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Long-lag morphological priming and inflectional paradigm size effects in Estonian and Finnish text reading

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Abstract

Morphological priming and paradigm size effects have been established in single word reading studies, however, morphological priming effects in longer texts have not been observed, and, to the best of our knowledge, paradigmatic effects in text reading have not yet been examined. The current study utilized the Multilingual Eye-Tracking Corpus MECO (Siegelman et al., 2022) to explore paradigmatic and morphological priming effects during text reading in Estonian and Finnish, two morphologically rich Finno-Ugric languages. The results showed clear inflectional paradigm size effects for Estonian during text reading in several eye movement measures, but not for Finnish. This may be linked to the support from the inflectional paradigm being semantically more beneficial to the reader in Estonian than in Finnish. The current study also showed clear long-lag inflectional priming effects in text reading, unlike what was observed in prior studies in Dutch, English, and Spanish. This study is thus the first to show that inflectional priming can extend beyond word or sentence level and suggest that inflectional variants of a particular word in Estonian and Finnish get and remain activated even when text context is present.

Keywords: reading; eye-tracking; morphological processing; morphological priming; Estonian; Finnish; inflectional paradigms.

1 Introduction

Morphological processing, including the processing of inflected words like *cats* or *talked*, has been examined almost exclusively with single word paradigms (see e.g., [Amenta & Crepaldi 2012](#), [Feldman & Milin 2018](#) for overviews). Most often, studies have employed a lexical decision task, requiring participants to differentiate between presented words and pseudowords. Compared to normal reading, a task such as lexical decision is a relatively artificial language task (see e.g. [Bertram 2011](#) and [Coskun et al. 2023](#), for a discussion). This raises the question whether various morphological effects generally reported in single word studies also emerge in more natural language settings, such as text reading. In the current study, we employ Finnish and Estonian to focus on two types of morphological effects that have been examined in single word studies but not in text reading: the long-lag morphological priming effect and the inflectional paradigm effect.

Morphological priming involves initial exposure to a prime stimulus that is morphologically related to a subsequently presented target word. Numerous single word studies have reported that a word form such as *cats* is processed faster when preceded by a different inflectional variant of the word such as *cat* (see [Amenta & Crepaldi, 2012](#)). Morphological priming has been found not only in studies where a target immediately follows the prime, but also when primes are separated from their target by 8-13 intervening items ([Raveh & Rueckl, 2000](#)). This long-lag priming effect implies sustained activation of the prime for a certain period of time.

Unseen inflectional variants within a specific inflectional word paradigm can also affect word processing speed. In morphologically rich languages like Estonian and Finnish, inflectional paradigms are typically very extensive, but their size, e.g., the number of different forms in which a word actually occurs, varies nevertheless considerably across words. For Estonian, it has been established that words with a large inflectional paradigm yield faster processing times than words with a small paradigm size ([Lõo et al., 2018a,b](#)).

Until now, both morphological priming and paradigm size effects have been established in single word studies, and morphological priming effects have also been found in some sentence reading studies with prime and target in close proximity (see e.g., [Paterson et al., 2011](#)). However, attempts to find priming effects in Spanish, English, or Dutch within longer text excerpts such as short stories ([Kamienkowski et al., 2018](#)) or books ([Coskun et al., 2023](#)) have been futile.

Morphological priming effects in text contexts are likely to be more pronounced in morphologically rich languages, such as Estonian and Finnish. These languages, characterized by their abundance of morphological variants, create overt morphological connections between words, which can significantly influence word processing. This effect is expected to be stronger in Estonian and Finnish compared to morphologically less rich languages, such as Spanish, English, or Dutch. Additionally, the considerable variability in the inflectional

33 paradigm size of nouns in Estonian and Finnish may also impact word processing in text contexts. Given
34 that inflectional variants are more frequently encountered in these languages, inflectional priming may play
35 a more critical role in facilitating word processing than in languages with smaller or less complex inflectional
36 paradigms.

37 The current study leveraged the Multilingual Eye-Tracking Corpus MECO (Siegelman et al., 2022) to
38 explore the paradigm size effect and a specific variant of morphological priming, namely inflectional priming
39 of nouns, in text reading, using the Estonian and Finnish datasets. MECO includes eye movement data on
40 reading 12 short expository texts of 100-200 words in 13 different languages, including Finnish and Estonian,
41 by approximately 50 adult readers per language. Initially written in English, the texts were translated or
42 paraphrased into other languages in the project, allowing a comprehensive cross-linguistic comparison of
43 adult reading behavior.

44 Compared to English, which mainly makes use of two nominal inflectional variants only, the singular
45 and plural nominative, Estonian and Finnish make use of a wide range of nominal inflections, making these
46 languages an excellent testbed for studying morphological effects during text reading. Before introducing the
47 current study, we will provide a brief comparative introduction to Estonian and Finnish nominal morphology.

48 1.1 Estonian and Finnish inflection

49 Both Estonian and Finnish are agglutinative languages, where most grammatical relations are realized by
50 adding suffixes to a word stem (Karlsson, 2015; Viitso, 2007). Estonian has 14 nominal cases in singular and
51 plural. Many plural forms also have parallel forms (e.g., the inessive plural of *jalg* 'foot' can be realized as
52 *jalgades*, *jalus*, or *jalges* 'foot, inessive plural'). Finnish also has 14 cases, and also some parallel forms (e.g.,
53 in the illative and partitive). Table 1 lists all the inflectional cases in Estonian and Finnish for the word
54 'auto', which means *car* in both languages. Most cases are similar in Estonian and Finnish. In fact, the only
55 difference is that Estonian has the terminative case, whereas Finnish has the instructive case which Estonian
56 does not have. In Finnish, the instructive and comitative case exist only in the plural, even if the meaning
57 applies to both singular and plural.

58 Finnish is more agglutinative than Estonian. Unlike Finnish, Estonian contains fused case endings, where
59 one suffix can express several meanings or grammatical functions. For example, in the Estonian nominal
60 form *majasid*, *-sid* both conveys the partitive and plurality, while in the Finnish form *taloja*, these functions
61 are marked separately with the suffix *j* indicating plurality and the suffix *a* the partitive function. Estonian
62 case endings are also often shorter than Finnish case endings. For example, in Estonian the inessive case is
63 marked with a single segment suffix *-s*, whereas in Finnish the inessive suffix contains three segments *-ssa*.

Table 1: Estonian and Finnish inflectional paradigms of *auto* ‘car’ with 28 members each. Case endings marked in bold.

Case	Singular in Estonian	Plural in Estonian	Singular in Finnish	Plural in Finnish	Meaning
Nominative	auto	autod	auto	autot	car(s)
Genitive	auto	autode	auton	autojen	of car(s)
Partitive	autot	autosid	autoa	autoja	car(s)
Illative	autosse	autodesse	autoon	autoihin	into car(s)
Inessive	autos	autodes	autossa	autoissa	in car(s)
Elicative	autost	autodest	autosta	autoista	from car(s)
Allative	autole	autodele	autolle	autoille	onto car(s)
Adessive	autol	autodel	autolla	autoilla	on car(s)
Ablative	autolt	autodelt	autolta	autoilta	from car(s)
Translative	autoks	autodeks	autoksi	autoiksi	as car(s)
Terminative	autoni	autodeni	-	-	to car(s)
Essive	autona	autodena	autona	autoina	as car(s)
Abessive	autota	autodeta	autotta	autoitta	without car(s)
Comitative	autoga	autodega	-	autoineen	with car(s)
Instructive	-	-	-	autoin	by means of car(s)

64 Furthermore, opposite to Finnish, some grammatical cases in Estonian are not expressed in suffixes at all. In
65 Finnish, the genitive singular is marked with an *-n* (*talo* and *talon* ‘house, nominative and genitive singular’,
66 *sää* and *sään* ‘weather, nominative and genitive singular’, *lapsi* and *lapsen* ‘child, nominative and genitive
67 singular’). In Estonian, the genitive singular case can be syncretistic with the nominative case when the
68 stem ends with a vowel (e.g., *maja* ‘house, nominative/genitive singular’). Alternatively, it is formed by
69 adding a stem vowel to the nominative singular. However, in that case, there are no set rules with which
70 vowel a genitive ends (e.g., *ilm* and *ilma* ‘nominative and genitive singular, weather’, *laps* and *lapse* ‘child,
71 nominative and genitive singular’, *kool* and *kooli* ‘school, nominative and genitive singular’).

