individual subjects' accuracy
26 levels, for both focused and divided cue conditions. In the divided cue condition, all but one
27 participant had higher accuracy on compound word trials than scrambled word trials.

28 This finding demonstrates that when participants divided attention because they could
29 be asked to report either word, they were sensitive to the occasional semantic association between

1 the two words as occurred when they formed a compound word together. That association
 2 improved the participants' ability to report either of the constituent words.



3
 4 **Figure 4: Results of Experiment 2.** (A) Mean accuracy: the proportions of trials with correctly
 5 reported words in each condition. Error bars are ± 1 SEM. The central asterisk and “x” indicate the
 6 significant main effect of cue condition and the interaction between cue condition and word pair
 7 type. Within each cue condition, we compared all word pair types to the “scrambled compounds”
 8 baseline condition. The lower asterisk indicates the only significant difference: between
 9 compound pairs and scrambled compounds in the divided attention condition. (B) The *differences*
 10 in accuracy between trials with compound word pairs and scrambled compound pairs, separately
 11 for each cue condition. Each dot is an individual participant, and the horizontal lines are the
 12 means. Error bars in black indicate 95% confidence intervals. (C) Attention Operating
 13 Characteristics (AOCs) for each word pair type, constructed from mean accuracy levels. Error
 14 bars are ± 1 SEM. Asterisks indicate that the minimum distance between the divided-attention
 15 accuracy point and the serial model’s prediction line is significantly different from 0 (FDR
 16 corrected for the 4 comparisons).
 17

18 The next step is to test the serial model with AOCs for each word pair type (Figure 4C).
 19 For each word pair type, we constructed AOCs for each participant, computed the minimum
 20 distance between the divided-attention accuracy point and the serial model prediction, and then
 21 conducted a one-sample t-test on the 13 participants’ distance measures. Those statistics are

1 reported in **Table 2**. For the random pair condition, accuracy was significantly *worse* than the
 2 serial model predicts, highlighting the great difficulty in processing two unrelated words at the
 3 same time. For the scrambled compound and reverse compound conditions, accuracy was not
 4 distinguishable from the serial model’s prediction (both $BF < 1$). But for the compound word pairs,
 5 accuracy significantly exceeded the serial model’s prediction, by about 9 percentage points in
 6 accuracy ($BF = 7.6$). Thus, under the exact same conditions in which participants could only report
 7 one of two words presented in an unrelated pair, their accuracy improved when the two words
 8 happened to form a compound together. The AOC suggests that some parallel processing of the
 9 two words is possible in that condition, although with limited capacity.

10

Word pair type	Mean	SEM	$t(12)$	FDR-corrected p	BF	95% CI
<i>Random pairs</i>	-0.073	0.020	-3.51	0.0143	11.6	[-0.110, -0.035]
<i>Compound</i>	0.092	0.027	3.23	0.0143	7.64	[0.037, 0.146]
<i>Reversed</i>	0.046	0.032	1.39	0.2516	0.615	[-0.018, 0.100]
<i>Scrambled</i>	-0.008	0.043	-0.19	0.8543	0.283	[-0.080, 0.083]

11 **Table 2. Tests of the serial model in Experiment 2.** For each word pair type (in rows), this table
 12 lists statistics on the distances between the divided attention accuracy point (in units of
 13 proportion correct) and the nearest point on the serial model’s prediction line. BF = Bayes Factor;
 14 CI = confidence interval.

15

16 Participants were generally not aware that compound words were presented.
 17 Immediately after completing their last block of trials, the participant was asked, “Did you notice
 18 any relationship or pattern between the words?” All but two of the participants said no. Of these
 19 two participants, one noticed varying levels of difficulty among certain word pairs but remained
 20 skeptical that there was an underlying reason for it. The other reported noticing a single
 21 compound word (grass + hopper).

22 Nonetheless, there are two concerns to address: the first is biased guessing. The guessing
 23 hypothesis is that participants perceived only one word on the “compound” word pair trials, and
 24 when prompted to report the other side, they guessed a word that *would* form a compound with

1 the word that they did perceive. This could explain the higher performance for compound word
2 pairs, even if only one of the two words were recognized per trial. However, our data provide
3 evidence to rule out this hypothesis. Specifically, we analyzed *incorrect* responses on scrambled
4 compound trials in the divided attention condition. We counted how often participants reported
5 a word that *did* form a compound with the word on the other side of the screen (which was not
6 post-cued). 9 of 13 participants never did that. The remaining subjects guessed a compound on
7 only 1 or 2 of these error trials. In the whole set of 628 error responses on scrambled-compound
8 divided-attention trials, there were a total of 7 responses that did form a compound. Therefore,
9 the relatively high accuracy for compound word pairs cannot be attributed to biased guessing.

10 The second concern is the occasional repetition of words. Each word was presented to
11 each participant on average 2.3 times (including practice, staircase, and main experiment blocks).
12 Each word was the post-cued target 1.7 times on average. Upon seeing a word for the second time
13 during the experiment, the participant may process it faster, which could be especially beneficial
14 on compound word trials. Overall, accuracy in the divided attention condition was slightly higher
15 when a word repeated than when it appeared for the first time (mean benefit = 0.04, SEM=0.02).
16 According to a linear mixed effect model, the increase in p(correct) was not quite significant
17 ($F(1,4182)=3.21$, $p=0.073$), and it did not interact with word pair type ($F(3,4182)=0.26$, $p=0.85$).

18 We also constructed AOCs using only trials when *both* the words appeared for the first
19 time (roughly 33% of the data). Accuracy for scrambled compound pairs was still close to the
20 serial model's prediction (mean distance = -0.02), while accuracy for compound pairs was just as
21 high above the serial model's prediction as in the main analysis of all trials (mean distance =
22 0.091). The standard error of that distance was larger (0.050 compared to 0.027), due to using a
23 subset of the trials, and thus the t-test was not significant in this sub-analysis ($p=0.15$).
24 Nonetheless, the slight benefit to overall accuracy when words repeated did not specifically
25 benefit compound word pairs and cannot explain the main results reported above.

26 27 *Interim Discussion*

28 Experiment 2 confirms that when participants tried to recognize both of two *unrelated*
29 words presented above and below fixation, they could report only one and made random guesses

1 when asked about the other. Nonetheless, when the two words happened to form a compound
2 word (as occurred unexpectedly on a minority of trials), accuracy rose modestly but significantly
3 above the serial model's prediction.

4 Another unexpected result is that divided-attention accuracy for the "random pairs" was
5 significantly *below* the serial model's prediction (upper left of Figure 4C). This suggests that
6 participants could recognize only one word per trial, but they were slightly more likely to make
7 an error in reporting it than in the focused-attention trials. This is not easy to explain, but it is the
8 *scrambled* compound condition that provides the best control to compare against the compound
9 word condition. The words in each scrambled pair were also unrelated to each other (like in the
10 "random pairs" condition) and came from the same word set as those in the compound condition.
11 In the scrambled condition, mean accuracy fell directly on top of the serial model's prediction.

12 The proportion-correct data analyzed above provide a strict test for how well participants
13 could precisely report whole words. But might participants have perceived *partial* information
14 about two words at once? If so, when they made an error, they may have reported a word that
15 shares some letters with the target word. We also addressed this possibility by computing the
16 "edit distance" between each target word and the word participant's type in, then normalized by
17 the length of each word. This alternate measure of accuracy, which we call $p(\text{letters correct})$, can
18 be considered the mean proportion of *letters* correctly reported.

19 As shown in **Supplementary Figure S4**, analyses of the $p(\text{letters correct})$ were largely
20 consistent with the results reported above. For the random pairs and scrambled compound pairs,
21 accuracy on the AOC was statistically indistinguishable from the serial model's prediction. For
22 compound word pairs, accuracy was clearly higher than the serial model's prediction.
23 Interestingly, for reversed compound pairs, accuracy was also significantly above the serial
24 model, but by roughly half as much. Thus, there is some evidence that the association between
25 the two halves of a compound influenced performance even when they were in the wrong order.
26 Overall, the analysis of $p(\text{letters correct})$ demonstrates that the 'serial bottleneck' also applies to
27 partial or sub-lexical processing of two unrelated words (Campbell et al., 2024), and confirms the
28 significant benefit for words that form compounds together.

29

1 GENERAL DISCUSSION

2 *Summary*

3 In two experiments, we investigated capacity limits for processing pairs of words that
4 form compound words, as compared to pairs of unrelated words. The data in both experiments
5 demonstrate that a compositional semantic relation allows two words to pass simultaneously
6 through the theorized “serial bottleneck” in word recognition (White, Boynton, & Yeatman, 2019).

