



The joint flanker effect and the joint Simon effect: On the comparability of processes underlying joint compatibility effects

Journal:	<i>Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology</i>
Manuscript ID	QJE-STD 15-045.R2
Manuscript Type:	Standard Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Dittrich, Kerstin; University of Freiburg, Psychology Bossert, Marie-Luise; University of Freiburg, Rothe-Wulf, Annelie; University of Freiburg, Department of Psychology Klauer, Karl; University Freiburg, Institut fuer Psychologie
Keywords:	Joint compatibility effects, social Simon effect, flanker effect, spatial compatibility effect

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 Running head: JOINT COMPATIBILITY EFFECTS
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 The joint flanker effect and the joint Simon effect: On the comparability of processes
16
17 underlying joint compatibility effects
18
19
20
21
22

23 Kerstin Dittrich, Marie-Luise Bossert, Annelie Rothe-Wulf, and Karl Christoph Klauer
24
25
26

27 Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 Word count: 11246
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 **Author Note**

44

45
46 Kerstin Dittrich, Marie-Luise Bossert, Annelie Rothe-Wulf, and Karl Christoph Klauer,
47
48 Institut für Psychologie, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg;
49
50

51
52 Kerstin Dittrich and Marie-Luise Bossert contributed equally to the present work;
53
54

55 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Kerstin Dittrich,
56
57 Institut für Psychologie, Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg, D-79085 Freiburg, Germany.
58

59 E-mail: dittrich@psychologie.uni-freiburg.de
60

Abstract

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 Previous studies observed compatibility effects in different interference paradigms such as the
8
9 Simon and flanker task even when the task was distributed across two co-actors. In both Simon
10
11 and flanker tasks, performance is improved in compatible trials relative to incompatible trials
12
13 if one actor works on the task alone as well as if two co-actors share the task. These findings
14
15 have been taken to indicate that actors automatically co-represent their co-actor's task.
16
17 However, recent research on the joint Simon and joint flanker effect suggests alternative non-
18
19 social interpretations. To which degree both joint effects are driven by the same underlying
20
21 processes is the question of the present study, and it was scrutinized by manipulating the
22
23 visibility of the co-actor. While the joint Simon effect was not affected by the visibility of the
24
25 co-actor, the joint flanker effect was reduced when participants did not see their co-actors but
26
27 knew where the co-actors were seated. These findings provide further evidence for a spatial
28
29 interpretation of the joint Simon effect. In contrast to recent claims, however, we propose a new
30
31 explanation of the joint flanker effect that attributes the effect to an impairment in the focusing
32
33 of spatial attention contingent on the visibility of the co-actor.
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43

44 Keywords: Joint compatibility effect, flanker effect, spatial compatibility effect, social Simon
45
46 effect
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Most cognitive research investigating human perception, action, and goal achievement
4 has focused on the study of single individuals performing a cognitive task alone. Yet, in
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Most cognitive research investigating human perception, action, and goal achievement has focused on the study of single individuals performing a cognitive task alone. Yet, in everyday life humans often perform tasks jointly or in the company of others, for example when partaking in team sports or during cooking. In order to succeed in these joint actions, the co-actors have to coordinate their actions with each other (Sebanz, Bekkering, & Knoblich, 2006). Recent research has started to examine joint action by using well-established cognitive tasks (e.g., Atmaca, Sebanz, & Knoblich, 2011; Atmaca, Sebanz, Prinz, & Knoblich, 2008; Böckler, Knoblich, & Sebanz, 2012; Sebanz, Knoblich, & Prinz, 2003; [Welsh et al., 2005](#)). The two most prominent of these cognitive tasks are the spatial Simon task (Simon, 1969; for an overview see Lu & Proctor 1995) and the non-spatial flanker task (Eriksen & Eriksen, 1974).

The Classical Simon and Flanker Task

In the classical Simon task (Simon, 1969), participants respond to a non-spatial stimulus attribute (e.g., discriminate between red or green stimuli) by pressing a left or right response key (e.g., participants press the left key for red stimuli and the right key for green stimuli). Each stimulus is presented randomly either on the left or right side of a computer screen. Although the spatial position is entirely task-irrelevant, participants typically respond faster and make fewer errors when the spatial position of the stimulus and the required response key match (compatible trials) compared to when they do not match (incompatible trials). This effect is known as the spatial compatibility effect (SCE) or Simon effect. It is widely accepted that the SCE occurs due to a conflict at the response selection stage (De Jong, Liang, & Lauber, 1994; Rubichi & Pellicano, 2004; Treccani, Cubelli, Della Sala, & Umiltà, 2009). According to the dimensional overlap model (Kornblum, Hasbroucq, & Osman, 1990) this conflict is caused by an overlap between the stimulus dimension and the response dimension. Specifically, it is assumed that the spatial feature of the stimulus directly activates the spatially corresponding response (e.g., a red stimulus displayed on the left directly

1
2
3 activates the left key). The automatic activation of the spatially corresponding response leads
4
5 to facilitation effects when this response is correct and to interference effects when it is
6
7 incorrect. For example, if the color red is mapped onto the left response key, a red stimulus
8
9 displayed on the left directly activates the correct left key. However, if the same stimulus is
10
11 displayed on the right, it directly activates the incorrect right key and requires time-
12
13 consuming correction processes (for other accounts of the Simon effect see Ansorge & Wühr,
14
15 2004; De Jong et al., 1994; Eimer, Hommel, & Prinz, 1995).

16
17
18
19
20 The classical, so-called Eriksen flanker task (Eriksen & Eriksen, 1974) is a cognitive
21
22 task that does not include a spatial stimulus-response relation. In the classical flanker
23
24 experiment, participants have to respond to the central letter (e.g., H) of a five-letter string
25
26 (e.g., KKHKK) by pressing one of two response keys (e.g., left key for H and K; right key for
27
28 S and C). The surrounding letters are called flankers and can either be compatible (e.g.,
29
30 KKHKK or HHHHH), incompatible (e.g., SSHSS or CCHCC), or neutral (e.g., UUHUU)
31
32 with respect to the imperative target (e.g., H). Though the flankers are task irrelevant,
33
34 performance is impaired when the flankers are incompatible relative to conditions in which
35
36 they are compatible or neutral. This difference is typically called flanker effect. Whereas the
37
38 Simon effect is attributed to a stimulus-response overlap, the flanker effect belongs to a
39
40 different type of interference effect that stems from a stimulus-stimulus overlap (i.e., target-
41
42 flanker overlap; e.g., Kornblum & Lee, 1995). Kornblum et al. (1990) assumed that
43
44 interference from a stimulus-stimulus overlap occurs at a perceptual level producing
45
46 perceptual facilitation in case of compatible trials and perceptual interference in case of
47
48 incompatible trials. However, there is converging evidence that interference from stimulus-
49
50 stimulus overlap mostly arises at the response selection stage. Specifically, it has been
51
52 postulated that flanker stimuli facilitate response selection in case of compatible trials and
53
54 impair response selection in case of incompatible trials (e.g., Cohen & Shoup, 1997; De
55
56 Houwer, 2003; Eriksen & Eriksen, 1974; Treccani et al., 2009). In contrast to stable and
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 ingrained associations between a stimulus and a response driving spatial compatibility effects
4
5 (e.g., a stimulus presented on the left automatically activates a left button press), episodic and
6
7 transient associations between a stimulus and a response created by instructions are assumed
8
9 to explain the flanker effect (e.g., participants learn that the letter H requires a left button
10
11 press; for a discussion of this issue see De Houwer, 2003; Treccani et al., 2009).
12
13