72 Finnish also has the possibility to express possessive relations through suffixes. Moreover, it uses suffixes
73 and clitics very extensively, for instance, to denote stress (*-pA*), emphasis (*-hAn*), inclusiveness and focus
74 (*-kin*) or questioning (*-kO*). Estonian has no possessive suffixes and only a few clitics (e.g., *-ki* and *-gi*,
75 expressing inclusiveness and focus). In terms of morphological stem changes, Finnish has retained consonant
76 gradation to a greater extent than Estonian.

77 Given these different characteristics, a Finnish word form like *talo+ssa+ni+kin* has to be expressed with
78 two different words in Estonian *minu maja+s+ki* and four different words in English ‘*also in my house*’. In
79 other words, compared to English, the number of possible different inflectional forms is very large in Estonian,
80 but even larger in Finnish. To anticipate, the range of the realized inflectional paradigm size in the current
81 study is also considerably larger in Finnish than in Estonian (see Figure 1 and Table 1).

82 The morphological richness of both Estonian and Finnish also yields a different scenario with respect to
83 morphological priming. For instance, the 12 English texts in the MECO database (Siegelman et al., 2022)
84 contain 577 nouns in English of which 32 percent have an inflectional suffix, mostly marking the plural. For

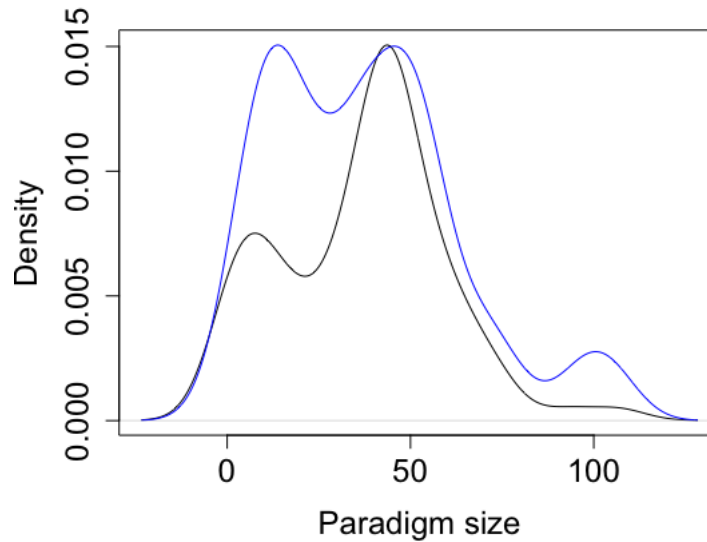


Figure 1: Estonian and Finnish paradigm densities for the nouns in the MECO texts. Estonian in black: N=173, Bandwidth=3.54; Finnish in blue: N=174, Bandwidth=8.13.

85 Estonian and Finnish, the percentage of inflected nouns amounts to 58 percent and 92 percent, respectively.
 86 The higher density of inflectional forms in the latter two languages implies that the distance between different
 87 morphological forms is generally smaller, whereas conversely, the chance of words being repeated in exactly
 88 the same form is higher in English.

89 1.2 Inflectional priming in single word studies

90 The goal of inflectional priming studies has been to establish how language users make use of morphological
 91 structure and at what point in time it affects lexical processing. Starting with the seminal study by [Stanners](#)
 92 [et al. \(1979\)](#), it has been established repeatedly that inflectional variants of the same lemma prime each
 93 other. Although the interpretation for this effect has differed across studies, they agree that morphological
 94 structure can affect word processing from early on (see e.g., [Amenta & Crepaldi 2012](#), [Feldman & Milin 2018](#)
 95 for overviews). To capture the time course of morphological processing, researchers have made use of both
 96 the unmasked and masked priming paradigms. Unmasked priming studies, in which primes are consciously
 97 processed, show inflectional priming effects in several languages. For instance, [Raveh \(2002\)](#) showed that
 98 English inflected primes were faster after uninflected targets using different durations for primes (150 ms vs.
 99 250 ms). Feldman has reported similar inflectional priming effects for Serbian ([Feldman, 1994](#)).

100 To establish early involvement of morphological processes, masked priming studies have been conducted
 101 in which the prime is offered for a very short amount of time, 50 ms or even shorter. The short exposure

102 time prevents conscious awareness of the prime, but several studies showed that even under these conditions,
103 inflectionally related forms prime each other (e.g., [Feldman 1994](#); [Raveh 2002](#); [Raveh & Rueckl 2000](#)). [Lõo](#)
104 [et al. \(2022\)](#) found not only a clear masked priming effect for inflected English forms (e.g., *bulls-bull*), but
105 also showed, by means of quantile regression analyses, that the effect was already present within the first
106 decile of the reaction times. They also showed that the priming with real inflected forms remained significant
107 until the last deciles, whereas the pseudo-complex priming (*bully-bull*) was weaker across all deciles. This
108 suggests that inflectional priming emerges at an early stage and that it may differ depending on whether the
109 prime is semantically related to the target or not.

110 Several inflectional priming studies indicate that there are not only early effects of morphological structure
111 in reading, but also that the effect may endure for an extended period. This phenomenon is referred to as
112 long-lag inflectional priming. [Feldman & Bentin \(1994\)](#) showed clear inflectional priming effects for prime-
113 target pairs in Hebrew that were separated by 7 to 13 unrelated items, both for prime-target pairs with
114 similar orthographic patterns as for those with dissimilar orthographic patterns. Similarly, [Raveh & Rueckl](#)
115 [\(2000\)](#) found solid inflectional priming effects in English for prime-target pairs separated by 8-13 intervening
116 items. Comparable effects with regular inflections were observed in English, French, German and Spanish
117 ([Münte et al., 1999](#); [Rodríguez-Fornells et al., 2002](#); [Royle et al., 2012](#); [Weyerts et al., 1996](#)). The long-lag
118 morphological priming effect cannot be solely attributed to semantic overlap, as there is little evidence for
119 long-lag priming of semantically related but morphologically unrelated word pairs (*doctor-nurse*) (see e.g.,
120 [Henderson et al. 1984](#)). Thus, it seems that both form and meaning overlap are required for long-lag priming
121 to occur.

122 Taken together, single-word priming studies suggest that activation of internal morphological structure in
123 inflected word forms emerges very rapidly and lingers on for a considerable period of time. The latter finding
124 raises the question to what extent there is prolonged activation of morphological structure when inflected
125 words are embedded in a textual context. To examine this is one of the aims of the current study.

126 1.3 Paradigmatic effects in single words studies

127 Several studies focusing on single words indicate that word processing times are affected not only by the
128 properties of the words being read, such as morphological structure, length, or frequency, but also by words
129 that are morphologically related to them. One clear example pertains to the research on morphological
130 family size, the number of derivations and compound words (e.g., *worker, handwork, work-hour*) derived
131 from a simplex noun (e.g., *work*). That is, several studies showed that response times in visual lexical
132 decision are shorter for simplex nouns with larger morphological families ([Bertram et al., 2000](#); [De Jong et al.,](#)

133 2003; Schreuder & Baayen, 1997). Moscoso del Prado Martín et al. (2004) showed that the morphological
134 family size effect is semantic in nature, that is, they found that only semantically related family members
135 (e.g., *työ* ‘work’ - *työläinen* ‘worker’) contributed to the family size effect, but not semantically more remote
136 members (e.g., *urotyö* ‘heroic deed’).

137 Another example, closer to the current study, concerns the distribution of word forms in the inflectional
138 paradigm of a complex word. One relevant measure here is inflectional entropy, which quantifies the average
139 amount of information in an inflectional paradigm. The more uniformly the inflected forms are distributed
140 within a paradigm, the higher the inflectional entropy of that paradigm. Inflected forms with higher inflec-
141 tional entropy have been reported to be recognized faster than inflected forms with lower inflectional entropy
142 (Milin et al., 2009; Moscoso del Prado Martín et al., 2004).

143 A paradigm measure related to inflectional entropy is inflectional paradigm size. In most Indo-European
144 languages, inflectional paradigms contain only a few inflectional variants (e.g., nominative, genitive, dative
145 and accusative forms in German), but in Finno-Ugric languages like Estonian and Finnish there are many
146 more possibilities, since several prepositions, possessive markers and other linguistic units need to be actu-
147 alized as suffixes rather than as separate words. Consequently, the inflectional paradigm size for practically
148 any given word is larger in Finnish or Estonian than in languages with simpler morphology. It is important
149 to consider, though, that many forms of an inflectional paradigm are never realized, as they are semantically
150 implausible. For instance, certain words do not easily take the plural (e.g., *selkärangat* ‘spine, nominative,
151 plural’), others do not combine very well with the essive (e.g., *autona* ‘as a car, essive singular’, see Table 1),
152 others again do not combine well with possessive suffixes (e.g., *aurinkosi* ‘your sun’), and so forth. Conse-
153 quently, many formally possible word forms are not found in language corpora (Karlsson, 1986). The actual
154 number of inflectional forms realized for any given word thus depends to a large extent on the semantic range
155 or potential of that word as a concept. Additionally, the frequency of the word itself plays a role, with more
156 frequent words typically appearing in more inflectional forms.