7 First, the divided-attention lexical decision task in Experiment 1 demonstrated that two
8 unrelated words could not be fully processed (to the point of lexical access) simultaneously. This
9 is consistent with several previous studies (White et al., 2018, 2020; White, Palmer, et al., 2019).
10 However, the same participants in the same time-limited conditions were able to perceive when
11 the two words flashed together formed a compound word. That result suggests some parallel or
12 holistic processing of the two halves of a compound word, even when presented on opposite
13 sides of fixation.

14 The second experiment demonstrated that such parallel processing occurs even when
15 participants do not attempt to combine the two letter strings into one word. In Experiment 2, we
16 presented compound word pairs on a random minority of trials during a task that motivated
17 participants to process two words independently. Compound words were rarely noticed by the
18 participants. The serial model again accounted for the low accuracy when participants divided
19 attention between two unrelated words, but it could not account for the rise in accuracy when the
20 two words formed a compound. Thus, while the data for unrelated word pairs suggests that there
21 is a “serial bottleneck” in word recognition, compound words seem to defy its constraints.

22

23 *Theoretical implications*

24 We now consider two hypotheses to explain our results. The first we call the “high-level
25 bottleneck” hypothesis: there is a serial bottleneck, but it lies at a late stage of processing when
26 the orthographic input is matched to units of meaning that may encompass multiple letter strings,
27 when they form linguistic structures together. Thus, the bottleneck pertains not to recognizing
28 individual letter strings *per se*. The linguistic structure in a string of words determines how many
29 of them can be processed at once. This hypothesis has been previously advanced to explain

1 fixation patterns in the presence of English compound words (Cutter, Drieghe, & Liversedge,
2 2014) and developed as the “multi-constituent unit hypothesis” in the context of Chinese reading
3 (Zang, 2019; Zang, Wang, Bai, Yan, & Liversedge, 2024).

4 This hypothesis relates to a more general question about compound words: does the
5 language system automatically decompose the compound into its constituents and identify each
6 of those before activating the meaning of the whole compound? That has been long debated (e.g.,
7 Andrews, 1986; Fiorentino & Poeppel, 2007; Ji, Gagné, & Spalding, 2011; Libben, Gagné, &
8 Dressler, 2020; Sandra, 1990; Taft & Forster, 1976). Nonetheless, most models agree that the
9 representation of the whole compound, as distinct from each of its constituents, is quickly
10 accessed. The hypothesis advanced here is that such a whole-compound representation is the
11 “unit of meaning” that is processed all at once.

12 This hypothesis still assumes that there is a serial process during reading, but it involves
13 extracting meaning serially from chunks of text that may span multiple letter strings when those
14 strings are meaningfully connected to each other (Snell & Grainger, 2019b). Unrelated words
15 *cannot* be processed in parallel, according to this hypothesis. Thus, it may reconcile the apparent
16 serial result for unrelated word pairs (White et al., 2020) and phenomena such as the “sentence
17 superiority effect:” accuracy for identifying single words is higher when they appear in the
18 context of a briefly flashed four-word sentence than in a string of words that do not form a
19 sentence (Snell & Grainger, 2017).

20 Although we have no direct evidence of yet, other kinds of linguistic relations between
21 letter strings – morphological, syntactic, and semantic – might facilitate parallel processing.
22 However, there is one reason to be cautious before generalizing the hypothesis so far. Specifically,
23 Brothers (2022) adapted the divided-attention paradigm (like used here) but for four-word
24 sentences. Participants had to judge the *grammaticality* of two-word pairs on either the left or right
25 side of fixation. The large drop in accuracy with divided attention supported the serial model,
26 even with words embedded in sentence context. Thus, it may not be the case that all types of
27 syntactic or grammatical structures support parallel processing of multiple words.

28 The second hypothesis we propose is the “unconscious parallel” hypothesis: two words
29 are initially processed in parallel to the semantic level, even if they are unrelated to each other.

1 However, only one word is *consciously* perceived at a time. Due to the brief presentation and
2 backwards masking in our experiments, participants are only aware of one of the two words
3 presented per trial, and the tasks we employed tap into such conscious percepts. Nonetheless,
4 relations between the two words can influence task performance. This could occur because of
5 “cascaded processing” (Coltheart, Rastle, Perry, Langdon, & Ziegler, 2001): feedforward parallel
6 processing across the visual field reaches a high level before any individual words (or perhaps
7 even letters) are definitively identified (Wen, Snell, & Grainger, 2019). Conscious identification
8 might occur at a later stage, serially for one word at a time (Snell & Grainger, 2019a). This
9 hypothesis allows that a participant in our compound word judgment task could recognize that
10 the set of displayed letters form a semantic unit (a compound word) before being able to report
11 what any of the individual constituent words were.

12 The key component of this hypothesis is that when two words form a compound word,
13 the parallel processing allows them to *facilitate* one another. Thus, accuracy for reporting either
14 one is increased. Such a facilitation between words is reminiscent of priming (Dehaene et al., 2001;
15 Marcel, 1983; Neely, 1976). Priming usually occurs when one word that is presented first
16 facilitates another word that is presented later, but similar effects can also occur when two words
17 are presented simultaneously (Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1971) or even with the prime appears after
18 the target (Kiger & Glass, 1983; Logan & Schulkind, 2000). The spreading activation theory
19 suggests that a network of semantically related concepts is activated by a ‘prime’ word (Collins
20 & Loftus, 1975). Our hypothesis here is that something similar occurs for simultaneously
21 processed words that can combine to refer to a single concept: each ‘primes’ the other, such that
22 both are processed faster and are more robust to the post-masks.

23 According to the unconscious parallel hypothesis, there may be some level of parallel
24 semantic processing even for a pair of words that are unrelated to each other. That parallel
25 semantic activation is not revealed in task accuracy because such pairs of words do not facilitate
26 each other, and only one can be consciously reported. Such a proposal is a stark departure from
27 the simpler, serial-processing explanation of performance in such divided-attention word
28 recognition tasks (e.g., White et al., 2020).

1 One challenge for both hypotheses is that accuracy was as high as predicted by the
2 independent parallel model in the compound word task of Experiment 1, but accuracy was only
3 modestly above the serial model’s prediction for compound word pairs in Experiment 2. The
4 “high-level bottleneck” hypothesis predicts the first finding, and the “unconscious parallel”
5 hypothesis predicts the second, if it further assumes that parallel processing has limited capacity
6 and the between-word facilitatory effects are rather weak. Both hypotheses have an easier time
7 explaining both experiments if we further propose that explicit knowledge of the presence of
8 compound words, and their task-relevance, strengthens the parallel or holistic processing of both
9 constituents (especially when they are split up on opposite sides of fixation). That type of
10 attentional effect would account for the higher accuracy in the compound word judgment task
11 (Experiment 1) than for compound pairs in the single-word report task (Experiment 2).

12

13 *Limitations & Future Directions*

14 This study is the first to introduce semantic relations between words in the study of how
15 well two words may be processed at once with divided attention. There are several limitations
16 that may be addressed in the future. The first concerns the positions of the words above and
17 below fixation. As explained in the Introduction, we chose those positions because prior studies
18 found strong evidence for serial processing of two unrelated words positioned there, and because
19 it allows for all the letters to be relatively close to fixation to maximize legibility of all of them.
20 Presenting words to the left and right of fixation introduces an asymmetry, with words generally
21 better processed in the right visual field (Mishkin & Forgays, 1952; Yeatman & White, 2021).
22 Nonetheless, an important next step will be to investigate these questions with words arranged
23 horizontally, more like nature English reading.

24 Second, it will be important to explore other forms of word relations beyond compound
25 words. For instance, words may be related because of high co-occurrence frequencies in natural
26 language or their proximity in semantic space (e.g., cows + horses). Words also combine to form
27 meaning via syntactic relations, such as in two-word phrases (e.g., blue + sky, quiet + please, she
28 + spoke). It remains to be explored how such other types of linguistic relations between words
29 influence the ability to process them in parallel.

1 *Conclusion*

2 The debate about parallel vs. serial processing in reading often focuses on single words as
3 discrete units, i.e., letter strings separated by spaces. The results reported here suggest a shift
4 towards evaluating units of meaning that may encompass multiple letter strings (Cutter et al.,
5 2014; Zang, 2019). Specifically, the data demonstrate that two words may be processed in parallel
6 if they compose a compound word, even under the conditions when two unrelated words are
7 processed serially. Thus, semantic relationships between words facilitate faster, more holistic
8 parallel processing. That emergent parallel processing may be a key component of reading skill.

9 We suggest two potential explanations: 1) that the serial bottleneck can allow multiple
10 words to be semantically processed simultaneously if they are recognized to be part of one
11 linguistic structure or one unit of meaning; 2) that conscious perception is limited to one word at
12 a time, but multiple words are fully processed in parallel in a manner that allows related words
13 to facilitate each other. Further investigation is required to test these hypotheses.