14 15 **The Joint Simon and Joint Flanker Effect** 16

17
18 The Simon and the flanker task have both been skillfully redesigned to scrutinize joint
19
20 action and joint task representation. In their seminal work, Sebanz et al. (2003) distributed the
21
22 *Simon task* across two subjects to explore whether co-actors represent each other's actions. In
23
24 such a joint go/no-go setting or social Simon task, participants sat alongside each other in
25
26 front of a computer monitor; each participant responded to only one of the two stimuli by
27
28 pressing one of the two response keys (e.g., one participant pressed the left key for red stimuli
29
30 and the other participant pressed the right key for green stimuli). This joint-action condition
31
32 elicited a Simon effect such that performance was improved when the stimulus position
33
34 matched the position of the responding agent. The occurrence of the so-called joint SCE or
35
36 social Simon effect is particularly interesting given that the SCE typically disappears in an
37
38 individual go/no-go task where participants respond to only one of the two stimuli by pressing
39
40 just a single response key but without a co-actor seated next to them (Hommel, 1996; Sebanz
41
42 et al., 2003). Sebanz et al. (2003) interpreted the pattern of joint SCE in terms of action co-
43
44 representation: According to their explanation, subjects represented the actions of their co-
45
46 actor in addition to their own actions. This assumption is based on the theory that the executed
47
48 actions of oneself and the perceived actions of another person are coded in an equivalent way
49
50 (e.g., Prinz, 1990, 1997). Sebanz et al. (2003) assumed that this equivalent coding results in a
51
52 cognitive representation of both the actions of the co-actor and the spatial alignment of the
53
54 two responses. Therefore, performing a Simon task together with a co-actor should lead to a
55
56 similar stimulus-response-overlap as in the classical Simon task (Sebanz et al., 2003).
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Following the same line of reasoning, Atmaca et al. (2011) distributed the *flanker task*
4
5 across two subjects. In a joint go/no-go setting, participants sat alongside each other. Each
6
7 participant responded to two targets by pressing one response key. For example, one
8
9 participant pressed the left key for the targets H or K and the other participant pressed the
10
11 right key for the targets S or C. In the individual go/no-go version of the flanker task,
12
13 participants still responded to two targets (e.g., H and K) but without a co-actor next to them.
14
15 Atmaca et al. (2011) found the flanker effect to be larger in the joint task setting than in the
16
17 individual task setting and they interpreted this increased flanker effect as evidence for action
18
19 co-representation: According to this view, subjects represented the actions of their co-actor in
20
21 addition to their own actions. If the target (e.g., H) is surrounded by flankers (SSHSS) that are
22
23 part of the co-actor's response (e.g., S), participants will activate the representation of their
24
25 co-actor's action alternative. This activation in turn interferes with one's own required
26
27 response (Atmaca et al., 2011).
28
29
30
31
32
33

34 Taken together, the Simon and the flanker paradigm initially seemed to be promising
35
36 candidates for scrutinizing joint actions, and numerous studies have supported Sebanz et al.'s
37
38 (2003) account of action co-representation, for example by demonstrating that different social
39
40 factors modulate the joint Simon effect (e.g., Hommel, Colzato, & van den Wildenberg, 2009;
41
42 Iani, Anelli, Nicoletti, Arcuri, & Rubichi, 2011; Müller et al., 2011; Stenzel et al., 2012).
43
44 However, the idea of action co-representation as an explanation of joint compatibility effects
45
46 has recently been challenged. For the Simon task, recent findings showed that the joint SCE
47
48 might be based on the spatial components immanent in the task itself (e.g., Dittrich, Dolk,
49
50 Rothe-Wulf, Klauer, & Prinz, 2013; Dittrich, Rothe, & Klauer, 2012; Dolk et al., 2011; Dolk,
51
52 Hommel, Prinz, & Liepelt, 2013; Guagnano, Rusconi, & Umiltà, 2010). For example, Dittrich
53
54 et al. (2012) have shown that Simon effects occur in an individual go/no-go condition when
55
56 the spatial dimension is made more salient by using an appropriate response device, such as a
57
58 joystick (for another experimental manipulation that made the spatial dimension in a spatial
59
60

1
2
3 individual go/no-go task salient see Weeks, Proctor, & Beyak, 1995). Further, Dittrich et al.
4
5 (2013) observed joint Simon effects only if the spatial alignment of participants *and* response
6
7 keys corresponded to the spatial dimension of the Simon task but not if just one dimension
8
9 mismatched (i.e., was orthogonal to the others). Dittrich et al. (2012, 2013) developed the
10
11 *spatial response coding account* that emphasizes the importance of spatial labels or codes
12
13 aligned with the spatial dimension of the Simon task for (joint) SCEs to occur (for a similar
14
15 account explaining SCEs in the classical Simon task, see Ansorge & Wühr, 2004).
16
17
18
19

20 Dolk et al. (2011, 2013) developed another rather global account to explain social
21
22 Simon effects. They argued that participants represent their own actions as well as any other
23
24 event during the task. The presence of any attention-grabbing event (e.g., a co-actor
25
26 responding to a stimulus) requires participants to discriminate between events controlled by
27
28 themselves and events that they do not control. One way of solving this discrimination
29
30 problem is to strengthen distinguishable features of response events such as the left-right
31
32 location of the response device. However, this increased intentional weighting (Memelink &
33
34 Hommel, 2013) automatically increases interference (e.g., the more the left/right coding of
35
36 one's own response is strengthened the more it interferes with the task-irrelevant stimulus
37
38 location). Dolk et al. (2013) demonstrated that even non-social events elicit an SCE: A Simon
39
40 effect emerged when participants performed the individual go/no-go task next to an inanimate
41
42 object (Japanese waving cat, a clock, or a metronome). They argued that these inanimate
43
44 objects also represent an attention-grabbing event (similar as a co-actor responding to a
45
46 stimulus) that requires participants to discriminate between self-controlled events and events
47
48 that they do not control. Importantly, Dolk, Hommel, Prinz, and Liepelt (2014) assumed that
49
50 the same mechanisms are responsible for the joint flanker effect. The co-actor in the joint
51
52 flanker task is also assumed to induce a discrimination problem requiring participants to
53
54 distinguish between events that they control and events controlled by the co-actor. This
55
56 discrimination problem should lead to an increased intentional weighting of specific
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 discriminable stimulus features. The more the activated response alternatives in turn differ,
4
5 the stronger should be the conflict between targets and the flankers. To test this assumption,
6
7 Dolk et al. (2014) had participants perform the joint flanker task either together with a human
8
9 or next to a Japanese waving cat. The results showed significant flanker effects in both
10
11 conditions.
12
13

14 **On the Comparability of Processes Underlying Joint Simon and Joint Flanker Effects**

15
16 Although Dolk et al. (2014) provide an intriguing non-social account for joint
17
18 compatibility effects in general, it is desirable to characterize the underlying cognitive
19
20 processes in more detail. As explained above, Dittrich et al. (2012, 2013) developed a more
21
22 task-specific *spatial response coding account* to account for social Simon effects that
23
24 emphasizes the importance of spatial labels or codes aligned with the spatial dimension of the
25
26 Simon task. If such task-specific processes modulate (joint) Simon effects, the assumption
27
28 that comparable processes underlie joint Simon and joint flanker effects has to be carefully
29
30 scrutinized. The present work sets out to test empirically whether joint Simon and joint
31
32 flanker effects share comparable processes. In fact, a positive result could be argued to be
33
34 quite surprising given that the processes underlying the standard Simon and flanker effect are
35
36 assumed to differ. Considering the joint interference tasks, it seems less reasonable to assume
37
38 that spatial response coding explains joint flanker effects. Even if a joint setting enhances
39
40 spatial response coding when participants perform a flanker task, this might not enhance
41
42 flanker effects: A (non-)correspondence between flankers and response position should not be
43
44 the key factor underlying (joint) flanker effects. If not via spatial response-coding (and also
45
46 not via shared task-representations; see Dolk et al., 2014) what else might explain joint
47
48 flanker effects? A quite simple explanation would be that a co-actor or a Japanese waving cat
49
50 attracts participants' attention leaving less cognitive resources available to focus spatial
51
52 attention on the location of the target and leading to interference from the flanker stimuli. To
53
54 examine the influence of attentional processes in the joint Simon and joint flanker effect, we
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 manipulated the role of the co-actor at the perceptual level by modulating his or her visibility.
4
5 As will be elaborated below, the influence of the visibility of the co-actor has already been
6
7 investigated, specifically for the Simon task, but the exact implementation of the manipulation
8
9 seems to affect the result pattern strongly (with some studies showing joint interference
10
11 effects when the co-actor is not visible or present and others that do not). We will therefore
12
13 use exactly the same manipulation in both joint interference tasks to examine the influence of
14
15 attentional processes in the joint Simon and joint flanker effect.
16
17
18
19