157 For Estonian, it has been established that words with larger realized inflectional paradigms are recognized
158 faster in a visual lexical decision task and read aloud faster in a naming experiment (Lõo et al., 2018a,b).
159 Bertram et al. (2000) suggested that the activation of a large number of morphological descendants leads to
160 significant overall activation in the central lexicon, allowing participants to respond quickly. This suggestion
161 pertained to the morphological family size effect, but we contend that the same holds for the inflectional
162 paradigm size effect and that this effect entails substantial interconnectivity in the mental lexicon through
163 inflectional relatedness. Interestingly, Lõo et al. (2018a) also found an inflectional paradigm size effect in a
164 semantic categorization task. In line with this, Lõo et al. (2018b) showed by two naming tasks that the size
165 of the inflectional paradigm has a stronger effect in the later deciles of the reaction times. Taken together,

166 the results suggest that, similar to what has been found for the morphological family size effect, there is a
167 semantic contribution to the inflectional paradigm size effect.

168 In summary, various paradigmatic effects have been reported in previous studies, suggesting that - even
169 when an isolated single word is read - inflectionally related word forms of the same paradigm are activated.
170 However, it is not clear whether such effects remain present within a sentence or text context. The second
171 aim of the current study is to investigate that.

172 1.4 Morphological priming and paradigmatic effects in sentence and text read- 173 ing context

174 With the growing interest in eye movement research in reading, numerous studies have now explored morpho-
175 logical effects within sentence contexts (for a survey, see [Bertram 2011](#) and [Bertram & Hyönä 2023](#)). However,
176 very few sentence and text context studies have investigated the role of morphological priming during read-
177 ing. There are nevertheless some exceptions. [Paterson et al. \(2011\)](#) found in a morphological priming during
178 sentence reading study that morphologically and semantically related words (e.g., *marsh-marshy*) prime each
179 other, whereas words that are opaquely related (e.g., *secretary-secret*) or only orthographically related (e.g.,
180 *extract-extra*) do not. The study included prime-target pairs embedded in declarative sentences with 2 to
181 3 intervening words (“The forest had a marshy path leading to a marsh where students studied wildlife”).
182 Other priming effects within sentence context were found with some specific eye movement paradigms in
183 which the prime was replaced by the target after 30-50 ms ([Deutsch et al., 2018](#); [Mousikou & Schroeder,](#)
184 [2019](#)) or where prime and target were adjacent to each other ([Dann et al., 2021](#)). In other words, one can
185 conclude that morphological priming can be extended from single-word studies to sentence content studies
186 where prime and target are in close proximity to each other.

187 However, just as one could argue that making lexical decisions is not a common activity for the average
188 reader, one could also argue that encountering morphologically related words within the same sentence is not
189 all that common in typical reading scenarios. In other words, to increase ecological validity, morphological
190 priming needs to be studied within larger text contexts. To our knowledge, there are only two studies to
191 date that have undertaken this task.

192 [Kamienkowski et al. \(2018\)](#) examined an eye-tracking corpus of L1 Spanish passage reading of 10 texts
193 with on average 3,300 words per text. They reported no change in processing times in an inflected form after
194 its base form (*trees* following *tree*) or a base form occurring after its inflected form (*tree* following *trees*). In
195 contrast, they reported a priming repetition effect, that is, when a word was repeated in exactly the same
196 form (*tree* preceding *tree* or *trees* preceding *trees*), the second instance was read faster than the first one.

197 This repetition effect was independent of the distance between the prime and target, which ranged from 1 to
198 1,000 words. Similar findings were reported by [Coskun et al. \(2023\)](#) on the basis of the GECO corpus ([Cop
199 et al., 2017](#)), which includes the registration of eye movements during the reading of Agatha Christie’s novel
200 ‘The Mysterious Affair at Styles’ by multiple readers in English L1, Dutch or English L2. That is, no effect
201 of inflectional priming was observed in L1 and L2, indicating that this priming effect is difficult to find in a
202 broader textual context, at least in morphologically limited languages. However, once again, a robust effect
203 of word repetition priming was observed in L1 or L2, although the distances between repeated words were
204 even longer than in [Kamienkowski et al. \(2018\)](#), more specifically, the median lag was 6,357 words.

205 With respect to morphology-related paradigmatic effects, [Schmidtke et al. \(2021\)](#) did not find an effect on
206 the entropy of conceptual relations in English compound processing in sentence context, using a very large
207 dataset. [Baayen et al. \(2011\)](#) demonstrated the effect of paradigm typicality (relative entropy) in self-paced
208 sentence reading tasks in Serbian. However, we are not aware of any study that has examined the role of
209 inflectional entropy or paradigm size in text context.

210 1.5 The current study

211 Until now, morphological priming effects have been found in sentence reading but not in text reading context,
212 and inflectional paradigm size has not been investigated in text reading context at all. The current study
213 sets out to investigate whether these effects can be observed in two languages with a very rich inflectional
214 morphology, Estonian and Finnish. As in [Kamienkowski et al. \(2018\)](#) and in [Coskun et al. \(2023\)](#), we
215 compared the processing of nouns in the text context in the baseline condition with the processing of nouns
216 in the identity priming condition and the inflectional priming condition. The former condition was the first
217 appearance of a noun in the text, while the latter two included words that appeared for the second time,
218 either in identical form or in an inflectional variant. Slightly different from [Kamienkowski et al. \(2018\)](#)
219 and [Coskun et al. \(2023\)](#) and to accommodate rich Finno-Ugric morphology, we created a broad category of
220 inflectional priming, including base-inflected (*uks-uksed* ‘door, nominative singular-door, nominative plural’),
221 inflected-base (*uksed-uks* ‘door, nominative plural-door, nominative singular’) and inflected-inflected (*uksed-
222 ustest* ‘door, nominative plural- door, elative plural’) prime-target pairs. [Coskun et al. \(2023\)](#) encouraged
223 future studies to replicate their study in other languages, but also to include subsequent instances of base
224 and target words, as ‘it is possible that morphological priming in L1 reading starts to emerge after the
225 second occurrence.’ To address this issue, we added a fourth condition to our study, namely the enhanced
226 inflectional priming condition, which includes target words (e.g., *ustest*) that have two or more inflectionally
227 related primes (e.g., *uksed-uks-ustest-* or *uksed-uksed-ustest*). We expect that there will be a processing

228 advantage for the inflectional priming condition compared to the baseline condition and that this effect will
229 be enlarged when considering the enhanced inflectional priming condition. We do not expect a clear difference
230 between Estonian and Finnish, as texts in both languages contain numerous inflectional variants.

231 The inflectional paradigm size, which is in the focus of our second goal, varies from 2 to 56 word forms in
232 Estonian and from 1 to 104 word forms in Finnish (see Table 2) and will be treated as a continuous variable.
233 We hypothesize that there are three possible outcomes concerning the effect of inflectional paradigm size in
234 text context. Just as was found in single word studies, we may find that a larger inflectional paradigm size
235 comes with shorter word processing times due to greater paradigmatic support. However, larger paradigms
236 also imply more word form possibilities and hence more competition among paradigm members, which may
237 lead to word processing delays. A third alternative is that there are other contextual cues that override the
238 potential impact of paradigm size, yielding no impact of this variable whatsoever. Given that paradigms
239 are larger in Finnish than in Estonian, the first option predicts stronger positive effects for Finnish than
240 Estonian, and the second option predicts stronger negative effects.

241 In this study, we consider three different eye movement measures to assess the time course of inflectional
242 priming and the effect of inflectional paradigm size: Gaze Duration, Total Fixation Duration, and Rereading.
243 In this way, we can establish whether the effects emerge immediately in first pass reading, whether they only
244 emerge at a later time point, or whether they immerse in first pass reading and continue to have an impact
245 at later stages.

246 **2 Method**

247 **2.1 Participants**

248 The current study made use of the Multilingual Eye-movement Corpus (MECO) (Siegelman et al., 2022). The
249 corpus contains eye-tracking data on reading encyclopedic texts from 13 languages in their mother tongue,
250 including Estonian and Finnish. 52 native Estonian speakers (age range: 18-30 years; 16 males, 36 females)
251 and 49 native Finnish speakers (age range: 19-35 years; 7 males, 42 females) were recruited for the study.
252 All participants had normal or corrected to normal vision.