14

15

16

17 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

18 Upon publication, all raw data and analysis code will be made available on the Open Science
19 Framework.

20

1 **REFERENCES**

- 2 Andrews, S. (1986). Morphological influences on lexical access: Lexical or nonlexical effects?
3 *Journal of Memory and Language*, 25, 726–740.
- 4 Bonnel, A.-M., & Prinzmetal, W. (1998). Dividing attention between the color and the shape of
5 objects. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 60, 113–124.
- 6 Brainard, D. H. (1997). The psychophysics toolbox. *Spatial Vision*, 10, 443–446.
- 7 Braun, J., & Julesz, B. (1998). Withdrawing attention at little or no cost: Detection and
8 discrimination tasks. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 60, 1–23.
- 9 Brothers, T. (2022). Capacity limits in sentence comprehension: Evidence from dual-task
10 judgements and event-related potentials. *Cognition*, 225, 105153.
- 11 Brysbaert, M., & New, B. (2009). Moving beyond Kucera and Francis: a critical evaluation of
12 current word frequency norms and the introduction of a new and improved word
13 frequency measure for American English. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41, 977–990.
- 14 Campbell, M., Oppenheimer, N., & White, A. L. (2024). Severe processing capacity limits for
15 sub-lexical features of letter strings. *Attention, Perception, & Psychophysics*.
16 <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13414-023-02830-1>
- 17 Collins, A. M., & Loftus, E. F. (1975). A spreading-activation theory of semantic processing.
18 *Psychological Review*, 82, 407–428.
- 19 Coltheart, M., Rastle, K., Perry, C., Langdon, R., & Ziegler, J. (2001). DRC: a dual route cascaded
20 model of visual word recognition and reading aloud. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 108, pp.
21 204–256.
- 22 Cutter, M. G., Drieghe, D., & Liversedge, S. P. (2014). Preview benefit in english spaced
23 compounds. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory and Cognition*, 40, 1778–
24 1786.
- 25 Dehaene, S., Naccache, L., Cohen, L., Bihan, D. Le, Mangin, J. F., Poline, J. B., & Rivière, D.
26 (2001). Cerebral mechanisms of word masking and unconscious repetition priming. *Nature*
27 *Neuroscience*, 4, 752–758.
- 28 Fiorentino, R., & Poeppel, D. (2007). Compound words and structure in the lexicon. *Language*
29 *and Cognitive Processes*, 22, 953–1000.

- 1 Ji, H., Gagné, C. L., & Spalding, T. L. (2011). Benefits and costs of lexical decomposition and
2 semantic integration during the processing of transparent and opaque English compounds.
3 *Journal of Memory and Language*, 65, 406–430.
- 4 Johnson, M. L., Palmer, J., Moore, C. M., & Boynton, G. M. (2022). Evidence from partially valid
5 cueing that words are processed serially. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*.
6 <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-022-02230-w>
- 7 Kiger, J. I., & Glass, A. L. (1983). The facilitation of lexical decisions by a prime occurring after
8 the target. *Memory & Cognition*, 11, 356–365.
- 9 Lee, D. K., Koch, C., & Braun, J. (1999). Attentional capacity is undifferentiated: Concurrent
10 discrimination of form, color, and motion. *Perception & Psychophysics*, 61, 1241–1255.
- 11 Legge, G. E., Mansfield, J. S., & Chung, S. T. L. (2001). Psychophysics of reading XX. Linking
12 letter recognition to reading speed in central and peripheral vision. *Vision Research*, 41, 725–
13 743.
- 14 Libben, G., Gagné, C. L., & Dressler, W. (2020). The Representation and Processing of
15 Compound Words. In V. Pirelli, I. Plag, & W. U. Dressler (Eds.), *Word Knowledge and Word*
16 *Usage* (pp. 336–352). De Gruyter.
- 17 Logan, G. D., & Schulkind, M. D. (2000). Parallel memory retrieval in dual-task situations: I.
18 Semantic memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 26,
19 1072–1090.
- 20 Marcel, A. J. (1983). Conscious and unconscious perception: Experiments on visual masking and
21 word recognition. *Cognitive Psychology*, 15, 197–237.
- 22 Medler, D. A., & Binder, J. R. (2005). MCWord: An on-Line orthographic database of the English
23 language. Retrieved from <http://www.neuro.mcw.edu/mcword/>
- 24 Meyer, D. E., & Schvaneveldt, R. W. (1971). Facilitation in recognizing pairs of words: Evidence
25 of a dependence between retrieval operations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 90, 227–
26 234.
- 27 Mishkin, M., & Forgays, D. G. (1952). Word recognition as a function of retinal locus. *Journal of*
28 *Experimental Psychology*, 43, 43–48.
- 29 Neely, J. H. (1976). Semantic priming and retrieval from lexical memory: Evidence for

1 facilitatory and inhibitory processes. *Memory & Cognition*, 4, 648–654.

2 Pelli, D. G. (1997). The VideoToolbox software for visual psychophysics: Transforming numbers
3 into movies. *Spatial Vision*, 10, 437–442.

4 Pollack, I., & Hsieh, R. (1969). Sampling variability of the area under the ROC-curve and of d' .
5 *Psychological Bulletin*, 71, 161–173.

6 Pollatsek, A., Reichle, E. D., & Rayner, K. (2006). Attention to one word at a time in reading is
7 still a viable hypothesis: Rejoinder to Inhoff, Radach, and Eiter (2006). *Journal of*
8 *Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 32, 1496–1500.

9 Sandra, D. (1990). On the Representation and Processing of Compound Words: Automatic
10 Access to Constituent Morphemes Does Not Occur. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental*
11 *Psychology Section A*, 42, 529–567.

12 Scharff, A., Palmer, J., & Moore, C. M. (2011). Extending the simultaneous-sequential paradigm
13 to measure perceptual capacity for features and words. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:*
14 *Human Perception and Performance*, 37, 813–833.

15 Schotter, E. R., Angele, B., & Rayner, K. (2012). Parafoveal processing in reading. *Attention,*
16 *Perception, and Psychophysics*, 74, 5–35.

17 Snell, J., & Grainger, J. (2017). The sentence superiority effect revisited. *Cognition*, 168, 217–221.

18 Snell, J., & Grainger, J. (2019a). Consciousness Is Not Key in the Serial-versus-Parallel Debate.
19 *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, Vol. 23, pp. 814–815. Elsevier Ltd.

20 Snell, J., & Grainger, J. (2019b). Readers Are Parallel Processors. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 23,
21 537–546.

22 Sperling, G., & Melchner, M. J. (1978). The Attention Operating Characteristic: Examples from
23 Visual Search. *Science*, 202, 315–318.

24 Taft, M., & Forster, K. I. (1976). Lexical Storage and Retrieval of Polysyllabic Words. *Journal of*
25 *Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 15, 607–620.

26 Torgesen, J., Rashotte, C., & Wagner, R. (1999). TOWRE-2: Test of Word Reading Efficiency, 2nd
27 Ed.

28 van Heuven, W. J. B., Mandera, P., Keuleers, E., & Brysbaert, M. (2014). SUBTLEX-UK: A new
29 and improved word frequency database for British English. *Quarterly Journal of*

1 *Experimental Psychology*, 67, 1176–1190.

2 Veldre, A., Reichle, E. D., Yu, L., & Andrews, S. (2023). Lexical Processing Across the Visual
3 Field. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 49, 649–671.

4 Vidal, C., Content, A., & Chetail, F. (2017). BACS: The Brussels Artificial Character Sets for
5 studies in cognitive psychology and neuroscience. *Behavior Research Methods*, 49, 2093–2112.

6 Wen, Y., Snell, J., & Grainger, J. (2019). Parallel, cascaded, interactive processing of words
7 during sentence reading. *Cognition*, 189, 221–226.

8 White, A. L., Boynton, G. M., & Yeatman, J. D. (2019). You Can't Recognize Two Words
9 Simultaneously. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 23, 812–814.

10 White, A. L., Palmer, J., & Boynton, G. M. (2018). Evidence of serial processing in visual word
11 recognition. *Psychological Science*, 29, 1062–1071.

12 White, A. L., Palmer, J., & Boynton, G. M. (2020). Visual word recognition: Evidence for a serial
13 bottleneck in lexical access. *Attention, Perception, and Psychophysics*, 82, 2000–2017.

14 White, A. L., Palmer, J., Boynton, G. M., & Yeatman, J. D. (2019). Parallel spatial channels
15 converge at a bottleneck in anterior word-selective cortex. *Proceedings of the National
16 Academy of Sciences*, 116, 10087–10096.

17 Yeatman, J. D., & White, A. L. (2021). Reading: The Confluence of Vision and Language. *Annual
18 Review of Vision Science*, 7, 487–517.