20 For the joint Simon task, no influence of the visibility of the co-actor is expected.
21
22 Previous studies have already shown that a joint SCE prevailed when participants believed to
23
24 perform the joint go/no-go task together with a co-actor in a different room (Ruys & Aarts,
25
26 2010; Tsai, Kuo, Hung, & Tzeng, 2008) or when the participants wore opaque goggles
27
28 (Vlainic, Liepelt, Colzato, Prinz, & Hommel, 2010). However, joint effects only prevailed
29
30 when participants had a vivid idea of where the co-actor was seated and when task
31
32 instructions allowed a spatial response coding (but see Sellaro, Treccani, Rubichi, & Cubelli,
33
34 2013; Welsh, Higgins, Ray, & Weeks, 2007, for different results) in line with the spatial
35
36 response coding account (Dittrich et al., 2012, 2013). For the flanker task, we do expect an
37
38 influence of the visibility of the co-actor on the size of the joint effect if the effect involves
39
40 attentional processes. We presume that a visible co-actor attracts at least some attention
41
42 making it more difficult for participants to focus their spatial attention on the location of the
43
44 target. In turn, flanker interference is assumed to be increased and target discrimination is
45
46 assumed to be impaired compared to a condition with an invisible co-actor. In contrast, if both
47
48 the joint Simon task and the joint flanker task share the same underlying processes (e.g.,
49
50 Atmaca et al., 2011; Dolk et al., 2014), the visibility manipulation should lead to similar
51
52 results for the joint Simon and the joint flanker task. In fact, in line with previous research
53
54 (e.g., Ruys & Aarts, 2010; Tsai et al., 2008), joint effects should be independent of the
55
56 visibility of the co-actor.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 To sum up, the present study investigates the comparability of the joint Simon and
4 joint flanker effect. We hypothesize that underlying processes differ and we test the
5 hypothesis via the manipulation of the visibility of a co-actor. In the experiment, pairs of
6 participants performed both tasks either with a partition panel between them or without a
7 partition panel between them. In order to prevent acoustical feedback from key presses,
8 participants wore headphones. In the present work, we define a joint Simon effect as well as a
9 joint flanker effect as the difference between incompatible and compatible trials in a joint
10 Simon and joint flanker task condition, respectively, analogous to several studies reported so
11 far (e.g., Dittrich et al., 2013; Guagnano et al., 2010; Hommel et al., 2009; Iani et al., 2011;
12 Welsh, 2009). In order to rule out the possibility that the partition panel per se influences the
13 performance in one or both interference tasks, we also implemented an individual go/no-go
14 condition that was to be performed prior to the joint go/no-go condition with either a partition
15 panel present or absent (see Figure 1). We expected performance in both the individual go/no-
16 go flanker and individual go/no-go Simon task to be independent of the presence of a partition
17 panel. Participants performed either the individual and the joint Simon task or the individual
18 and the joint flanker task.

41 Method

43 Participants

44 A group of 80 undergraduate and graduate students (66 female and 14 male; mean age
45 = 22.4 years, $SD = 5$) of the University of Freiburg participated for fulfillment of course
46 credits. All subjects had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Subjects were randomly
47 assigned to one of four experimental conditions defined by task (Simon task vs. flanker task)
48 and partition group (partition vs. no partition). All participants were tested in same-gender
49 pairs. Three participants were excluded from analysis because they did not understand the
50 task and did not respond to the go stimuli or responded to both the go and the no-go stimuli.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Materials and Apparatus

For the Simon task we adjusted the stimuli used by Tsai, Kuo, Jing, Hung, and Tzeng (2006): Three unfilled white circles (aligned horizontally; with a 1 cm radius and 0.5 cm circle-distance) were surrounded by a white rectangle (9 cm length x 3.4 cm width) and presented on a black background in the center of a computer screen. The target stimuli were either a green filled circle or a red filled circle and replaced one of the three white circles one at a time. Participants were requested to respond to either red or green stimuli. Target stimuli presented in the middle position were defined as neutral trials.

The stimuli for the flanker task were adapted from Atmaca et al. (2011; Experiment 2): As in the Simon task, three unfilled white circles were surrounded by a white rectangle and presented on a black background in the center of a computer screen. Targets were either red, green, yellow, or blue filled circles that replaced the middle circle. In each trial, flankers in red, green, yellow, blue, or white (for neutral trials) replaced the circles to the right and left of the target; both flankers had the same color in each trial. Participants were requested to respond to two target colors (e.g., red and green). Flankers were either colored circles mapped onto one's own response key (in this example red or green) or colored circles mapped onto the partners response key (in this example yellow or blue), or flankers were white circles (neutral trials).

The participants of both tasks (Simon task and flanker task) responded with the interior key of a computer mouse (Voss, Leonhart, & Stahl, 2007; see Figure 1). All participants pressed the interior key with the index finger of their right hand. The computer mice were placed 70 cm in front of the PC monitor (see Figure 1).

Procedure

Participants performed either the Simon task or the flanker task. Upon arrival at the laboratory, pairs of participants were briefed that they would first be tested in individual sessions (go/no-go task as control condition; see Figure 1 left). The two participants

1
2
3 performed the two individual conditions in turns: the first randomly selected participant was
4
5 seated on the left side and was informed that he or she is participant 1 (their chair was marked
6
7 with a 1); after the first participant finished his or her individual task the second participant
8
9 was seated on the right side and was informed that he or she is participant 2 (their chair was
10
11 marked with a 2).¹ While one participant was tested, the other participant was asked to wait in
12
13 front of the room. The participants received written instructions about their task on the PC
14
15 monitor (e.g., Simon task: “Please press the marked key of the computer mouse with your
16
17 right index finger if the green circle appears and do not respond if the red circle appears”;
18
19 flanker task: “Please press the marked key of the computer mouse with your right index finger
20
21 if a green or red circle appears in the middle circle and do not respond if a yellow or blue
22
23 circle appears in the middle circle” [original instructions in German]). The participants were
24
25 instructed to respond to the go stimuli as fast and accurately as possible. In the individual
26
27 session, the participants performed two practice blocks each consisting of 30 trials to
28
29 familiarize themselves with their task and two experimental blocks each consisting of 120
30
31 trials (altogether four experimental blocks of the individual go/no-go condition were
32
33 administered, two per each participant). Colors were distributed equally across all possible
34
35 stimulus positions (with the constraint in the flanker task that both flankers had the same color
36
37 in each trial).
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45
46 After the individual sessions, the participants were tested together in a joint session
47
48 (see Figure 1 right) and seated according to their position in the individual tasks (participant 1
49
50 on the left, participant 2 on the right). Participants received written instructions that they were
51
52 to respond to the same stimuli as before (e.g., Simon task: “Participant 1: Please press the
53
54 marked key of the computer mouse with your right index finger if the green circle appears and
55
56 do not respond if the red circle appears. Participant 2: Please press the marked key of the
57
58 computer mouse with your right index finger if the red circle appears and do not respond if
59
60 the green circle appears.”; analogous instructions apply to the flanker task). Instructions were

1
2
3 displayed on the computer screen and were visible for both participants. In the joint session,
4
5 participants performed four experimental blocks each consisting of 120 trials. Again, colors
6
7 were distributed equally across all possible stimulus positions.
8
9

10 **Trial sequence.** In the beginning of each trial, the rectangle with three white circles
11
12 inside was presented for 400 ms, followed by the target display for 150 ms. The measurement
13
14 of reaction time started with the onset of the target display and subjects had 600 ms to respond
15
16 (later responses were counted as omissions).² The inter-trial-interval was 500 ms. In the
17
18 individual sessions, participants received error feedback in the practice block if they
19
20 responded too slowly (“too slow” [in German] was displayed for 500 ms) or incorrectly
21
22 (“error” [in German] was displayed for 500 ms). For the Simon task, we counterbalanced
23
24 whether the right or left participant had to respond to the green or the red target. For the
25
26 flanker task, we counterbalanced the different target mappings (red and green; red and blue;
27
28 red and yellow; green and blue; blue and yellow; yellow and green) across participants seated
29
30 on the right or on the left.
31
32
33
34
35