253 **2.2 Materials**

254 The participants read 12 one-page encyclopedic Wikipedia-style texts. They were all about common topics,
255 such as historical figures (e.g. the Roman God Janus), events (e.g., World Environment Day) or phenomena
256 (e.g., Beekeeping). The texts were all originally in English and were later translated or paraphrased into

257 their respective languages (see [Siegelman et al. 2022](#) for details on the translation procedure).

258 The length of the texts varied from 7-13 sentences (102-143 words) in Estonian and Finnish. From the
259 texts, we first selected all Estonian nouns (n=586) and Finnish nouns (n=596). We limited our data sets to
260 nouns only to control for possible effects of part of speech and to make our analysis comparable to previous
261 studies on inflectional processing ([Lõo et al., 2018a,b, 2023](#)). To make our study comparable to previous
262 studies on long-lag morphological priming ([Coskun et al., 2023](#); [Kamienkowski et al., 2018](#)), we also excluded
263 nouns that occurred only once in the text (about 50% of nouns in both languages) and nouns that occurred
264 more than twice in the exact same form (about 10% of nouns in both languages). These restrictions limited
265 our data set to 207 nouns for Estonian and 191 nouns for Finnish. Finally, we removed from the remaining
266 data those nouns for which we did not have frequency or inflectional paradigm size information from our
267 respective language corpora (33 nouns in the Estonian data and 16 nouns in the Finnish data). This left us
268 with the final data set that contains 173 nouns for Estonian and 174 nouns for Finnish.

269 **2.3 Procedure**

270 Eye movements in Finnish reading were recorded with an EyeLink Portable Duo and eye movements in
271 Estonian with an Eyelink 1000+ eye tracker (SR Research, Ontario, Canada), using a sampling rate of 1000
272 Hz and a 9-point calibration. A chin and a head rest were used to minimize head movements. Each text
273 was fully displayed on a single screen using 1.5-line spacing. The Estonian site used a 23 inch screen and the
274 Finnish site a 17 inch screen. The font for Estonian texts was 20 point Consolas and for Finnish 22 point
275 Courier New. Participants were instructed to read silently for comprehension and press the space bar when
276 they finished reading. Comprehension questions about the content of the text followed each text, serving as an
277 attention check. Participants also completed a language background questionnaire and conducted individual
278 differences tests to measure several cognitive skills, including some other language skills. This data is not
279 considered in the current study.

280 **3 Analyses**

281 **3.1 Predictor and response variables**

282 We focused on three eye-tracking measures as response variables to capture both early and late reading: (1)
283 Gaze Duration (i.e., the summed duration of all fixations on the word before the gaze leaves the word for the
284 first time) (2) Total Fixation Duration (the summed duration of all fixations on the word), (3) Rereading (a
285 binary index of whether the gaze came back to the word or not after the gaze left the word for the first time).

286 The duration of first fixation was also considered, but no effect occurred in this very early reading measure.

287 There were two independent variables of interest. One was Priming condition (with four categorical levels:
288 baseline, identity priming, inflectional priming, enhanced inflectional priming). We considered as priming
289 only occurrences within the same text, rather than between the different texts. Priming conditions were
290 coded as follows:

291 (1) Baseline - the noun appeared in the text for the first time, but it also occurred later in the text as the
292 exact same form or as a different inflectional variant (104 occurrences in Estonian, 77 occurrences in Finnish).

293 (2) Identity priming - the noun appeared once in the text before and in the exact same surface form, e.g.,
294 *alguses* ‘beginning, inessive singular’- *alguses* ‘beginning, inessive singular’ (39 occurrences in Estonian, 25
295 occurrences in Finnish).

296 (3) Inflectional priming - the noun appeared in the text once before in a different inflectional variant, but not
297 in the exact same form, e.g., *maailma* ‘world, genitive/partitive singular’- *maailmas* ‘world, inessive singular’
298 (46 occurrences in Estonian, 53 occurrences in Finnish).

299 (4) Enhanced inflectional priming - the noun appeared more than once in the text before, but not in the
300 same form, e.g., *uksed* ‘door, nominative plural’-*uksed* ‘door, nominative plural’-*ustest* ‘door, elative plural’
301 or *lipp* ‘flag, nominative singular’-*lipud* ‘flag, nominative plural’-*lippe* ‘flag, partitive plural’ (33 occurrences
302 in Estonian, 36 in Finnish).

303 In the baseline condition, we considered eye movements to the first occurrence of the word, in the identity
304 and inflectional priming conditions eye movements to the second word occurrence, and in the enhanced
305 inflectional priming eye movements to the last word occurrence.

306 The second independent variable of interest was the Inflectional Paradigm Size, the number of inflectional
307 variants of the target nouns in corpora of Estonian and Finnish (range: 2-56 in Estonian, 1-104 in Finnish).
308 Estonian inflectional paradigm size counts, lemma and surface frequency information were extracted from the
309 15-million token Balanced Corpus of Estonian (Kaalep & Muischnek, 2005) and Finnish inflectional paradigm
310 size counts, lemma and surface frequencies from the Finnish Turun Sanomat newspaper corpus comprising
311 22.7 million word forms by using the lexical search program WordMill (Laine & Virtanen, 1999). Surface
312 frequency captures the total number of occurrences of a particular form in the corpus. Lemma frequency is
313 the cumulative frequency of a complete inflectional paradigm. Word length was determined by counting the
314 number of characters in a word. Table 2 gives an overview of the lexical-statistical characteristics of these
315 variables.

316 Furthermore, we considered several other morphological characteristics (e.g., stem change, compound-
317 ing, number of morphemes, case, number) of Estonian and Finnish nouns as control variables. However,
318 besides compounding, that is, a binary index of whether a noun was a compound word or not, none of them

319 significantly influenced Estonian and Finnish reading times.

320 Finally, we considered the priming distance (i.e., the distance in the number of words between the baseline
321 and the primed word) as a control variable. Like previous studies, it was not a significant predictor. It was
322 not possible to consider compound constituent and derivational priming with the current dataset, as there
323 were only a few occurrences of compound and derivational constituents being repeated in the texts.

324 See Table 2 for an overview of the predictor variables in the two languages.

Table 2: Estonian and Finnish predictor variables.

	Estonian	Finnish
Compounding	no: 142, yes: 31	no: 142, yes - 32
Surface frequency	1-4,229 (M=391.1)	1-44 024 (M=969.4)
Lemma frequency	2-5,1041 (M=4,021.3)	2-14,6456 (M=8,391)
Word length	3-20 (M=7.7)	4-22 (M=8.8)
Paradigm size	2-56 (M=21.3)	1-104 (M=37.7)

325 3.2 Collinearity

326 Collinearity between numeric predictors can influence regression analyses (see e.g., [Tomaschek et al., 2018](#)).
327 Specifically, collinearity can cause suppression or enhancement (see e.g., [Friedman & Wall, 2005](#)), which
328 changes the original relationship between the predictor and the dependent variables, making it stronger,
329 weaker, or reversing the direction.

330 Therefore, collinear predictors were run both together and separately in regression models to ensure that
331 the effects of suppression or enhancement between the correlated predictors would not affect the final results.
332 To assess collinearity, we calculated Pearson’s product-moment and Spearman rank correlations between our
333 eye movement measures and predictor variables and among our predictor variables. Differences between the
334 two coefficients suggest that the relationship between the variables may be nonlinear or that they are not
335 normally distributed. Tables 3 and 4 suggest that the frequency of the lemma, the surface frequency, and
336 the size of the inflectional paradigm were correlated with each other in both data sets according to both
337 coefficients. However, they also suggest that Pearson’s correlation coefficients underestimate the correlation
338 strength between the lemma frequency and the paradigm size, as well as between the surface frequency and
339 the lemma frequency. Variables in current data sets may not be normally distributed and one may want to
340 use nonlinear regression modeling. Model comparisons showed that models with surface frequency had lower
341 AIC scores than models with lemma frequency. Therefore, we included only surface frequency in the final
342 regression models.