19 Zang, C. (2019). New perspectives on serialism and parallelism in oculomotor control during
20 reading: The multi-constituent unit hypothesis. *Vision*, 3.
21 <https://doi.org/10.3390/vision3040050>

22 Zang, C., Wang, S., Bai, X., Yan, G., & Liversedge, S. P. (2024). Parafoveal processing of Chinese
23 four-character idioms and phrases in reading: Evidence for multi-constituent unit
24 hypothesis. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 136, 104508.

25

26

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

for Anupindi, Eisler & White: *Serial processing of two words becomes parallel when they combine to form a compound word*

Experiment 1: Lexical decision task

Methods:

Stimuli: The lists of all words used in all experiments are provided in **Tables S2-S6** at the end of this document.

Eye tracking. Throughout the presentation of stimuli, we recorded the right eye's gaze position at 500 Hz with an Eyelink 1000+ video-based eye-tracker (SR Research). Fixation was established during the ITI at the start of each trial. The trial only advanced if the estimated gaze position was within 1.0° horizontally or 1.5° vertically from that fixation position. If a fixation break occurred between the pre-cue offset and post-mask offset, the trial was immediately terminated. The subject had to press a button to continue the next trial. Terminated trials were repeated at the end of the block, unless fewer than three trials remained.

To be sure that we included no trials in which subjects may have looked directly at a word, we also analyzed the eye traces offline. First, for each trial in a block, we computed the median gaze position (across measurement samples) in the 400ms before the pre-cue onset (excluding intervals for blinks). Then we defined the "central gaze position" for the block as the across-trial median of those initial gaze positions. This analysis corrects for any error in the eye-tracker calibration by assuming that subjects were fixating correctly in the interval before the pre-cue, when only the fixation mark was visible.

Then, for each trial, we analyzed gaze positions in the interval between the onset of the words and the offset of the post-masks. We defined an "offline fixation break" as a deviation that was more than 0.7° horizontally or 1.0° vertically from the central gaze position and that lasted more than 30ms. In the analysis, we excluded all trials with offline fixation breaks.

Staircase. The staircase was run in blocks of 20 trials, alternating between the single-task above and below conditions (no dual-task trials in the staircase). During each run, the word-mask ISI in units of $\log_{10}(\text{seconds})$ was adjusted by a weighted 1-up/1-down staircase procedure controlled by the Palamedes toolbox (Prins & Kingdom, 2009). The step size down was always one-third of the step size up, which makes the staircase converge on the 75% correct threshold. Two staircases were randomly interleaved across trials, and blocks continued until both staircases had reversed direction ten times, and the threshold ISI was the mean value across all reversals.

Analysis of Accuracy. For each condition of the lexical decision task, we used the participant's 4-level confidence ratings (from 'sure pseudoword' to 'sure real word') to construct a receiver operating characteristic (ROC). The ROC is a plot of hit rates (HR) as a function of false alarm rates (FR). "Targets" were real words at the post-cued location. To compute these rates from the participant's ratings, we varied an index i from 0 to 4. At each index level, we coded responses greater than i as "yes" responses. For each value of i , $HR(i)$ is the proportion of "yes"

responses on target-present trials and $FR(i)$ is the proportion of “yes” responses on target-absent trials. For instance, when $i = 3$, only response ratings of 4 (highest confidence) on target-present trials are considered hits, and only response ratings of 4 on target-absent trials are considered false alarms. The five pairs of $HR(i)$ and $FR(i)$ trace out a curve, the area under which is a measure of accuracy: A_g .

Bootstrapping. Throughout the text, we report bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (Cis) for average measurements. To compute these, we generated a distribution of 5,000 resampled means. Each of those is the mean of ten values sampled with replacement from the original set of ten subjects’ means. The CI is the range from the 2.5th to the 97.5th percentile of the distribution of resampled means, with an “accelerated” bias correction (Efron, 1987).

Bayes Factors. Finally, we supplement our pairwise tests with Bayes Factors (BFs), which quantify strength of evidence. The BF is the ratio of the probability of the data under the alternate hypothesis (a distance is >0 or two conditions differ) relative to the probability of the data under the null hypothesis that there is no difference (Rouder, Speckman, Sun, Morey, & Iverson, 2009). A BF of 10 indicates that the data are 10 times more likely under the alternate hypothesis than the null. Typically, BFs between 1 and 3 are regarded as weak evidence for the alternate hypothesis, BFs between 3 and 10 as substantial evidence, and BFs between 10 and 100 as strong evidence. Conversely, BFs between $1/3$ and $1/10$ are considered substantial evidence for the null hypothesis, etc. (Kass & Raftery, 1995). We computed BFs for pairwise t-test ANOVAs using the bayesFactor toolbox by Bart Krekelberg (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4394422>).

Results:

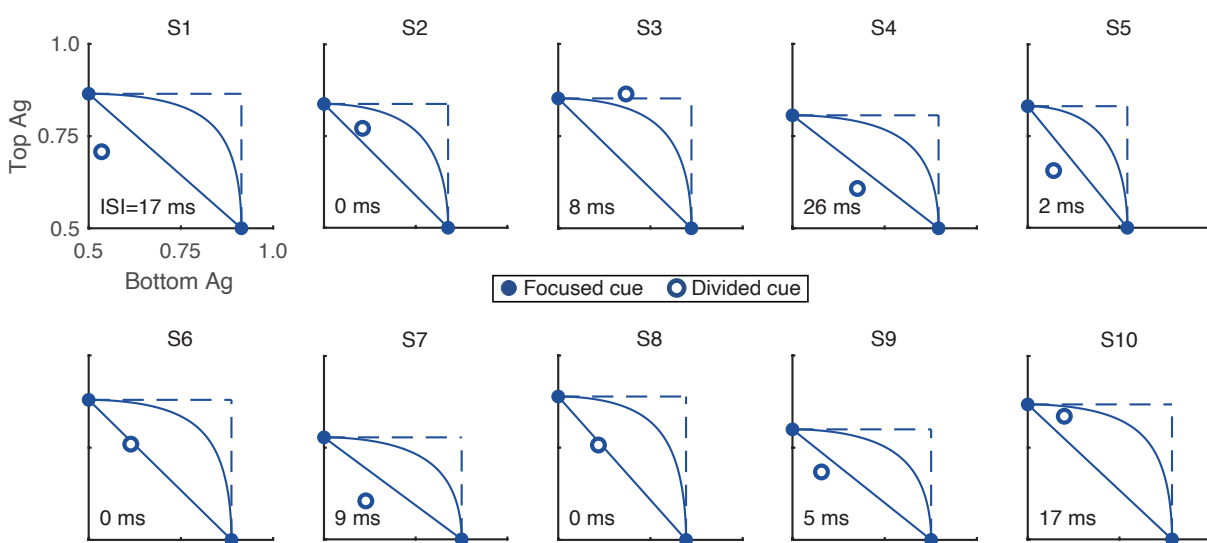


Figure S1: Individual participant attention operating characteristics in the lexical decision task of Experiment 1. Format as in Figure 2A. In each participant’s graph, the number in the lower left corner is the mean duration of their threshold-level interstimulus interval (ISI) between the words and the post-masks.

Experiment 1: Compound word judgment task

Results:

Accuracy in units of d' : effects of ISI duration and word pair repetition

To complement the analysis of proportion correct that is reported in the main text, we also calculate accuracy in units of d' , an unbounded and unbiased estimate of sensitivity - in this case, for detecting compound word pairs (Green & Swets, 1966). Here we separately analyze the trials when the words-to-mask ISI was set to each participant's threshold level, and the 32% of trials in which the ISI was lengthened to 400 ms. These trials were included to confirm that the task was easy when processing time was less constrained. Indeed, d' on these long-ISI trials was high: mean = 3.54 (SEM = 0.20), corresponding to 95% correct on average. d' was also significantly above chance (0 for this measure) on trials with the threshold-level ISI (mean = 1.58, SEM = 0.231; $t(9) = 6.38$, $p = 0.0001$; BF = 231).

Here, we also address the potential concern that the repetition of word pairs accounts for the above-chance compound word judgment accuracy. **Figure S2** plots d' separately for trials when each word pair appeared the participant for the first time, and trials when the word pair was repeated. That is done separately for trials with the threshold-level ISI trials and the 400 ms ISI. Word pair repetition had no effect on easy trials with 400 ms ISI ($t < 1$, $p = 0.84$, $p = 0.32$). For the threshold-level trials, there was a significant improvement when the word pair repeated (mean increase = 0.56, SEM = 0.096; 95% CI = [0.399 0.778]; $t(9) = 5.50$, $p = 0.0004$; BF = 92). Importantly, however, d' was well above chance ($d' = 0$) even on the 1st appearance trials ($t(9) = 5.41$, $p = 0.0004$; BF = 83). Thus, learning or inter-trial priming does not account for the high accuracy in the compound word judgment task.