36 **Partition group.** Pairs of participants were randomly assigned to the partition group
37
38 or the no-partition group. In the partition group, the procedure, instructions, and treatment of
39
40 the subjects were identical to the no-partition group, except that participants were separated
41
42 by a partition panel (193 cm height × 120 cm width). The panel was positioned between
43
44 participants in such a way that they could neither see the other participant nor his or her
45
46 response mouse. In the partition group, the panel was already in place for the individual
47
48 condition (see Figure 1, panel B for the individual partition condition and the joint partition
49
50 condition). By default, participants wore headphones in all partition and no-partition
51
52 conditions in order to make key presses inaudible which was particularly relevant for the joint
53
54 partition condition.
55
56
57
58

59 **Design.** The experiment had a 3 (compatibility: compatible, incompatible, neutral) × 2
60 (condition: individual go/no-go, joint go/no-go) × 2 (partition group: partition panel, no

1
2
3 partition panel) \times 2 (task: Simon task, flanker task) design; the first two factors were
4
5 manipulated within-subjects.
6
7

8 **Results**

9
10 From each participant's reaction times, we excluded false alarm and omission trials as
11 well as response times that were outliers defined by Tukey's criterion (response times one and
12 a half times the interquartile range or more above the third quartile or below the first quartile,
13 Clark-Carter, 2004, chap. 9). This led to the exclusion of 4.42% of trials in the Simon task and
14 4.49% of trials in the flanker task. In the error analyses, both false alarm and omission trials
15 were coded as error. Tables 1 and 2 show mean reaction times and mean error rates for
16 compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials separately for task condition (individual go/no-go
17 vs. joint go/no-go) and partition group (partition panel vs. no-partition panel).
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 The accuracy and latency data were analyzed in a mixed linear model analysis. The
30 advantage of such an analysis is that not only systematic variation between individual
31 participants but also systematic variation between pairs of participants can be taken into
32 account (i.e., it is reasonable to assume that individual participants adapt their responding
33 behavior to their co-actor's behavior, resulting in systematic variation between pairs of
34 participants).³ Accuracy and latency data were analyzed in two steps, separately for the Simon
35 task and the flanker task. In the first step, we estimated mixed linear models (for the accuracy
36 data: generalized mixed linear models with logistic link function) with *participants* and *pairs*
37 *of participant* as random factors.⁴ In this first step, we identified the random structure that fits
38 the data best. Specifically, analyses revealed whether a random intercept for participants is
39 sufficient, or whether an additional random intercept for pairs of participants and/or random
40 slope components for the experimental within-subject factors (compatibility; joint go/no-go
41 task, individual go/no-go task) as a function of participants or pair of participants are
42 necessary (Judd, Westfall, & Kenny, 2012). The selection of the model with appropriate
43 random structure is described in the Appendix. In the second step, the model with appropriate
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 random-effects structure was used to check the fixed effects of two within-subject factors
4
5 *compatibility* (compatible vs. neutral vs. incompatible)⁵ and *condition* (individual go/no-go
6
7 vs. joint go/no-go) and the between-subjects factor *partition group* (partition panel vs. no-
8
9 partition panel). Delta chi-square statistics are used for the accuracy data, and *F* statistics with
10
11 Kenward-Roger approximated degrees of freedom for the latency data (Judd et al., 2012). The
12
13 results for the fixed effects are presented below, separately for the Simon and the flanker task.
14
15
16

17 **Simon Task**

18
19
20 *Accuracy:* The analysis of the fixed effects revealed a marginally significant main
21
22 effect of compatibility, $\chi^2[df = 2] = 5.16; p = .08$, indicating that more errors were made in
23
24 incompatible trials compared to compatible trials. The difference between incompatible and
25
26 compatible trials was larger in the individual than in the joint go/no-go condition, $\chi^2[df =$
27
28 $2] = 5.89; p = .05$, and this interaction was additionally modulated by partition group, $\chi^2[df =$
29
30 $2] = 6.65; p = .04$. Separate follow-up analyses for the joint go/no-go condition and the
31
32 individual go/no-go condition with the factors compatibility (compatible vs. incompatible vs.
33
34 neutral) and partition group (partition panel vs. no-partition panel) revealed a small
35
36 compatibility effect in the individual go/no-go condition, $\chi^2[df = 2] = 6.51; p = .04$, while all
37
38 other effects were not significant (largest $\chi^2 = 4.34$; smallest $p = .11$).
39
40
41
42

43
44 *Reaction time:* The analysis of the fixed effects revealed a main effect of
45
46 compatibility, $F(2, 33.96) = 27.68, p < .001$, indicating faster responses to compatible and
47
48 neutral trials compared to incompatible trials. There was also a main effect of condition, $F(1,$
49
50 $34.99) = 13.63, p < .001$, indicating that responses were faster in the joint go/no-go condition
51
52 than in the individual go/no-go condition. The analysis further showed a significant
53
54 interaction effect of compatibility and condition for reaction time, $F(2, 33.93) = 6.80, p < .01$.
55
56 This indicates that individual go/no-go and joint go/no-go conditions differ in their mean
57
58 reaction times depending on the level of compatibility. Separate follow-up analyses of
59
60 reaction time of the joint go/no-go and the individual go/no-go condition with the factors

1
2
3 compatibility (compatible vs. incompatible vs. neutral) and partition group (partition panel vs.
4 no-partition panel) revealed a main effect of compatibility in the joint condition ($F[2, 33.90] =$
5 $39.37, p < .001$).⁶ Contrary to what is typically found in individual go/no-go task, there was
6 also a main effect of compatibility in this condition ($F[2, 33.97] = 6.64, p < .01$). We turn to
7 this unexpected result in the general discussion. Importantly, neither the SCE in the individual
8 go/no-go condition nor in the joint go/no-go condition was affected by partition panel,
9 indicated by a non-significant interaction of compatibility and partition panel ($F_s < 1$). In the
10 main analyses, no significant effect of partition group was found, indicating that both the
11 partition group and the no-partition group did not differ in their overall performance, $F < 1$.
12 Importantly, the compatibility \times partition group \times condition interaction was also not
13 significant $F < 1$, suggesting that the compatibility \times condition interaction described above
14 was equivalent in the partition group and no-partition group as expected.

15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
One pattern in the data might be counterintuitive from theoretical perspectives on
SCEs (e.g., De Jong et al., 1994; Kornblum & Lee, 1995): As depicted in Table 1 mean
reaction times in the Simon task were shorter for neutral trials than for compatible trials which
might imply that the effect pattern reported above was primarily driven by neutral trials.
However, when excluding neutral trials from the analyses reported above, the same effect
pattern emerged: We still found a main effect of compatibility in the joint go/no-go condition,
 $F(1, 5510.03) = 7.22, p < .01$, and in the individual go/no-go condition, $F(1, 2840.04) = 4.87,$
 $p = .03$. In both, the analysis of the joint go/no-go task and the analysis of the individual
go/no-go task, there was neither a main effect of partition panel nor an interaction of partition
panel and congruency ($F_s < 1$). Additionally, descriptive accelerations of reaction times for
neutral trials in individual and/or joint go/no-go conditions have been reported by several
research groups before (e.g., Dittrich et al., 2012; Sebanz et al., 2003, Experiment 2; Tsai et
al., 2008; Welsh et al., 2007; for a possible explanation of this effect see Umiltà, Rubichi, &
Nicoletti, 1999).

Flanker Task

Accuracy: The analysis of the fixed effects revealed a main effect of compatibility, $\chi^2[df = 2] = 169.84; p < .01$, indicating that more errors were made in incompatible trials relative to neutral and compatible trials. Moreover, more errors were made in the individual go/no-go condition, $\chi^2[df = 1] = 8.85; p < .01$. Additionally, in the individual go/no-go condition, there tended to be a difference in the flanker effect between partition groups while flanker effects were identical in the partition groups of the joint go/no-go condition as indicated by a marginally significant interaction of compatibility, condition, and partition group, $\chi^2[df = 2] = 5.08; p = .08$ (see also Table 2). However, in a follow-up analysis of the individual go/no-go condition with the factors compatibility (compatible vs. incompatible vs. neutral) and partition group (partition panel vs. no-partition panel), the flanker effects in the partition and the no partition group did not differ significantly (the interaction between partition group and compatibility did not reach significance, $\chi^2[df = 2] = 1.43; p = .49$).