Table 3: The Pearson’s product-moment and Spearman-rank correlation coefficient values of continuous variables in Estonian. Pearson correlations are shown above the diagonal and are marked in gray, Spearman correlations below the diagonal in black. Pairs with values over 0.6 are marked in bold. gaze dur=gaze duration; total fixation dur=total fixation duration; surface freq = surface frequency; lemma freq = lemma frequency; paradigm size = inflectional paradigm size.

	gaze dur	total fixation dur	word length	surface freq	lemma freq	paradigm size
gaze dur	1.00	0.54	0.32	-0.11	-0.12	-0.23
total fixation dur	0.56	1.00	0.26	-0.08	-0.09	-0.18
word length	0.30	0.27	1.00	-0.20	-0.26	-0.55
surface freq	-0.13	-0.13	-0.27	1.00	0.28	0.23
lemma freq	-0.21	-0.18	-0.43	0.55	1.00	0.60
paradigm size	-0.20	-0.18	-0.47	0.45	0.81	1.00

Table 4: The Pearson and Spearman-rank correlation coefficient values of continuous variables in Finnish. Pearson correlations are shown above the diagonal and marked in gray, Spearman correlations below the diagonal in black. Pairs with values over 0.6 are marked in bold. gaze dur=gaze duration; total fixation dur=total fixation duration; surface freq = surface frequency; lemma freq = lemma frequency; paradigm size = inflectional paradigm size.

	gaze dur	total fixation dur	word length	surface freq	lemma freq	paradigm size
gaze dur	1.00	0.54	0.24	-0.06	-0.11	-0.14
total fixation dur	0.22	1.00	0.21	-0.07	-0.08	-0.14
word length	0.24	0.24	1.00	-0.15	-0.20	-0.52
surface freq	-0.10	-0.13	-0.46	1.00	0.61	0.30
lemma freq	-0.11	-0.13	-0.52	0.86	1.00	0.49
paradigm size	-0.12	-0.14	-0.51	0.74	0.92	1.00

3.3 Modelling strategy

For regression analysis, we used generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs, [Hastie & Tibshirani 1990](#); [Wood 2017](#); the R-package *mgcv*, version 1.8). GAMMs allow the testing of nonlinear relationships between the dependent and the predictor variables as well as between other predictor variables. Gaze durations and total fixation durations were modeled using a regression model with a Gaussian distribution, and for rereading, we applied a model with a binomial distribution.

Gaze durations below 50 ms and above 1500 ms and total fixation durations below 50 ms and above 2000 ms were considered outliers and removed from both data sets (3% of the data in Estonian, 1% of the data in Finnish).

We used the Box-Cox transformation framework implemented in the *powerTransform* function from the *R* package *car* ([Fox & Weisberg, 2019](#)) to determine whether a transformation was necessary for each variable. Based on this analysis, we applied a square-root transformation to the paradigm size, and a logarithmic transformation to the frequency. Additionally, we square-root transformed the dependent variables to better approximate a normal distribution.

Final models were obtained by pursuing an exploratory step-wise forward fitting modeling approach in

358 which the contribution of each individual predictor was compared against the model containing random
359 effects and control variables. This procedure was followed by a backward model fitting procedure in order
360 to reassess each predictor’s contribution by comparing the AIC scores. Random effects contained random
361 intercepts for readers and texts (Coskun et al., 2023; Kuperman, 2022). Following Baayen & Linke (2020), we
362 did not add the word random intercept to the models to avoid excessively high concavity between random
363 intercepts and fixed effects.

364 To avoid overfitting and following Baayen et al. (2017), we did not include any random slopes in our
365 models. Pairwise comparisons between different levels of Priming condition were conducted by using each
366 of the four levels as the reference level. Final regression models for gaze duration, total fixation duration
367 and rereading are presented below. The effects for gaze duration and total fixation duration were in general
368 similar, but were stronger for total fixation duration.

369 4 Results

370 4.1 Estonian gaze duration

371 First, we investigated gaze duration effects of the Estonian nouns. Here and in the sections below, we first
372 report the effects of control variables and then proceed to critical effects. Compounding, surface frequency,
373 and word length emerged as significant control variables in the model. Words that were compounds were
374 read faster than words that were not compounds ($\beta=0.54$, $t=2.60$, $p=0.009$). The upper left panel of Figure
375 2 shows that gaze durations increased linearly with increasing word length. The upper right panel of Figure
376 2 shows that the surface frequency had an inverse U-shaped effect on the gaze duration. Infrequent and
377 frequent words were read with shorter durations than medium-frequency words. The effect levels off in a
378 higher frequency range.

379 Next, we turn to our variables of interest. Both Priming condition and Inflectional paradigm size had
380 significant facilitatory effects. The effect of Priming condition can be seen in the left panel of Figure 4.
381 Compared to the baseline condition (i.e., the word was read for the first time), words in the enhanced
382 inflectional priming condition (i.e., the word had been read multiple times before but not in the exact same
383 form) were read the fastest ($\beta=-1.03$, $t=-5.89$, $p<0.0001$), followed by the inflectional priming (i.e., the word
384 had been read once before but not in the exact same form, $\beta= -0.44$, $t=-2.88$, $p=0.004$) and identity priming
385 conditions (i.e., the word had been read once before in the exact same surface form, $\beta= -0.44$, $t=-2.82$,
386 $p=0.004$).

387 We also compared other condition levels with each other. Pairwise comparisons showed that the priming

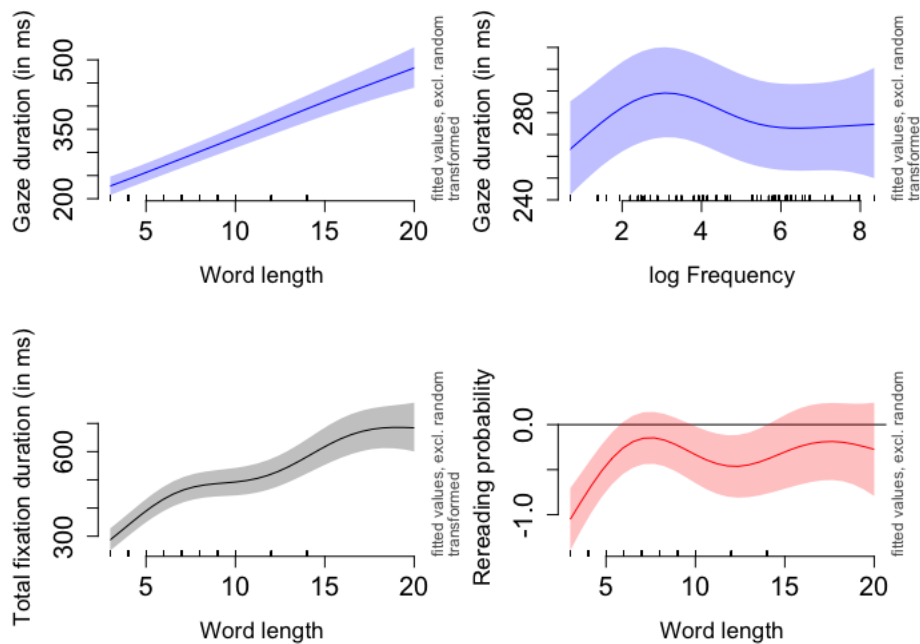


Figure 2: Predicted values of Word length and Surface frequency fitted to Estonian gaze duration, and word length fitted to total fixation duration and rereading. The shadows represent 95 % confidence bands (SE=1.96) of the regression line for individual predictors. Y-axes of gaze duration and total fixation duration were back-transformed to milliseconds.

388 was significantly greater for the enhanced inflected priming than for the identity priming ($\beta=0.59$, $t=2.92$,
 389 $p=0.004$) and the inflectional priming ($\beta=0.59$, $t=3.08$, $p=0.002$). The difference between the identity and
 390 the inflectional priming categories was not significant. This effect of Priming condition is illustrated in the
 391 left panel of Figure 4.

392 The left panel of Figure 3 illustrates the effect of the inflectional paradigm size on the duration of gaze.
 393 Words with more paradigm members were read faster than words with fewer paradigm members. The effect
 394 was linear. The full summary of Estonian gaze duration model is in Table 5 in the Appendix.

395 In summary, both the priming condition and the size of the inflectional paradigm emerged as significant
 396 predictors as early as in gaze duration.