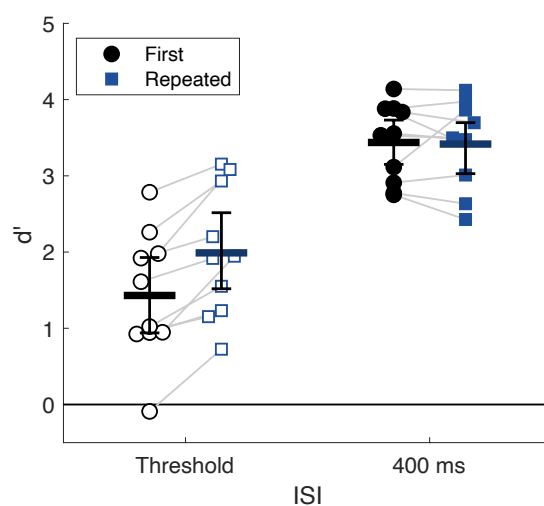


Figure S2. Accuracy in units of d' for the compound word judgment task in Experiment 1. Each small circle or square represents one participant's d' in a particular condition. The x-axis separates trials in which the word-to-mask ISI was set to each participant's threshold from the lexical decision task (4 ms on average), or set to the "easy" level of 400 ms (which occurred on $\frac{1}{3}$ of all trials). The black circles are for trials in which the word pair appeared for the first time in the experiment (70% of all trials), whereas the blue squares are for trials in which the word pair was repeated. The dark horizontal bars are the across-subject means, and within each ISI condition, the thin gray lines connect points from the same participant. In all four conditions represented here, d' was significantly above 0 (all $p < 0.001$). Thus, even when the ISI was at threshold and a word pair appeared for the first time, accuracy exceeded the prediction of the serial model.

Experiment 2

Methods:

Stimuli. Tables S5 and S6 at the end of the Supplementary Materials list all the words used in the experiment. Words for the “random” set and the “compound” set were selected to have overlapping distributions of length, lexical frequency, orthographic neighborhood size, and concreteness ratings. The frequency and orthographic neighborhood size ratings were taken from MCWord (Medler & Binder, 2005). The concreteness ratings are from Brysbaert, Warriner, & Kuperman (2014). **Figure S3** below plots the distributions of those word properties.

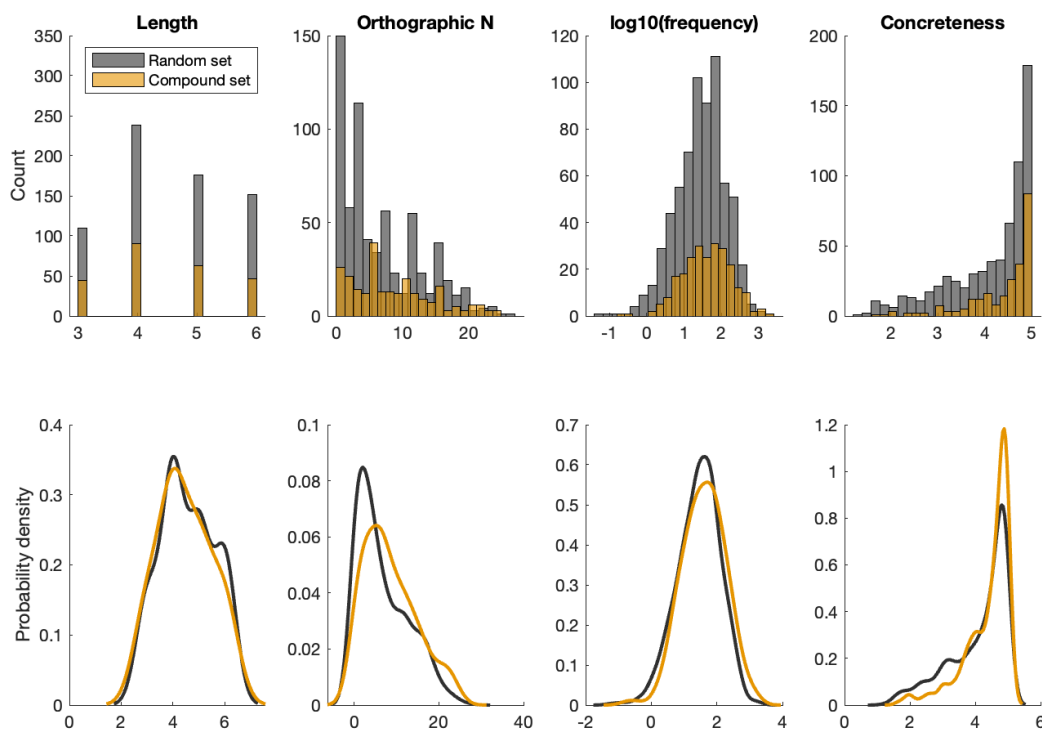


Figure S3: Psycholinguistic properties of the words in Experiment 2. The top row depicts histograms of word lengths, orthographic neighborhood size (N), lexical frequency in log units, and concreteness ratings. The overlapping distributions are for the set of words used in the “random pair” condition (in gray) and for the set of words that could form compounds (in gold). The latter set was used for the “scrambled”, “reversed” and “compound” conditions. The bottom row depicts smoothed probability density distributions derived from the histograms above.

Because these distributions were not *perfectly* matched, we also analyzed the effects of these psycholinguistic word variables on accuracy in the task. We did so with general linear mixed-effect models fit to single-trial accuracy. Only orthographic neighborhood size (N) had a significant effect: words with greater N were *harder* to recognize. Notably, the mean N was higher in the compound set than the random set; thus, the small difference in mean N across the two stimulus sets cannot explain the higher accuracy for compound words. Furthermore, our key comparison in the main analysis is the comparison between the compound word trials and the scrambled compound trials, which used the exact same set.

Analysis of partial word accuracy

An alternate metric of accuracy is the “edit distance” E between the participant’s typed response and the target word that was presented. E is the smallest number of letter insertions, deletions, and substitutions needed to transform the reported string into the target string. We

calculated E with MATLAB's `editDistance` function. E is biased to be larger for longer words, however, and there was a range of word lengths in our data set. To normalize E by the length L of each target word, we computed E_{norm} on each trial as follows :

If $E < L$

$$E_{norm} = (L - E) / L$$

Otherwise,

$$E_{norm} = 0.$$

where L is the number of letters in the target word. Thus, the mean E_{norm} in each condition can be considered the average *proportion of letters* in the target words that were correctly reported. It ranges from 0 (total guess) to 1 (perfect response). This is why in the graphs of mean E_{norm} below, the y-axes are labeled $p(\text{letters correct})$.

To build the AOCs and compare accuracy to the serial model prediction, we needed an estimate of what E_{norm} would be when the participant has no information about the post-cued word and randomly guesses. To this end we conducted a simulation by collecting a set of words including all of the words in the stimulus set as well as all of the letter strings reported by all the participants in the actual experiment. Subsequently, the simulation randomly selected one of these words as its "response" to be used in the calculation of E_{norm} for stimulated trials. On average, D was 0.0729 on these simulated guessing trials. Thus, 0.0729 is the chance accuracy level that forms the origin of the AOCs shown in **Figure S4C**.

We analyzed E_{norm} because it could be sensitive to partial information about the words that the participant perceived. In theory, even if the AOC computed from the strict binary measure of accuracy ($p(\text{correct})$) shows a serial result, an AOC constructed from E_{norm} could reveal some evidence of parallel processing of the two words – perhaps at a sub-lexical level.

Results:

The results of our analysis of E_{norm} , also labeled $p(\text{letters correct})$ are in **Figure S4**. The results are largely consistent with the main analysis of whole-word $p(\text{correct})$ in the main text Figure 4. In the divided attention condition, accuracy was higher for compound word pairs than scrambled compound pairs (Fig S4A-B). On the AOCs (Fig. S4C), accuracy for random word pairs was just slightly above the serial model's prediction but indistinguishable from it. Accuracy for compound pairs was significantly above the serial model's line, as it was for reversed compounds, but by roughly half as much. Accuracy for scrambled compounds was on average modestly above the serial model's line, but not significantly so. Statistics for these distances are listed in **Table S1**.

As a second alternate measure of accuracy, we scored each response as correct if the `editDistance` E was less than or equal to 1, and incorrect otherwise. In other words, we allowed a response to be considered "correct" even if there was a mistake of one letter. We then analyzed these binary correct/incorrect data in the same way as the primary analyses of $p(\text{correct})$ in the main text. The results were essentially the same as what is shown in Figure 4.