Reaction time: The analysis of the fixed effects revealed a main effect of compatibility, $F(2, 13667.29) = 76.47, p < .001$, indicating that responses to compatible and neutral trials were faster than responses to incompatible trials. There was also a main effect of condition, $F(1, 38.50) = 25.97, p < .001$, indicating that responses were faster in the joint go/no-go condition than in the individual go/no-go condition. The analyses revealed no main effect of partition group, indicating that both the partition group and the no-partition group did not differ in their overall reaction time, $F < 1$. Importantly, the analysis revealed a significant compatibility \times condition \times partition group interaction, $F(2, 13667.32) = 4.47, p = .01$. Note that the two-way interaction between compatibility and partition group was not significant ($F < 1$), indicating that the flanker effect was not per se larger in the no-partition panel group.

To interpret this three-way interaction, follow-up analyses were conducted separately for the joint go/no-go condition and the individual go/no-go condition with the factors compatibility (compatible vs. incompatible vs. neutral) and partition group (partition panel vs.

1
2
3 no-partition panel). The compatibility \times partition group-interaction was significant in the joint
4
5 go/no-go condition, $F(2, 9121.03) = 2.96, p = .05$, revealing larger flanker effects in the no-
6
7 partition panel group compared to the partition panel group; this interaction was not
8
9 significant in the individual go/no-go condition, $F(2, 4546.05) = 1.90, p = .15$.

10
11
12 The same effect pattern emerged in analyses excluding neutral trials. We still found a
13
14 significant compatibility \times condition \times partition group-interaction, $F(1, 10893.48) = 4.94, p =$
15
16 $.03$, and the compatibility \times partition group-interaction was only significant in the joint go/no-
17
18 go condition, $F(1, 7273.03) = 4.51, p = .03$, but not in the individual go/no-go condition, $F(1,$
19
20 $3620.06) = 1.43, p = .23$.

21 22 23 24 **Joint Analysis of Simon and Flanker Task**

25
26
27 Due to the identical factorial design, it is possible to conduct an analysis including
28
29 both the flanker and the Simon task. This joint analysis (for the random effect structure of the
30
31 model see Appendix) revealed a marginally significant compatibility \times condition \times partition
32
33 group \times task interaction for reaction time, $F(2, 73.66) = 2.52, p = .09$, tentatively confirming
34
35 the moderation of compatibility effects in individual and joint go/no-go conditions by
36
37 partition group in the flanker task, and the absence of an equivalent effect pattern in the
38
39 Simon task. The same analysis excluding neutral trials revealed a similar result, $F(2, 75.49) =$
40
41 $3.26, p = .07$.

42 43 44 45 **Discussion**

46
47
48 The present study aimed to explore whether the joint Simon task and the joint flanker
49
50 task share the same underlying processes. This issue was addressed by investigating whether
51
52 the visibility of the co-actor moderates joint Simon and joint flanker effects to the same
53
54 degree. In the Simon task, joint SCEs did not differ between the partition group and no-
55
56 partition group. As expected, SCEs were also observed when the two participants were
57
58 separated by a partition panel. In contrast, in the joint flanker task, joint interference effects
59
60

1
2
3 differed between the partition group and no-partition group, revealing larger effects when the
4
5 participants were not separated by a partition panel and thus, were able to see each other.
6
7

8 The fact that both tasks differed in their results for the partition groups suggests that the
9
10 joint flanker and the joint Simon task do not draw upon the same cognitive processes. For this
11
12 reason, we propose different mechanisms for both joint effects, in line with well-established
13
14 accounts of both standard tasks. The joint Simon effect can be explained by the spatial coding
15
16 account (Dittrich et al., 2012, 2013): The joint SCE emerged in both partition groups because
17
18 participants knew *where* their respective co-actor was seated in relation to themselves, no
19
20 matter if they could see the co-actor or not. This knowledge enabled participants to refer to
21
22 themselves as the right or left participant and to code their responses spatially. In turn, the
23
24 spatial response coding led to a stimulus-response-overlap that caused shorter response times
25
26 in compatible trials than in incompatible trials.
27
28
29
30

31 To explain the joint flanker effect, we propose a new explanatory approach: We
32
33 assume that joint flanker effects are caused by less focused spatial attention in the joint
34
35 flanker task due to the presence and visibility of another person. In turn, the task-irrelevant
36
37 flankers receive more attention, and thus more activation amplifying the conflict between
38
39 targets and flankers. This reasoning is in line with several empirical findings that demonstrate
40
41 the modulation of flanker effects by the size of the focus of spatial attention (e.g., LaBerge,
42
43 1983; Mattler, 2006; for an overview see Hübner, Steinhauser, & Lehle, 2010). The
44
45 attentional-focus account is also in line with the results observed by Dolk et al. (2014): The
46
47 fact that the flanker effect increased when a Japanese waving cat was placed next to the
48
49 participants might be due to the additional attention required by the waving cat, consuming
50
51 cognitive resources that are needed to focus spatial attention to the target position.
52
53
54
55
56

57 Both the attentional-focusing account postulated here and Dolk et al.'s (2014)
58
59 reasoning state that “attention-grabbing events” like co-actors or Japanese waving cats induce
60
joint flanker effects. However, both accounts diverge in their assumptions about the

1
2
3 fundamental processes. In their referential coding account, Dolk et al. (2014) assumed that the
4
5 joint flanker task and the joint Simon task rely on the same fundamental mechanism. In both
6
7 joint interference tasks, the co-actor (or a Japanese waving cat) should induce a discrimination
8
9 problem that requires the participants to distinguish between events that they control and
10
11 events controlled by the co-actor. This discrimination problem should lead to an increased
12
13 intentional weighting of specific discriminable stimulus features. The more the activated
14
15 response alternatives in turn differ, the stronger should be the interference effect. According
16
17 Dolk et al.'s (2014) reasoning, all joint conditions of the present experiment should have led
18
19 to the need to distinguish between self-controlled and not self-controlled events because the
20
21 two complementary stimulus-response rules in the instructions were explicitly mentioned.
22
23 Therefore, joint Simon or joint flanker effects should be affected in the same way by whether
24
25 the co-actor is visible or not. However, in our study only the flanker but not the Simon effect
26
27 was affected by the visibility of the co-actor. We assume that "attention-grabbing events" like
28
29 co-actors or Japanese waving cats impair participants in focusing their spatial attention to the
30
31 target, and we will discuss possible reasons for that below.
32
33
34
35
36
37

38
39 According to a shared task-representation account of the joint flanker task (Atmaca et
40
41 al., 2011), a joint flanker effect should occur if participants cannot see each other but know of
42
43 the co-actor's actions. Thus, according to Atmaca et al. (2011), joint flanker effects should not
44
45 be affected by the partition arrangement. Since joint flanker effects were affected by the
46
47 partition arrangement, the present data do not confirm the shared task-representation account.
48
49 Note also that even Atmaca et al. did not find an overall joint flanker effect (they defined joint
50
51 flanker effects as the difference of flanker effects between a joint and an individual go/no-go
52
53 condition) in their third experiment when participants were told that a co-actor would perform
54
55 the complementary task in another room.
56
57
58

59
60 It should be noted that the present experiment was designed to examine whether
similar processes underlie joint flanker and joint Simon effects as proposed previously

1
2
3 (Atmaca et al., 2011; Dolk et al., 2014), but it was not designed to rule out the referential
4
5 coding account by Dolk et al. (2014) or the shared task-representation account by Sebanz et
6
7 al. (2003; see also Atmaca et al., 2011). Nevertheless, both accounts have difficulties to
8
9 explain why the Simon effect was independent of the visibility of the co-actor while the
10
11 flanker effect was affected by the partition arrangement. Further, although we pursue non-
12
13 social interpretations of joint Simon and joint flanker effects based on results reported
14
15 previously (e.g., Dolk et al., 2013, 2014; Dittrich et al., 2012, 2013), much research
16
17 demonstrates that different social factors modulate the joint Simon effect (e.g., Hommel et al.,
18
19 2009; Iani et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2011; Stenzel et al., 2012). Thus, it seems likely that
20
21 social factors, if not being causal, at least moderate joint interference effect. **Finally, it is**
22
23 **important to note that although the present findings challenge the action co-representation**
24
25 **account for the joint flanker and the joint Simon effect, our study does not intend to**
26
27 **disconfirm the phenomenon of action co-representation in general. Future research on joint**
28
29 **action should develop and use cognitive tasks that are capable to measure action co-**
30
31 **representation, but that are not influenced by the attentional focus of the participants or the**
32
33 **spatial dimension within the experimental set-up (for example the inhibition of return effect,**
34
35 **see Welsh et al., 2005, but see Atkinson, Simpson, Skarratt, & Cole, 2014; Cole, Skarratt, &**
36
37 **Billing, 2012).**