397 4.2 Estonian total fixation duration

398 Next, we investigated the cumulative reading measure, the total fixation duration, which taps into later stages
 399 of word processing. Compounding and surface frequency were not significant control variables in the total
 400 fixation duration model. Word length emerged as a significant control variable. Longer words were read with
 401 longer total fixation duration than shorter words. This effect is slightly nonlinear and stronger for shorter

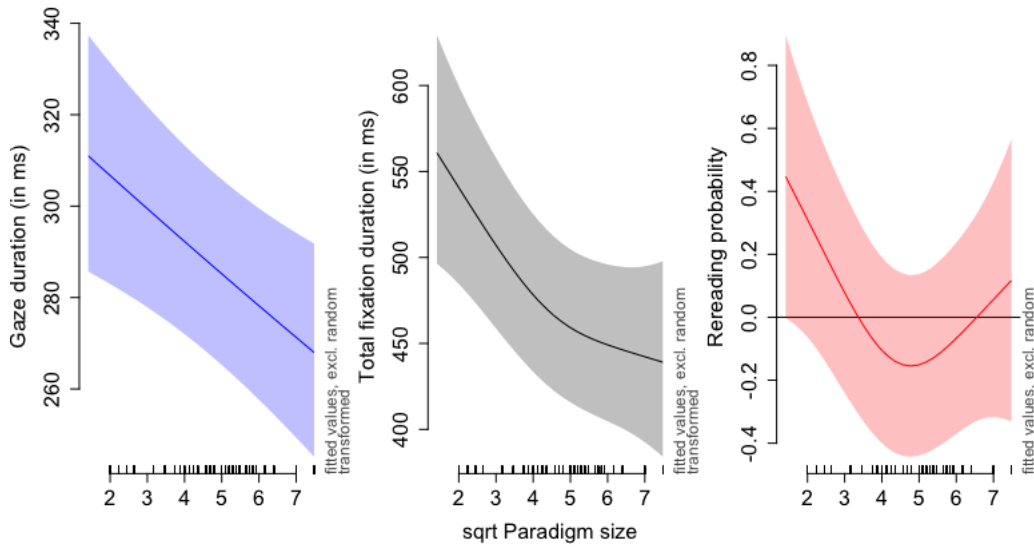


Figure 3: Predicted values of paradigm size fitted to back-transformed Estonian gaze duration, back-transformed total fixation duration and rereading. The shadows represent 95 % confidence bands (SE=1.96) of the regression line for individual predictors. Y-axes for gaze duration and total fixation duration were back-transformed to milliseconds.

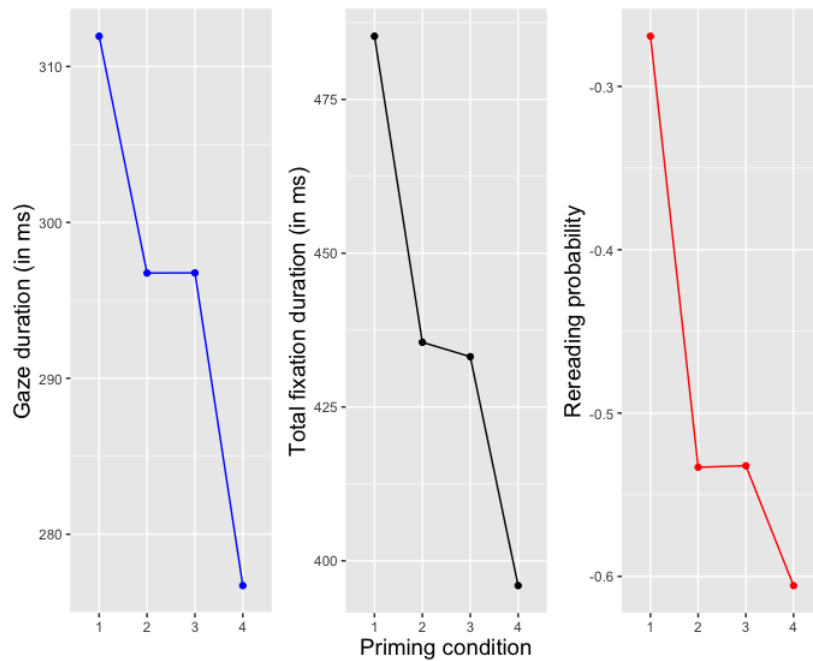


Figure 4: Predicted values of priming condition fitted to Estonian gaze duration, total fixation duration and rereading. 1-baseline, 2-identity priming, 3-inflectional priming, 4-enhanced inflectional priming. Y-axes for gaze duration and total fixation duration were back-transformed to milliseconds.

402 words (see the lower left panel of Figure 2).

403 The priming condition and the size of the inflection paradigm were significant predictors of eye movements.
404 As shown in the middle left panel of Figure 4, compared to the baseline condition, the words in the enhanced
405 inflectional priming condition read the fastest ($\beta=-2.13$, $t=-8.74$, $p<0.001$), followed by the words in the
406 inflectional priming ($\beta=-1.22$, $t=-5.77$, $p<0.0001$) and in the identity priming conditions ($\beta=-1.16$, $t=-5.39$,
407 $p<0.0001$). Pairwise comparisons showed that words in the enhanced inflectional priming condition were read
408 significantly faster than words in identity and inflectional priming conditions ($\beta= 0.97$, $t=3.43$, $p<0.0001$;
409 $\beta= 0.91$, $t=3.40$, $p<0.001$). The difference between identity priming and inflectional priming conditions was
410 not significant.

411 The middle panel of Figure 3 illustrates the effect of the size of the inflectional paradigm on the total
412 fixation. duration. Words with more paradigm members were read faster than words with fewer paradigm
413 members, while the effect is steeper in the lower paradigm size range. The full summary of Estonian total
414 fixation duration model is in Table 6 in the Appendix.

415 In summary, like in the gaze duration model, Priming condition and Inflectional paradigm size were
416 significant predictors of total fixation duration.

417 4.3 Estonian rereading

418 Finally, we investigated effects in rereading the Estonian nouns, i.e., the measure of whether the reader came
419 back to the word or not after the gaze left the word for the first time. Compounding and word frequency did
420 not yield significance. The lower right panel of Figure 2 shows that longer words were more likely to be read
421 again, but that the effect levels off at medium-length words.

422 The right left panel of Figure 4 shows that compared to the baseline condition, words in the enhanced
423 inflectional priming condition ($\beta=-0.33$, $t=-3.81$, $p<0.001$), in the inflectional priming ($\beta=-0.26$, $t=-3.81$,
424 $p<0.001$), as well as in the identity priming condition ($\beta=-0.26$, $t=-3.44$, $p<0.0001$) were less likely to be
425 read again. Pairwise comparisons showed that there were no significant differences between the other priming
426 conditions.

427 The right panel of Figure 3 shows that there was a small U-shaped effect of Paradigm size on rereading.
428 Words from larger paradigms were less likely to be reread than words from smaller paradigms. Words from
429 very large paradigms were, in turn, more likely to be reread. The full results of Estonian rereading model
430 are summarized in Table 7 in the Appendix.

431 In summary, we saw the effects of Priming condition and Paradigm size in both early and late reading
432 measures in Estonian. We next turn to introducing the Finnish reading results.

4.4 Finnish gaze duration

First, we investigated gaze duration effects of Finnish nouns. Compounding, Surface frequency, and Word length emerged as significant control variables in the model. As shown in Table 8, Finnish compound words were read faster than words that were not compound words.

Figure 6 shows that reading times increased with increasing word length. This effect was mostly linear. Longer words were read with longer gaze duration than shorter words. The model was less confident with very long words.

Examination of the critical effects showed that Priming condition had a significant effect on gaze durations. The left panel of Figure 5 shows the effect priming condition. Compared to the baseline condition, words in the inflectional priming condition were read the fastest ($\beta=-0.63$, $t=-4.93$, $p<0.0001$), followed by words in the identity priming ($\beta=-0.50$, $t=-3.06$, $p=0.002$). There was no significant difference between the enhanced inflectional priming and baseline conditions.

Pairwise comparisons between the identity priming and enhanced inflectional priming conditions ($\beta=-0.41$, $t=-2.21$, $p=0.04$) and between the inflectional priming and enhanced inflectional priming conditions ($\beta=-0.54$, $t=-3.24$, $p=0.001$) showed significant differences. Pairwise comparisons between the other levels of the condition showed that the difference between the identity and inflected priming conditions was not significant. The effect of the inflectional paradigm size was also not significant.

The full summary of Finnish gaze duration model is in Table 8 in the Appendix.

4.5 Finnish total fixation duration

Next, we investigated the effects of the total fixation duration of Finnish nouns. Compounding, surface frequency and word length emerged as significant control variables in the model. Finnish compound words were read faster than words that were not compounds ($\beta=1.51$, $t=7.17$, $p<0.0001$). The upper right panel of Figure 6 shows that the surface frequency had a nonlinear effect on the total fixation duration. More frequent words were read faster than less frequent words, but there was no effect of surface frequency from low to medium frequency range. The lower right panel of Figure 6 shows that longer words were read slower than shorter words and the model was again less confident with long words.

The middle panel of Figure 5 shows that Priming condition had a significant effect on total fixation durations in Finnish. Compared to the baseline condition, words in the inflectional priming condition were read the fastest ($\beta=-1.73$, $t=-9.84$, $p<0.001$), followed by the identity priming condition ($\beta=-0.88$, $t=-3.89$, $p=0.0001$), and enhanced inflectional priming condition ($\beta=-0.55$, $t=-2.58$, $p=0.001$).