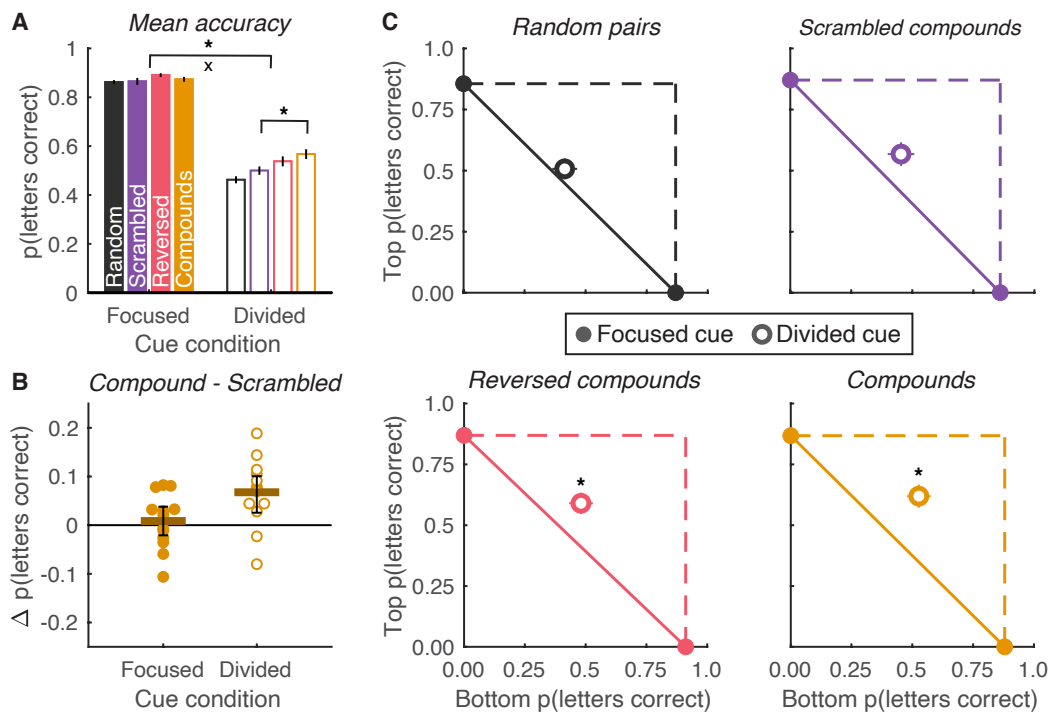


Figure S4: Analyses of accuracy calculated as E_{norm} , the mean proportion of letters within target words that were correctly reported. Format as in main text Figure 4.

Word pair type	Mean	SEM	t	FDR-corrected p	BF	95% CI
<i>Random pairs</i>	-0.014	0.017	-0.825	0.425	0.372	[0.045 0.020]
<i>Compounds</i>	0.138	0.025	5.275	0.001	160.6	[0.09 0.188]
<i>Reversed</i>	0.082	0.030	2.619	0.045	3.020	[0.027 0.144]
<i>Scrambled</i>	0.052	0.031	1.637	0.170	0.805	0.001 0.124]

Table S1: Statistics on the mean distances from the serial model in Experiment 2, based on analyses of $p(\text{letters correct})$ (also called E_{norm}). BF = Bayes Factor; CI = confidence interval.

SUPPLEMENTAL REFERENCES

- Brysbaert, M., Warriner, A. B., & Kuperman, V. (2014). Concreteness ratings for 40 thousand generally known English word lemmas. *Behavior Research Methods*, *46*, 904–911.
- Efron, B. (1987). Better Bootstrap Confidence Intervals. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *82*, 171–185.
- Green, D. M., & Swets, J. A. (1966). *Signal detection theory and psychophysics*. New York: Wiley.
- Kass, R. E., & Raftery, A. E. (1995). Bayes Factors. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *90*, 773–795.
- Medler, D. A., & Binder, J. R. (2005). MCWord: An on-Line orthographic database of the English language. Retrieved from <http://www.neuro.mcw.edu/mcword/>
- Prins, N., & Kingdom, F. A. A. (2009). Palamedes: Matlab routines for analyzing psychophysical data.
- Rouder, J. N., Speckman, P. L., Sun, D., Morey, R. D., & Iverson, G. (2009). Bayesian t tests for accepting and rejecting the null hypothesis. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *16*, 225–237.

Table S2: Real words used in Experiment 1

abuse	boat	court	fan	heel	lit	office	return	slave	tip
accept	body	cover	far	hero	little	oil	rice	sleep	tired
ache	bog	cow	fat	hey	load	old	rider	slide	title
across	bomb	craft	father	hid	lobby	older	rim	slow	toe
act	bone	creep	fed	higher	log	opened	ring	slowly	ton
action	bony	crept	fee	highly	longer	others	rip	sly	tool
acute	book	crew	few	hind	looked	ought	road	snake	tooth
adapt	boot	cross	fill	hint	lot	over	rob	snap	top
add	bottle	crow	finer	hip	loved	owe	rod	soap	town
afraid	bottom	crown	finger	hit	low	pact	roger	social	toy
after	bought	crude	fire	hive	lunch	pad	rome	sofa	trace
age	bow	crush	firm	hog	lust	paid	room	soft	trade
ago	bowl	cry	fish	hole	magic	pan	rope	sold	trail
agreed	box	cue	fit	holy	main	paper	rot	solve	trap
ail	boy	cult	fix	home	making	papers	rough	some	tray
aim	bra	cup	flag	honey	man	par	row	son	tread
air	brain	cut	flap	hood	map	pass	royal	sort	trip
alien	break	cycle	flies	hook	marsh	passed	rub	sound	trips
almost	bridge	dam	floor	hop	match	paste	rug	sow	truck
along	broken	dark	flow	horn	mate	pay	rum	space	truly
amid	brush	day	fly	horse	math	peer	run	spent	try
amount	bug	dead	foe	hot	matter	peg	rush	spider	trying
ample	bunk	death	fog	house	maze	pen	rusty	spoon	tub
anger	burger	degree	follow	hut	melon	people	rye	spy	tug
animal	burn	demand	food	ice	melt	pepper	sad	stack	type
ankle	bus	den	fool	icy	member	period	sail	stage	under
anyone	bush	dense	forced	idle	mere	pet	sake	stain	united
anyway	butter	desk	forces	ill	merely	petty	sale	stalk	urged
ape	buy	dew	former	income	mess	photo	sand	start	use
appear	cab	die	fox	indeed	met	pick	sat	state	van

areas	cake	diet	frank	ink	meter	pie	sauce	states	vast
arm	camp	dig	friend	inner	middle	pig	save	steak	vat
arose	candle	dim	frog	inside	mile	pile	saw	steal	visit
around	cannot	dimly	froze	italy	milk	pin	saying	steam	vote
arrow	cap	dinner	fry	itself	mill	pine	scare	steel	vow
art	car	dip	fuels	ivory	mint	pit	scene	step	waist
ash	card	direct	fun	jail	minute	places	scent	stick	wake
ask	care	dish	fur	jar	mix	plain	school	sting	walk
ate	carry	doctor	fuss	jaw	mob	plan	scoop	stone	wall
attack	cart	dog	gap	jelly	modern	plane	screen	stony	war
aware	case	doing	gaps	job	moment	plate	scrub	stool	wary
awe	cast	dot	garden	jug	money	play	sea	stop	washer
axe	castle	doubt	gas	junk	month	played	seeing	store	waste
baby	cat	dozen	gave	jury	months	plead	seemed	storm	watch
back	caught	drag	gay	keep	moon	please	seize	strap	water
bad	cave	draw	gift	key	moral	plus	series	stream	wave
bag	cease	dread	gin	kick	motel	pocket	serve	street	wax
ball	chance	dream	girl	kid	mother	police	set	string	way
ban	change	dried	giving	kind	motor	pony	sets	stroke	wear
band	chat	drift	glad	kit	mouse	pool	shade	suit	web
bar	check	drive	god	knight	move	pop	shall	sum	weight
base	cheese	dry	grand	lace	moved	pot	share	sun	wet
basket	chest	dug	grass	lady	moving	pounds	sharp	sunk	whale
bat	chief	dusk	grave	lamp	mud	power	sheet	super	wheat
bay	child	dwarf	grip	land	mug	print	shelf	sweet	whole
bean	chin	dye	ground	lap	myself	prize	shell	swim	width
beat	chip	dying	groups	laugh	nail	probe	ship	swung	wife
became	choice	ear	grove	law	naked	proof	shock	syrup	wig
become	chop	earl	growth	lawn	nap	pub	shoe	table	win
bed	church	earn	guard	lay	nasty	public	shone	tag	wind
bee	clerk	ease	guest	leap	nature	quick	short	tail	window