45 46 **Open Questions and Future Directions**

47
48 In the present work, we assume that the presence of a co-actor impairs participants'
49
50 abilities to focus their spatial attention on the target stimuli impeding in particular
51
52 performance in the flanker task. Presumably, a co-actor (or of a Japanese waving cat; see
53
54 Dolk et al., 2014) attracts participants' attention because the co-actor appears in the
55
56 participants' visual area. Participants might be less able to concentrate on the target compared
57
58 to an individual go/no-go condition because cognitive resources are required for monitoring
59
60 the co-actor (or Japanese waving cat). Note that this assumption is similar to assumptions

1
2
3 formulated in the social presence literature. Guerin (1983) for example speculated that
4
5 cognitive distraction might in part explain why the presence of another person affects task
6
7 performance. The modulation of the joint flanker effect due to impaired cognitive resources is
8
9 in line with research demonstrating that high working memory load or task coordination lead
10
11 to increased distractor interference in the classical flanker task (Lavie, Hirst, de Fockert, &
12
13 Vidig, 2004). Another explanation might be that the co-actor in the joint flanker task induces
14
15 arousal which impairs cognitive control processes. This interpretation is supported by recent
16
17 research of Dreisbach and Böttcher (2011) who showed that performance in a flanker task
18
19 was impaired in a social-evaluative context. Specifically, female participants showed
20
21 impaired performance in incompatible flanker trials when another person was present
22
23 evaluating pictures of women. Performance was not impaired when the other person was
24
25 evaluating pictures of landscapes or when the person was merely present without performing
26
27 a task. Dreisbach and Böttcher (2011) argued that the specific social-evaluative context might
28
29 have induced a negative affect impairing cognitive control processes. However, while it might
30
31 seem plausible that a co-actor induces arousal or even a mild negative affective reaction
32
33 because of the fear to be evaluated, it seems less reasonable that similar reactions are induced
34
35 by the Japanese waving cat.
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

43 In the present work, we focused on the joint condition of the Simon and flanker task
44
45 and we defined joint interference effects by the difference between incompatible and
46
47 compatible trials, analogous to several studies reported so far (e.g., Dittrich et al., 2013;
48
49 Guagnano et al., 2010; Hommel et al., 2009; Iani et al., 2011; Welsh, 2009). In order to rule
50
51 out that the partition panel per se influenced the performance in one or both interference tasks,
52
53 individual go/no-go tasks were also implemented. As expected, performance in both
54
55 individual go/no-go flanker and individual go/no-go Simon task was independent of the
56
57 presence of a partition panel indicating that the effect of the partition panel was specific to
58
59 task and setting. Nevertheless, the results of both individual go/no-go tasks raise a few
60

1
2
3 unanswerd questions because in both tasks a compatibility effect emerged. For the flanker
4 task, Dolk et al. (2014) and Atmaca et al. (2011) assumed different reasons for the occurrence
5 of a flanker effect in an individual go/no-go setting. According to Atmaca et al. (2011), the
6 flanker effect in an individual condition appears due to a conflict between relevant and
7 irrelevant stimulus features. This hypothesis rests on the fact that incompatible flankers in
8 contrast to neutral flankers sometimes appear in the target position and thus might activate a
9 stronger inhibition than neutral flankers. In contrast, Dolk et al. (2014) suggest that in the
10 individual flanker task the irrelevant flankers activate an alternative stimulus-response rule
11 even if this stimulus-response rule is neither explicitly formulated nor in use in the individual
12 go/no-go flanker task. On the basis of the present findings, both reasons for the occurrence of
13 a flanker effect in the individual go/no-go task are possible. Future research will have to
14 investigate in more detail (a) the origin of the individual go/no-go flanker effect and (b)
15 reasons for the fact that the effect is smaller in the individual condition than in the joint
16 condition or in the classical flanker task. For the Simon task, the unexpected result emerged
17 that a significant SCE was even found for the individual go/no-go condition, contrary to
18 previous findings (e.g., Sebanz et al., 2003). We assume that participants might have coded
19 their responses as left or right, even without a co-actor present. Participants were explicitly
20 recruited in pairs, they arrived at the lab together, they were instructed to wait for their co-
21 actor in front of the room, and they were seated on marked chairs (left chair was marked with
22 a 1 for participant 1, right chair was marked with a 2 for participant 2). Probably, this
23 procedure made it easy for the subjects to anticipate that their co-actor will perform or did
24 perform a similar task sitting on the other available seat. Therefore, even the individual go/no-
25 go condition made it possible for the participants to code their responses spatially.

26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
One limitation of the present study is that the order of the individual and the joint conditions was not counterbalanced. We did this in an attempt to prevent carryover effects of spatial response coding from the joint Simon task to the individual Simon task. It was

1
2
3 assumed that if subjects performed the joint Simon task prior to the individual Simon task,
4 they would have thought of themselves as the right or left participant; this spatial response
5 coding could have been carried over to the individual Simon task. To standardize
6 measurements, we also did not counterbalance the order of the individual and the joint
7 condition in the flanker task. This strategy might cause the concern that practice effects have
8 led to an attenuation of the compatibility effects of the joint Simon and joint flanker task.
9
10 However, previous studies have shown that spatial compatibility effects of the Simon task are
11 quite resistant against practice effects (Dutta & Proctor, 1992) and compatibility effects of the
12 flanker task are reasonably robust (Brown & Fera, 1994). Moreover, even if practice effects
13 have been present, they should have affected both joint conditions – Simon and flanker -
14
15 equally. The results showed higher or equal compatibility effects compared to the individual
16 tasks for all joint go/no-go conditions. Given that practice effects should have led to decreased
17 compatibility effects in all joint conditions, the differences in the joint flanker task between
18 the partition and no-partition condition in particular cannot reflect possible practice effects.

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
A new aspect of the present work is the use of mixed linear models instead of
analyzing data with repeated-measures ANOVAs. One advantage of this kind of analysis for
experiments in the research field of joint action is the possibility to account for random effects
produced by pairs of participants (*note that Baus et al., 2014 also used mixed linear models to
analyze joint task performance, but in their work only participants and items but not pairs of
participants were included as random factors*). It is reasonable to assume that participants
adapt their responding behavior to their co-actor's behavior, but classical analyses do not
incorporate this “pair factor”. By including the “pair factor” as random factor in the mixed
linear model analyses, we found an influence of this factor in all analyses (see Appendix).
Future work in the research field of joint action might profit from using mixed linear models
not only to assess this “pair factor” but also to reduce substantial biases in analyses that ignore
relevant random effects (Judd et al., 2012).

1
2
3 To conclude, the present study suggests that two different processes underlie the joint
4 Simon task and the joint flanker task by showing that different effects emerged for both tasks
5
6 as a function of whether the co-actor is visible or not. Results of the Simon task are in line
7
8 with a spatial interpretation of the joint Simon effect: In both partition groups, participants
9
10 knew where their respective co-actor was seated in relation to themselves, inducing a spatial
11
12 response coding. In contrast to recent claims, we propose a new explanation of the joint
13
14 flanker effect that attributes the joint flanker effect to an impairment in the focusing of spatial
15
16 attention due to the presence and visibility of the co-actor.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

References

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
- Ansorge, U., & Wühr, P. (2004). A response-discrimination account of the Simon effect. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *30*, 365–377.
- Atmaca, S., Sebanz, N., & Knoblich, G. (2011). The joint flanker effect: Sharing tasks with real and imagined co-actors. *Experimental Brain Research*, *211*, 371–385.
- Atmaca, S., Sebanz, N., Prinz, W., & Knoblich, G. (2008). Action co-representation: The joint SNARC effect. *Social Neuroscience*, *3*, 410–420.
- Atkinson, M. A., Simpson, A., Skarratt, P. A., & Cole, G. G. (2014). Is social inhibition of return due to action co-representation? *Acta Psychologica*, *150*, 85–93.
- Baus, C., Sebanz, N., de la Fuente, V., Branzi, F. M., Martin, C., & Costa, A. (2014). On predicting others' words: Electrophysiological evidence of prediction in speech production. *Cognition*, *133*, 395–407.
- Böckler, A., Knoblich, G., & Sebanz, N. (2012). Effects of a coactor's focus of attention on task performance. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *38*, 1404–1415.
- Brown, P., & Fera, P. (1994). Turning selective attention failure into selective attention success. *Canadian Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *48*, 25–57.
- Clark-Carter, D. (2004). *Quantitative psychological research: A student's handbook*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Cohen, A., & Shoup, R. (1997). Perceptual dimensional constraints in response selection processes. *Cognitive Psychology*, *32*, 128–181.
- Cole, G., Skarratt, P., & Billing, R. (2012). Do action goals mediate social inhibition of return? *Psychological Research*, *76*, 736–746.
- De Houwer, J. (2003). On the role of stimulus–response and stimulus–stimulus compatibility in the Stroop effect. *Memory & Cognition*, *31*, 353–359.