Pairwise comparisons between other conditions showed that words in the inflectional priming condition

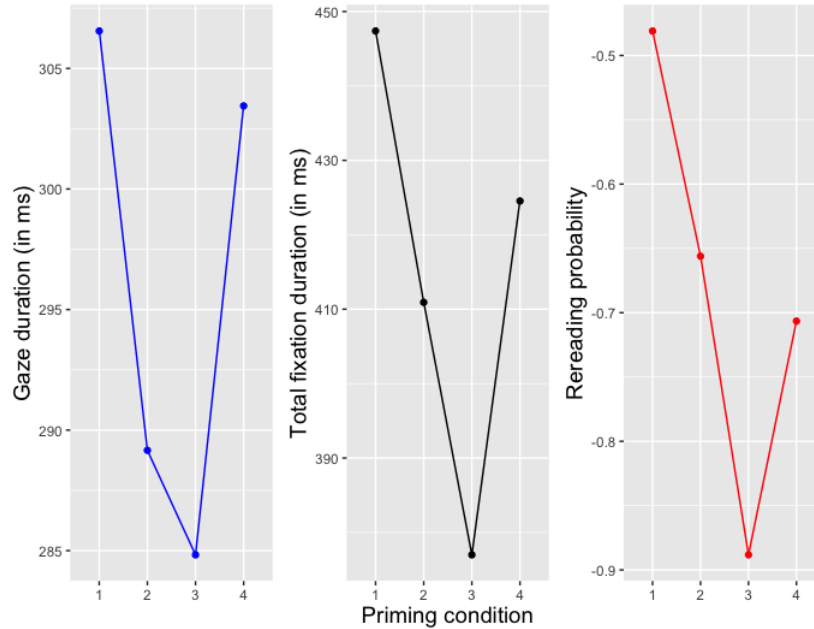


Figure 5: Predicted values of Priming condition fitted to Finnish gaze duration, total fixation duration and rereading. 1-baseline, 2-identity priming, 3-inflectional priming, 4-enhanced inflectional priming. Y-axes of gaze duration and total fixation duration were back-transformed to milliseconds.

464 were read faster than words in the identity ($\beta=0.85$, $t=3.3$, $p=0.0001$) and enhanced priming conditions
 465 ($\beta=1.18$, $t=5.15$, $p=0.0001$). The difference between identity and enhanced priming condition was not
 466 significant. The effect of inflectional paradigm size was also not significant.

467 The full summary of Finnish total fixation duration model is in Table 9 in the Appendix.

468 4.6 Finnish rereading

469 Finally, we examined effects of rereading in Finnish. Compounding and frequency did not significantly
 470 influence the rereading. The lower right panel of Figure 6 shows that there was a nonlinear effect of word
 471 length on Finnish rereading. Shorter words were more likely to be reread than longer words, but very long
 472 words were again less likely to be reread.

473 The right panel of Figure 5 shows that compared to baseline, words in the inflectional priming ($\beta=-0.40$,
 474 $t=-5.84$, $p<0.0001$) and in the enhanced inflectional conditions ($\beta=-0.55$, $t=-2.58$, $p=0.001$) were less likely to
 475 be reread. The difference between baseline and identity conditions was not significant. Pairwise comparisons
 476 showed that there were small significant differences between the inflectional and identity conditions ($\beta=0.23$,
 477 $t=2.34$, $p=0.02$) as well as between the inflectional and enhanced inflectional conditions ($\beta=0.18$, $t= 2.00$,
 478 $p= 0.05$).

479 As already shown in gaze duration and total fixation duration, inflectional paradigm size also did not

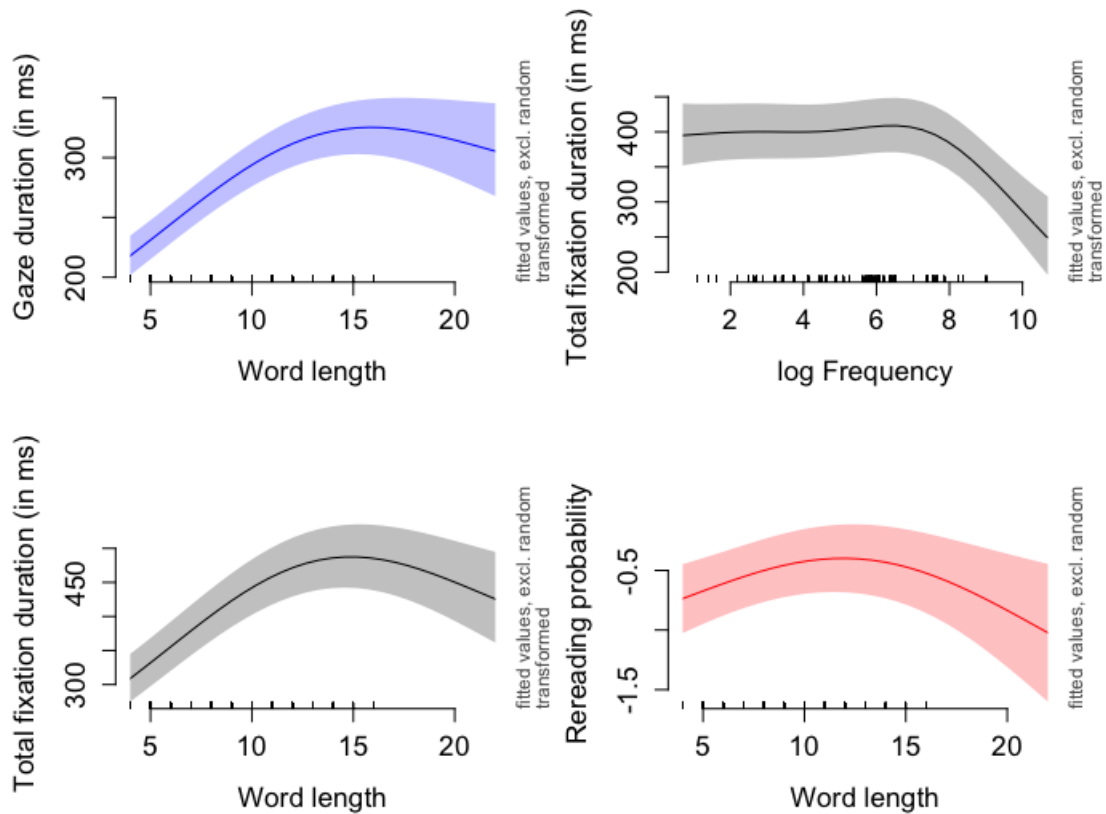


Figure 6: Predicted values of Word length fitted to Finnish gaze duration, Frequency and word length fitted to total fixation duration and Word length fitted to rereading. The shadows represent 95 % confidence bands (SE=1.96) of the regression line for individual predictors. Y-axes of gaze duration and total fixation duration were back-transformed to milliseconds.

480 significantly influence rereading. The full results of Finnish rereading model are summarized in Table 10 in
 481 the Appendix.

482 5 Discussion and conclusions

483 The present study investigated the effects of long-lag morphological priming and inflectional paradigm size
 484 in text context in two morphologically rich languages, Estonian and Finnish. The texts were short wikipedia
 485 style texts covering common but not thoroughly known topics, including events, phenomena and historical
 486 figures. The texts were read in Estonian or Finnish by native academically educated speakers of Estonian
 487 or Finnish, respectively. Processing of words was assessed by gaze duration, an eye movement measure that
 488 taps into first-pass word processing and total fixation duration and rereading, two measures that tap into
 489 the later stages of word processing. The results showed identity priming and inflectional priming effects in
 490 both languages, but enhanced priming effects were stronger and appeared earlier in Estonian than in Finnish.

491 Moreover, whereas a clear effect of inflectional paradigm size appeared in all measures in Estonian, no such
492 effect emerged in Finnish.

493 The clear effect of identity priming in all three measures and in both languages is in line with what was
494 found in previous text reading studies (Coskun et al., 2023; Kamienkowski et al., 2018). It indicates that
495 the activation threshold for recently encountered word forms decreases, facilitating their processing upon
496 subsequent encounters. Unlike what was found in two earlier studies in Dutch, English, and Spanish on long-
497 lag morphological priming in text context, the current study also showed clear inflectional priming effects in
498 gaze duration, as well as in total fixation duration and in rereading. This implies that inflectional relatives
499 do not only speed up the processing of a word during the first pass, but that they also diminish the need to
500 return to that word. The discrepancy with earlier text reading studies (Coskun et al., 2023; Kamienkowski
501 et al., 2018) can be mostly likely ascribed to the higher density of inflectional forms in the Estonian and
502 Finnish texts than in the Spanish, English and Dutch texts, due to the larger number of inflectional variants
503 that nouns have in these languages. Consequently, the distance between inflectional variants is much shorter
504 than in earlier text context studies. It is possible that morphologically less rich languages exhibit inflectional
505 priming in texts with a higher density of inflectional variants as well. However, such density may be rather
506 unnatural in languages like English or Dutch, whereas for Estonian and Finnish this is a standard scenario
507 and inflectional priming can therefore be utilized more frequently in natural language processing in these
508 languages.