beech	cling	easily	gum	leapt	nearly	quit	shot	taken	wing
before	clock	eat	gut	learn	neat	radar	should	taking	wire
beg	closed	echo	guy	leaves	neck	rag	show	talk	wise
begun	cloth	egg	habit	led	net	raid	shut	tan	wish
behind	cloud	ego	hail	ledge	news	rail	shy	tap	wit
bent	club	either	hair	leg	nice	rain	sick	tape	within
berry	cod	elder	hall	lemon	night	ram	side	taste	woman
beside	code	elm	ham	length	nine	ran	simple	tax	won
better	coffee	end	handy	letter	nobody	rat	simply	tea	wood
beyond	color	enemy	happen	lever	nod	rate	sin	ten	word
bid	comb	energy	hardly	lid	noon	rather	single	tense	work
big	coming	enough	haste	lie	nor	raw	sink	thing	worked
bike	cone	envy	hat	life	note	read	sip	though	worm
bin	cool	era	hatch	lift	noted	really	sir	threw	wreck
bit	cop	eve	having	light	notice	reason	sit	thumb	wrist
black	corn	evil	hay	likely	number	recent	site	tidal	writer
blast	corner	exit	head	lily	nut	red	six	tide	wrong
blaze	cot	expect	heap	lime	nuts	reef	skill	tidy	yard
blood	count	eye	heart	line	oak	remain	skin	tie	yet
blue	couple	fall	heat	lined	ocean	report	sky	time	youth
board	course	family	hedge	lip	odd	rest	slab	tin	zoo

Table S3: Pseudowords used in Experiment 1

abber	bant	covies	fid	haly	ler	ninds	rettle	ter	viead
aboks	baran	coys	figuge	hame	lere	nome	rew	terts	vig
abore	bas	cre	fike	han	leth	nop	rigat	tes	vight
abost	basee	cuce	fim	haner	lefef	norked	rint	tew	vikel
aboth	bave	cun	fime	hao	lew	nox	rirse	thad	vite
aboue	bbi	dach	fimer	har	lex	noy	ris	thal	voo
abown	beald	dack	fimp	hasier	lich	nur	rith	thales	vorss
abrint	bealth	danded	finte	haso	lide	oas	romes	tham	wadin
abung	beange	dar	fis	hather	lifors	ocowd	roo	thap	waloy
acarle	beargh	das	fiter	hax	ligin	odo	ropt	thar	wam
accays	beart	dater	fith	hea	lilk	oftas	roren	thay	wat
accous	beay	datung	flang	heang	lill	ofted	rou	thed	waw
acrmn	beayed	decure	flers	hec	lim	oim	rown	theed	wead
acthes	bebond	deel	fod	hecker	lirst	ois	rur	theen	weang
actung	becore	demife	fom	hed	lis	oll	russ	thep	weem
ader	beew	derk	fomby	hee	lissow	ond	rutten	thepe	weet
adoply	beey	dery	fon	heem	lith	onok	sammer	thers	weng
afffal	beffed	detes	foo	hees	lito	onom	san	thes	wer
affond	beffur	dever	foso	heesp	lits	onor	sar	thest	werc
afrved	beick	dilled	fot	helt	lomer	onte	sarmed	thet	weso
aftat	beined	dir	fou	hene	lonch	onth	sas	thice	whair
aftes	beltow	dis	fouly	herx	lothic	onve	scets	thid	whan
aftio	bemer	dit	foung	het	lounke	ony	scoue	thild	wheam
agage	benain	doo	foused	hig	lourer	opoken	seach	thill	whees
agase	beosit	doon	fow	hil	loy	opom	sed	thind	whein
agele	beoual	doow	fown	hin	loys	opow	seese	thint	wheir
agybe	bepe	dor	foy	hix	mais	otere	seged	thioy	whem
aie	bephes	dould	fral	hmt	makled	othee	seld	thip	wheme
ais	ber	dow	frek	hody	mand	othel	sende	thir	whice
ait	berdy	drach	fren	hom	mapen	otial	ser	thist	whis

alary	bere	dreir	fres	homagh	marer	otich	sest	thit	widedd
ald	bes	dren	frey	hong	marind	oub	sheal	thits	wiel
alere	bestet	drere	fron	hortes	marsed	oue	shedy	thok	wift
aleded	beved	droust	fror	hoys	mas	ougin	shen	thom	wike
alk	beving	drow	froust	huier	mave	oun	shice	thoughts	wilf
almame	bew	druld	frow	hurlet	mee	ous	shich	tid	wim
almary	beyids	dur	frur	ict	meers	oush	shiled	tild	wimber
alst	bie	dut	fuich	ild	mem	ouy	sho	timy	wime
alugly	bim	eabing	fusted	ind	mench	owo	shoped	tir	wis
alwler	bir	ead	fut	inen	mer	pabil	shougs	tith	wist
amare	bis	eadat	futh	insing	mes	pable	sid	titin	wita
amouly	bodds	eame	gack	inth	mex	pantly	sig	tob	wito
andand	boe	ean	gan	irat	mey	pas	sigat	tobs	woift
andily	boiced	eand	gand	iskel	mil	pastle	sild	toick	wound
ane	boile	easeng	gandes	itates	mim	pathed	silld	toom	woits
aneder	bome	easut	gea	ite	mimply	pattor	sim	toow	wome
anione	bonton	eative	geaner	ity	mir	pava	slade	torx	wonch
anirse	bor	ecched	geants	jad	mommed	ped	slen	toso	wonnd
ank	bou	eduad	ged	jas	mont	phe	sler	tou	woong
anreng	boung	eet	ger	joo	moow	pim	smain	tre	wor
ansing	brars	ege	gew	jor	mork	pito	soan	trere	wost
anstey	brarse	elst	gide	jore	morker	plint	somar	trich	woule
antal	brity	ene	gith	jord	mors	pommon	sor	tro	wouly
antang	bup	enougs	gixen	jou	mory	pon	sorms	troun	wouse
anyind	cany	enther	gixil	joue	mouds	ponch	sors	tuch	wover
anyion	cargls	eny	gofte	jow	mounge	ponger	souir	tud	wrom
apary	carsed	ereds	goms	juch	mour	por	sould	tuling	wrose
aps	cas	ers	gon	juck	mre	pould	soull	tullo	wrow
ara	catten	ert	gont	jull	mry	pount	sount	twa	yeang
araled	cax	evea	gop	jumer	mun	pown	spes	twere	yee
areape	ceened	evear	goss	keat	muns	printh	spi	ucil	yener

areest	che	evel	gou	kee	munt	proked	stalic	undan	yer
areond	chert	evenge	gould	ker	nade	proks	staven	upase	yeter
arey	chice	evese	goung	kig	neald	prost	stazy	upell	yex
arght	chinds	evew	gouth	kir	neane	prums	ster	upur	yod
arinte	chuder	facars	gow	kister	neb	puints	stild	usee	yoem
arom	cill	fand	graias	kith	ned	pur	stims	usey	yoll
aross	cinal	fanter	grald	lais	neen	puv	stoor	ush	yond
ars	clant	fap	grers	lalan	nees	quost	sull	usk	yont
ary	cleagy	farine	groid	lan	neey	rald	sune	vajos	yop
asrune	clunts	fas	grore	langhs	neft	rall	sur	vas	yorty
asuly	clure	fea	grores	lant	neing	rane	sut	vean	yot
atreng	colies	feem	grult	lar	neith	recers	sweal	veat	yove
atries	coneer	fene	gye	las	nen	recoum	taght	vede	yown
ats	coout	fer	hab	leara	nener	reem	tanin	veee	
auring	cordal	fere	hach	leary	ner	reess	targe	veey	
awach	corld	fes	hais	lel	nern	reford	tas	vell	
awat	couble	fese	hald	len	nes	ren	tast	vely	
bame	couge	fet	haldes	leoped	nex	rer	teawn	vene	