- 1
2
3 De Jong, R., Liang, C.-C., & Lauber, E. (1994). Conditional and unconditional automaticity: A
4
5 dual-process model of effects of spatial stimulus-response correspondence. *Journal of*
6
7
8 *Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *20*, 731–750.
9
- 10 Dittrich, K., Dolk, T., Rothe-Wulf, A., Klauer, K. C., & Prinz, W. (2013). Keys and seats:
11
12 Spatial response coding underlying the joint spatial compatibility effect. *Attention,*
13
14 *Perception, & Psychophysics*, *75*, 1725–1736.
15
- 16
17 Dittrich, K., & Klauer, K. C. (2012). Does ignoring lead to worse evaluations? A new
18
19 explanation of the stimulus devaluation effect. *Cognition & Emotion*, *26*, 193–208.
20
- 21
22 Dittrich, K., Rothe, A., & Klauer, K. C. (2012). Increased spatial salience in the social Simon
23
24 task: A response-coding account of spatial compatibility effects. *Attention, Perception,*
25
26 *& Psychophysics*, *74*, 911–929.
27
- 28
29 Dolk, T., Hommel, B., Colzato, L. S., Schütz-Bosbach, S., Prinz, W., & Liepelt, R. (2011). How
30
31 “social” is the social Simon effect? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *2*, 1–9.
32
- 33
34 Dolk, T., Hommel, B., Prinz, W., & Liepelt, R. (2013). The (not so) social Simon effect: A
35
36 referential coding account. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception*
37
38 *and Performance*, *39*, 1248–1260.
39
- 40
41 Dolk, T., Hommel, B., Prinz, W., & Liepelt, R. (2014). The joint flanker effect: Less social than
42
43 previously thought. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *21*, 1224–1230.
44
- 45
46 Dreisbach, G., & Böttcher, S. (2011). How the social-evaluative context modulates processes
47
48 of cognitive control. *Psychological Research*, *75*, 143–151.
49
- 50
51 Dutta, A., & Proctor, R. W. (1992). Persistence of stimulus-response compatibility effects with
52
53 extended practice. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning Memory, and*
54
55 *Cognition*, *18*, 801–809.
56
- 57
58 Eder, A. B., & Rothermund, K. (2008). When do motor behaviors (mis)match affective stimuli?
59
60 An evaluative coding view of approach and avoidance reactions. *Journal of*
Experimental Psychology: General, *137*, 262–281.

- 1
2
3 Eimer, M., Hommel, B., & Prinz, W. (1995). S-R compatibility and response selection. *Acta*
4
5 *Psychologica*, *90*, 301–313.
6
7
8 Eriksen, B. A., & Eriksen, C. W. (1974). Effects of noise letters upon the identification of a
9
10 target letter in a nonsearch task. *Perception & Psychophysics*, *16*, 143–149.
11
12
13 Guagnano, D., Rusconi, E., & Umiltà, C. A. (2010). Sharing a task or sharing space? On the
14
15 effect of the confederate in action coding in a detection task. *Cognition*, *114*, 348–355.
16
17
18 Guerin, B. (1983). Social facilitation and social monitoring: A test of three models. *British*
19
20 *Journal of Social Psychology*, *22*, 203–214.
21
22
23 Hommel, B. (1996). S–R compatibility effects without response uncertainty. *The Quarterly*
24
25 *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *49A*, 546–571.
26
27
28 Hommel, B., Colzato, L. S., & van den Wildenberg, W. P. M. (2009). How social are task
29
30 representations? *Psychological Science*, *20*, 794–798.
31
32
33 Hübner, R., Steinhauser, M., & Lehle, C. (2010). A dual-stage two-phase model of selective
34
35 attention. *Psychological Review*, *117*, 759–784.
36
37
38 Iani, C., Anelli, F., Nicoletti, R., Arcuri, L., & Rubichi, S. (2011). The role of group membership
39
40 on the modulation of joint action. *Experimental Brain Research*, *211*, 439–445.
41
42
43 Judd, C. M., Westfall, J., & Kenny, D. A. (2012). Treating stimuli as a random factor in social
44
45 psychology: A new and comprehensive solution to a pervasive but largely ignored
46
47 problem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *103*, 54–69.
48
49
50 Kornblum, S., Hasbroucq, T., & Osman, A. (1990). Dimensional overlap: Cognitive basis for
51
52 stimulus-response compatibility – A model and taxonomy. *Psychological Review*, *97*,
53
54 253–270.
55
56
57 Kornblum, S., & Lee, J.-W. (1995). Stimulus-response compatibility with relevant and
58
59 irrelevant stimulus dimensions that do and do not overlap with the response. *Journal of*
60 *Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *21*, 855–875.

- 1
2
3 LaBerge, D. (1983). Spatial extent of attention to letters and words. *Journal of Experimental*
4
5 *Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 9, 371–379.
6
7
8 Lavie, N., Hirst, A., De Fockert, J.W., & Viding, E. (2004). Load theory of selective attention
9
10 and cognitive control. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 133, 339–354.
11
12
13 Lu, C.-H., & Proctor, R. W. (1995). The influence of irrelevant location information on
14
15 performance: A review of the Simon and spatial Stroop effects. *Psychonomic Bulletin*
16
17 *& Review*, 2, 174–207.
18
19
20 Mattler, U. (2006). Distance and ratio effects in the flanker task are due to different
21
22 mechanisms. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 59, 1745–1763.
23
24
25 Memelink, J., & Hommel, B. (2013). Intentional weighting: A basic principle in cognitive
26
27 control. *Psychological Research*, 77, 249–259.
28
29
30 Müller, B. C. N., Brass, M., Kühn, S., Tsai, C.-C., Nieuwboer, W., Dijksterhuis, A., et al.
31
32 (2011). When Pinocchio acts like a human, a wooden hand becomes embodied. Action
33
34 co-representation for non-biological agents. *Neuropsychologia*, 49, 1373–1377.
35
36
37 Prinz, W. (1990). A common coding approach to perception and action. In O. Neumann & W.
38
39 Prinz (Eds.), *Relationships between perception and action: Current approaches* (pp.
40
41 167-201). Berlin: Springer.
42
43
44 Prinz, W. (1997). Perception and action planning. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*,
45
46 9, 129–154.
47
48
49 Rubichi, S., & Pellicano, A. (2004). Does the Simon effect affect movement execution?
50
51 *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 16, 825–840.
52
53
54 Ruys, K. I., & Aarts, H. (2010). When competition merges people's behavior: Interdependency
55
56 activates shared action representations. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46,
57
58 1130–1133.
59
60 Sebanz, N., Bekkering, H., & Knoblich, G. (2006). Joint action: Bodies and minds moving
together. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 10, 70–76.