509 One peculiar difference between Estonian and Finnish readers is related to the enhanced inflectional
510 priming effect. Coskun et al. (2023) encouraged future studies to investigate whether morphological priming
511 starts to emerge after the second occurrence. As in our case, morphological priming was already found
512 during the second occurrence, we can infer that we should find stronger priming effects beyond the second
513 occurrence than at the second occurrence itself. This was indeed the case for Estonian, but for Finnish no
514 effect of enhanced morphological priming was observed in gaze duration, and only mild effects were observed
515 in total fixation duration and rereading. The effect of enhanced inflectional priming in Finnish was even
516 smaller than that of inflectional priming. This means that upon encountering a Finnish inflectional variant
517 of a word for the third or fourth time, the priming advantage is smaller than when it is encountered for the
518 second time. We do not have a clear explanation for this. One possibility lies in the specific inflectional
519 variants that are encountered beyond the second time. For instance, morphophonological changes (e.g.,
520 *katu* ‘street, nominative singular’-*kadulla* ‘street, inessive singular, on the street’, *tauko* ‘break, nominative
521 singular’- *tauossa* ‘break, inessive singular, at a break’) may occur more often beyond the second time than at
522 the second time in Finnish data. However, our data set is too small and we cannot assess this issue reliably,
523 so we leave it to future studies to further explore this topic.

524 As for the inflectional paradigm size effect, this effect was present in gaze duration and got even stronger
525 in later measures such as total fixation duration and rereading in Estonian. Thus, we can conclude that in
526 Estonian inflectional variants of a particular word become and remain activated when an extensive passage-
527 long context is present. This extends the findings of the single-word studies that yielded similar results
528 (Lõo et al., 2018a,b). Possibly, a large inflectional paradigm that resonates on the background helps in the
529 semantic specification of a given word, which would be in line with the results of the semantic classification
530 task of Lõo et al. 2018a. The results also align with results from a recent production study in Estonian
531 examining spontaneous speech which showed that paradigm relations influence acoustic durations of words,
532 even when context is available (Lõo et al., 2023).

533 The question that then remains is why the inflectional paradigm size did not affect Finnish word pro-
534 cessing, neither in the earlier (gaze duration) nor in the later reading measures (total fixation duration and
535 rereading). As noted, Finnish inflectional paradigms are more extensive than Estonian ones, and this may
536 also mean that they are semantically more diverse. In their family size study, Bertram et al. (2000) found that
537 semantically distantly related family members did not contribute to the family size effect, in fact, they were
538 obscuring it. We suspect that something similar is the case in this study, with Finnish having semantically
539 less proximate inflectional paradigms than Estonian. Again, we leave it to future studies to further explore
540 this issue.

541 In general, it should be noted that even though the experimental findings are quite convincing, long-lag
542 priming and paradigmatic effects in text context can be studied with more precision under experimentally
543 controlled circumstances. Cross-linguistic explorations like the current one would especially benefit from this
544 kind of control, matching for semantic proximity and size of the inflectional paradigm, as well as for mor-
545 phophonological variation. Another meaningful experimental control would be to systematically manipulate
546 the distance between the prime and the target and to explore at what point the morphological connection
547 attenuates to the point of disappearance from the behavioral record.

548 At any rate, the MECO corpus allowed us to do specific explorations of the role of morphological factors
549 on word processing. These explorations showed that there is a textual reality to inflectional paradigms, at
550 least in Estonian. This study is also the first to show that inflectional priming is not confined to single word
551 or sentence context studies, but that it can appear under more ecologically valid circumstances as well, that
552 is, during the reading of short texts for comprehension, at least in languages like Estonian and Finnish.

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660 **A Summary tables of Estonian and Finnish GAMM models**

Table 5: Summary of GAMM model fitted to sqrt Estonian gaze duration.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	17.0528	0.2921	58.3883	< 0.0001
Compound: yes	0.5366	0.2062	2.6023	0.0093
Priming condition: Identity	-0.4353	0.1546	-2.8152	0.0049
Priming condition: Inflectional	-0.4350	0.1511	-2.8793	0.0040
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-1.0274	0.1745	-5.8874	< 0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	2.0287	2.4918	114.3081	< 0.0001
s(log Surface frequency)	3.2328	3.6879	4.0913	0.0032
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	1.0000	1.0001	9.3587	0.0022
s(Text ID)	9.5120	11.0000	11.7569	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	47.7967	51.0000	16.8782	< 0.0001

Table 6: Summary of GAMM model fitted to sqrt Estonian total fixation duration.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	21.3559	0.5067	42.1456	< 0.0001
Compound: Yes	0.0222	0.3039	0.0732	0.9417
Priming condition: Identity	-1.1598	0.2150	-5.3948	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Inflectional	-1.2158	0.2104	-5.7773	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-2.1301	0.2437	-8.7401	< 0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	3.8150	3.9739	76.9619	< 0.0001
s(log Surface frequency)	3.1000	3.5830	1.7104	0.1009
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	2.2035	2.7482	8.9592	< 0.0001
s(Text ID)	10.2477	11.0000	24.2559	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	48.4843	51.0000	19.7429	< 0.0001

Table 7: Summary of GAMM model fitted to Estonian rereading.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	-0.2223	0.1401	-1.5865	0.1126
Compound: Yes	-0.2598	0.1083	-2.3994	0.0164
Priming condition: Identity	-0.2638	0.0780	-3.3807	0.0007
Priming condition: Inflectional	-0.2630	0.0763	-3.4484	0.0006
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-0.3363	0.0882	-3.8115	0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	3.7249	3.9468	41.3047	< 0.0001
s(log Surface frequency)	1.3059	1.5393	0.4997	0.7807
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	2.6905	3.2557	12.8051	0.0066
s(Text ID)	9.8043	11.0000	119.3650	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	46.1577	51.0000	454.0195	< 0.0001

Table 8: Summary of GAMM model fitted to Finnish gaze duration.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	16.4428	0.2534	64.8816	< 0.0001
Compound: Yes	1.5186	0.2119	7.1678	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Identity	-0.5040	0.1648	-3.0574	0.0022
Priming condition: Inflectional	-0.6319	0.1281	-4.9339	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-0.0890	0.1537	-0.5788	0.5627
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	1.9791	1.9989	88.3666	< 0.0001
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	1.6900	1.8995	1.7481	0.2496
s(log Surface frequency)	3.5035	3.8584	4.0908	0.0017
s(Text ID)	9.9057	11.0000	10.6321	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	43.5986	48.0000	10.1850	< 0.0001

Table 9: Summary of GAMM model fitted to Finnish total fixation duration.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	20.0093	0.4755	42.0764	< 0.0001
Compound: Yes	1.2576	0.2921	4.3046	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Identity	-0.8803	0.2270	-3.8780	0.0001
Priming condition: Inflectional	-1.7354	0.1764	-9.8377	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-0.5472	0.2122	-2.5789	0.0099
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	1.9863	1.9998	95.2062	< 0.0001
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	1.0002	1.0003	0.0181	0.8935
s(log Surface frequency)	3.6563	3.9298	9.0380	< 0.0001
s(Text ID)	10.4846	11.0000	26.7048	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	45.2518	48.0000	17.1995	< 0.0001

Table 10: Summary of GAMM model fitted to Finnish rereading.

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	-0.5603	0.1323	-4.2349	< 0.0001
Compound: Yes	-0.0541	0.1105	-0.4897	0.6243
Priming condition: Identity	-0.1751	0.0887	-1.9755	0.0482
Priming condition: Inflectional	-0.4073	0.0697	-5.8437	< 0.0001
Priming condition: Enhanced inflectional	-0.2256	0.0829	-2.7210	0.0065
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Word length)	1.9282	1.9941	14.7620	0.0008
s(sqrt Paradigm size)	1.0001	1.0002	0.0022	0.9640
s(log Surface frequency)	2.1249	2.6128	8.1637	0.0534
s(Text ID)	9.5518	11.0000	104.6238	< 0.0001
s(Subject ID)	44.1195	48.0000	555.6608	< 0.0001

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