Table S4: Compound words used in Experiment 1

after	math		clock	wise		hay	wire		night	fall		stop	watch
after	noon		corn	stalk		heart	beat		note	book		stream	line
after	taste		court	house		heat	stroke		note	card		suit	case
air	craft		cow	boy		hedge	hog		nut	job		sun	burn
air	plane		cow	girl		home	town		over	flow		sun	screen
arm	pit		cross	road		home	work		over	weight		sun	tan
arrow	head		cross	word		honey	comb		paper	cut		super	hero
ash	tray		cry	baby		horse	play		pass	code		sweet	heart
back	ground		cup	cake		horse	power		pay	check		swim	suit
back	stage		day	break		hot	pot		pepper	mint		table	cloth
back	yard		day	dream		house	wife		pick	pocket		tail	bone
band	width		day	light		ink	pot		pig	pen		tape	worm
basket	ball		dead	line		jail	break		pine	cone		tea	cup
bed	bug		desk	top		jelly	bean		play	mate		thumb	nail
bed	room		dish	cloth		junk	yard		police	woman		tide	pool
bed	sheet		dish	washer		keep	sake		pop	corn		time	share
bee	hive		dog	house		key	hole		rail	road		tip	toe
blood	stain		draw	bridge		key	stone		rain	boot		tool	box
blue	berry		draw	string		knight	hood		rain	bow		tool	kit
blue	print		drift	wood		lady	bug		row	boat		tooth	brush
board	walk		drive	way		lamp	shade		sail	boat		tooth	paste
body	guard		ear	ring		land	fill		sand	castle		trail	head
book	shelf		egg	shell		land	slide		sauce	pan		truck	load
book	store		eye	lid		lap	dog		scare	crow		type	writer
boot	strap		fan	base		law	suit		school	work		under	cover
bottle	neck		finger	nail		lay	man		sea	shell		under	weight
boy	friend		fire	ball		leap	frog		ship	wreck		waist	band
brain	storm		fire	fly		life	guard		shoe	lace		wall	paper
bus	boy		fish	bowl		lime	stone		show	room		water	color
butter	fly		fish	hook		lip	stick		side	kick		water	melon

butter	milk	fog	horn	lunch	bag	sky	light	wave	length
candle	stick	friend	ship	main	stream	snake	skin	web	cast
car	pool	girl	friend	match	box	soap	box	web	site
cat	fish	grand	child	mile	stone	some	thing	wheat	grass
cave	man	grave	yard	motor	cycle	sound	proof	wind	mill
cease	fire	gum	ball	mouse	trap	sound	wave	wish	bone
cheese	burger	hair	cut	mug	shot	spider	web	wrist	band
cheese	cake	ham	burger	nap	time	steam	boat		
chin	rest	hay	stack	news	letter	step	stool		

Table S5: Compound words used in Experiment 2.

air	craft	door	step	law	suit	sauce	pan
arm	chair	dragon	fly	leap	year	scare	crow
ash	tray	draw	bridge	lunch	box	school	bag
back	ground	drive	way	main	stream	screw	driver
basket	ball	earth	quake	mile	stone	ship	wreck
bee	hive	egg	shell	motor	cycle	shoe	lace
blood	stain	eye	lid	mouse	trap	shop	keeper
blue	berry	fan	base	mug	shot	silver	ware
board	walk	finger	nail	news	flash	sky	rocket
body	guard	fisher	man	night	fall	slide	show
book	shelf	fog	horn	note	card	sound	proof
bottle	neck	girl	friend	paper	cut	spider	web
brain	wash	grand	mother	pass	code	spread	sheet
butter	milk	grass	hopper	pay	check	summer	time
candle	stick	grave	yard	pepper	spray	sun	shine
car	pool	hair	brush	pick	pocket	super	charge
cat	fish	hay	stacks	pig	pen	sweet	heart
cheese	burger	heat	stroke	pigeon	hole	table	cloth
chin	rest	hedge	hog	pillow	case	tail	bone
cloak	room	home	town	pine	cone	tape	worm
clock	wise	honey	comb	play	mate	tax	payers
copper	head	hop	scotch	police	woman	tea	cup
court	house	horse	power	pop	corn	thumb	prints
cover	slip	jelly	bean	praise	worthy	tooth	paste
cow	boy	kick	boxing	rail	road	type	writer
cry	babies	knight	hood	rain	boot	waist	band
day	break	lady	bug	rattle	snake	water	color
dead	line	lamp	shade	ring	leader	wave	length
desk	top	land	fill	sail	boat	work	flow
dish	washer	lap	dog	sand	castle	rib	cage
						pot	pie

Table S6: Words used in the “random pair” condition in Experiment 2.

act	cherry	end	icicle	mood	queen	snow	truth	net	port	wasp
actor	chess	energy	idea	moon	quiet	soap	turkey	pet	soil	zest
advice	chest	engine	income	motion	quill	sock	turn	aid	taxi	bank
affair	child	entry	injury	mouth	quilt	soda	twig	bar	text	bill
agency	church	error	ink	movie	rabbit	sofa	twist	bow	tour	film
alarm	circle	estate	insect	mud	rake	song	two	ego	urge	fire
amount	city	event	iron	muscle	range	sort	uncle	fig	acres	firm
anger	clam	exam	island	music	ratio	soup	union	fox	beard	half
angle	class	expert	jam	name	reason	space	unit	inn	birds	hand
animal	client	extent	jar	nation	recess	spark	user	job	fruit	pain
apple	clover	face	jeans	nature	recipe	speech	value	lad	image	park
arch	club	fact	jewel	need	record	sponge	van	par	money	path
area	coach	family	judge	needle	region	spoon	vase	row	nurse	plan
art	coal	farm	jump	nerve	reward	spot	vein	set	speed	site
aspect	coast	farmer	kettle	noise	rhythm	spring	verse	sum	woods	star
attack	coffee	fear	key	north	rice	square	vessel	tip	acid	task
aunt	coil	field	king	nose	riddle	stage	video	dot	age	
baby	collar	flag	kiss	number	river	stamp	view	fee	bulk	
badge	cook	flame	knife	nut	robin	start	virus	fur	coat	
bait	cookie	flavor	knot	ocean	rock	steak	voice	gas	crop	
basin	cough	flesh	lab	offer	role	steam	volume	gig	drug	
basis	county	flight	ladder	office	roll	steel	voyage	gut	eggs	
bath	cousin	flock	lake	oil	roof	stem	wall	ivy	four	
battle	crate	floor	laugh	orange	root	stew	war	mat	pair	
bear	crayon	flower	leg	order	rose	stitch	waste	wit	post	
bed	cream	fold	letter	oven	route	stop	watch	ape	rent	
beef	credit	food	level	owner	rule	store	waves	bum	wage	
bell	crib	foot	limit	page	run	story	wealth	cot	ant	
bike	crime	force	lip	pail	safety	straw	week	cue	bud	
bird	crook	fork	liquid	parcel	salad	street	weight	dew	cab	
bite	crowd	form	loaf	part	salt	string	wheel	eel	can	

blade	crown	fowl	locket	party	sample	studio	wife	jug	dip	
blow	cub	frame	look	peace	scale	system	window	rag	dye	
bomb	curve	frog	loss	pear	scarf	tale	wine	spa	elk	
bonus	data	front	love	pencil	scene	talk	wing	tan	eon	
border	dealer	fuel	low	people	scent	tank	winner	tub	era	
brake	death	gate	lumber	person	seat	taste	winter	beet	foes	
branch	debt	geese	magic	pest	sector	team	wire	rack	gaps	
brass	deer	gene	mall	phone	seed	teeth	wish	date	gem	
bread	degree	glass	map	photo	self	temper	wood	feet	gems	
breath	depth	glove	marble	piano	sense	tennis	wool	game	ham	
brick	design	goal	mark	pickle	shake	tent	word	leak	hub	
bubble	desire	grade	market	pin	shape	test	worker	wild	jaws	
bucket	detail	grain	mask	pipe	sheep	thanks	world	yolk	jig	
bulb	device	grape	mass	pizza	shirt	theory	wound	fail	lips	
burst	dime	grip	match	place	shock	thing	wrench	fund	ode	
buyer	dinner	group	math	plane	side	thread	wrist	origin	owls	
cactus	dirt	growth	meal	plant	sign	thrill	yak	seven	doe	
cake	disk	guest	meat	plate	silk	throat	yarn	spirit	fob	
camera	dock	guitar	media	player	singer	throne	yoke	hue	kin	
camp	doll	gum	member	plot	sink	ticket	youth	hug	mob	
cannon	donkey	gun	memory	plough	sir	tiger	zebra	kid	pat	
canvas	drain	hall	menu	poetry	sister	tin	zinc	nap	pub	
cap	drama	hammer	metal	point	size	title	zipper	pod	tad	
care	drawer	harbor	method	poison	skate	toad	zoo	pup	zip	
cart	dress	hate	mice	policy	skill	toe	bus	tar	gang	
cast	drink	health	mind	porter	skin	tongue	fun	beds	jolt	
cattle	drop	height	mine	potato	skirt	topic	hat	dare	lawn	
cause	duck	hill	mint	powder	sleep	touch	hip	deck	loft	
cave	dust	hook	minute	price	slope	toy	ice	duke	pony	
cell	ear	hope	mist	profit	smash	trade	jet	gold	puck	
cellar	edge	hose	mitten	prose	smell	trail	sea	golf	roar	

cent	editor	hot	mode	pull	smile	train	tie	knee	seal	
chance	effect	hotel	moment	pump	smoke	tree	bun	list	solo	
change	effort	hour	monkey	push	snail	trick	kit	lord	tusk	
cheek	elbow	humor	month	quartz	sneeze	trip	log	peak	vibe	