- 1
2
3 Sebanz, N., Knoblich, G., & Prinz, W. (2003). Representing others' actions: Just like one's
4
5 own? *Cognition*, 88, B11–B21.
6
7
8 Sellaro, R., Treccani, B., Rubichi, S., & Cubelli, R. (2013). When co-action eliminates the
9
10 Simon effect: disentangling the impact of co-actor's presence and task sharing on joint-
11
12 task performance. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4, 844.
13
14
15 Simon, J. R. (1969). Reactions toward the source of stimulation. *Journal of Experimental*
16
17 *Psychology*, 81, 174–176.
18
19
20 Stenzel, A., Chinellato, E., Tirado Bou, M. A., del Pobil, À. P., Lappe, M., & Liepelt, R. (2012).
21
22 When humanoid robots become human-like interaction partners: Corepresentation of
23
24 robotic actions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and*
25
26 *Performance*, 38, 1073–1077.
27
28
29 Treccani, B., Cubelli, R., Della Sala, S., & Umiltà, C. (2009). Flanker and Simon effects interact
30
31 at the response selection stage. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 62,
32
33 1784–1804.
34
35
36 Tsai, C.-C., Kuo, W.-J., Hung, D. L., & Tzeng, O. J.-L. (2008). Action co-representation is
37
38 tuned to other humans. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 20, 2015–2024.
39
40
41 Tsai, C.-C., Kuo, W.-J., Jing, J.-T., Hung, D. L., & Tzeng, O. J.-L. (2006). A common coding
42
43 framework in self-other interaction: Evidence from joint action task. *Experimental*
44
45 *Brain Research*, 175, 353–362.
46
47
48 Umiltà, C., Rubichi, S., & Nicoletti, R. (1999). Facilitation and interference components in the
49
50 Simon effect. *Archives Italiennes de Biologie*, 137, 139–149
51
52
53 Vlainic, E., Liepelt, R., Colzato, L. S., Prinz, W., & Hommel, B. (2010). The virtual co-actor:
54
55 The social Simon effect does not rely on online feedback from the other. *Frontiers in*
56
57 *Psychology*, 1, 208.
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Voss, A., Leonhart, R., & Stahl, C. (2007). How to make your own response boxes: A step-by-
4
5 step guide for the construction of reliable and inexpensive parallel-port response pads
6
7 from computer mice. *Behavior Research Methods*, 39, 797–801.
- 8
9
10 Weeks, D. J., Proctor, R. W., & Beyak, B. (1995). Stimulus–response compatibility for
11
12 vertically oriented stimuli and horizontally oriented responses: Evidence for spatial
13
14 coding. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Experimental*
15
16 *Psychology*, 48(A), 367–383.
- 17
18
19
20 Welsh, T. N. (2009). When $1 + 1 = 1$: The unification of independent actors revealed through
21
22 joint Simon effects in crossed and uncrossed effector conditions. *Human Movement*
23
24 *Science*, 28, 726–737.
- 25
26
27 Welsh, T. N., Elliott, D., Anson, J. G., Dhillon, V., Weeks, D. J., Lyons, J. L., & Chua, R.
28
29 (2005). Does Joe influence Fred’s action? Inhibition of return across different nervous
30
31 systems. *Neuroscience Letters*, 385, 99–104.
- 32
33
34 Welsh, T. N., Higgins, L., Ray, M., & Weeks, D. J. (2007). Seeing vs. believing: Is believing
35
36 sufficient to activate the processes of response co-representation? *Human Movement*
37
38 *Science*, 26, 853–866.
- 39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Footnotes

¹ Prior studies have shown that task instructions can affect participants response coding (e.g., Dittrich & Klauer, 2012; Eder & Rothermund, 2008). Therefore, we used numbers (participant 1 and participant 2) in the instructions to assure that words like “left / right participant” did not influence subjects response coding.

² To acquaint subjects with the particular task, the timing in the first practice block was [less speeded](#) (3,000 ms display of the target, 3,000 ms time to respond, no-go stimuli disappeared after 1,000 ms) than in the other trials (experimental block and second practice block).

³ We also conducted classical repeated-measure ANOVAs which led to a similar result pattern as the results reported in the main text.

⁴ As described in the method section, three participants were excluded from analyses. Thus, the analyses included three “pairs” of participants that only contained one participant. In this case, the random intercept for participant and the random intercept for pairs of participants was redundant and only one was considered in the algorithm.

⁵ For the statistical analysis of the joint flanker effect, Atmaca et al. (2011) and Dolk et al. (2014) compared baseline trials (average reaction times for compatible and neutral trials) with incompatible trials. Unlike them we used a comparison of compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials. Although we considered an analysis of separate compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials to be more appropriate (because analyses do not merge information and are in line with the analyses of compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials in the Simon task), we nevertheless wanted to exclude the possibility that the selection of the compatibility factor affected the results of the flanker task. For this reason, we also ran the same analyses as reported in the result section of the flanker task but with merged compatible and neutral trials. These analyses yielded the same result pattern.

⁶ [As can be seen in Table 1, the observed joint SCEs were quite small \(3-4 ms\). A look at the raw data revealed that the majority of participants \(24 out of 37\) showed joint SCEs](#)

1
2
3 demonstrating that this small effect was stable and not only present due to large effects in a
4 small subgroup of participants. Please also note that we consistently find smaller joint SCEs
5 (Dittrich, Rothe & Klauer, 2012; Dittrich, Dolk, Rothe-Wulf, Prinz, & Klauer, 2013) than for
6 example Sebanz and colleagues (e.g., Sebanz, Knoblich, & Prinz, 2003). Presumably, it is the
7 difference between stimuli most often used by Sebanz and colleagues (a human hand pointing
8 to the left or right) and by our group (colored circles, displayed in a horizontal row) that
9 explains this discrepancy.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Appendix

To identify the random effect structure, we estimated generalized mixed linear models with random effects for *participants* and *pairs of participants* for accuracy data, and mixed linear models with random effects for *participants* and *pairs of participants* for the latency data. First, we fitted a full model (am1, tm1) with a maximal random-effects structure; that is with random intercepts for participants and pairs of participants and random slopes for the factors *compatibility and condition* and all interactions thereof as a function of participants and pairs of participants. This model was compared with a “null” model (am2, tm2) in which only a random intercept for participants was implemented. Note that the null model is comparable to a repeated-measure ANOVA, typically used to analyze data in designs like the present one. If no difference was found, the null model was accepted as the final model, from which then the fixed effects were calculated and reported in the main text.

If both models differed, we tested which random slopes as a function of participants and pairs of participants were needed as well as whether a random intercept for pairs of participants was needed. Inspecting the variance estimated for the different random slopes and for the intercept of pairs of participants, we selected random slopes that appeared to be associated with the largest variances. In a second step, we therefore compared a “reduced” model with these random slopes (am3, tm3) to both the full model and the null model. The reduced model was taken as final model given a) no significant difference between the reduced model and the full model indicating that the reduced model explains the data equally well as the full model, and b) a significant difference between the reduced model and the null model indicating that additional random error components are necessary as compared to the null model. Random intercepts for pair of participants were necessary for all models indicating that pairs of participants account for variance in response behaviors.

(I) Simon task*Accuracies*

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>	<i>loglik</i>	<i>deviance</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
am1	54	3936.6	4378.5	-1914.3	3828.6			
am2	13	3914.4	4020.8	-1944.2	3888.4	59.77	41	.03

→ am3: random slope for condition as a function of participants and intercept of pairs of participants.

am1	54	3936.6	4378.5	-1914.3	3828.6			
am3 ^{final}	16	3865.9	3996.9	-1917.0	3833.9	5.31	38	.999
am2	13	3914.4	4020.8	-1944.2	3888.4			
am3 ^{final}	16	3865.9	3996.9	-1917.0	3833.9	54.47	3	<.001

Latencies

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>	<i>loglik</i>	<i>deviance</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
tm1	55	132078	132487	-65984	131968			
tm2	14	132330	132434	-66151	132302	334.38	41	<.001

→ tm3: random slope for the compatibility × condition interaction as a function of participants and intercept of pairs of participants.

tm1	55	132078	132487	-65984	131968			
tm3 ^{final}	35	132038	132299	-65984	131968	0.43	20	.999
tm2	14	132330	132434	-66151	132302			
tm3 ^{final}	35	132038	132299	-65984	131968	333.95	21	<.001

(II) Flanker task*Accuracies*

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>	<i>loglik</i>	<i>deviance</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
am1	54	6818	7264.5	-3355.0	6710			
am2	13	6850.2	6957.7	-3412.1	6824.2	114.2	41	<.001

→ am3: random slope for condition as a function of participants and intercept of pairs of participants.

am1	54	6818	7264.5	-3355.0	6710			
am3 ^{final}	16	6755	6887.3	-3361.5	6723	12.95	38	.999
am2	13	6850.2	6957.7	-3412.1	6824.2			
am3 ^{final}	16	6755	6887.3	-3361.5	6723	101.25	3	<.001

Latencies

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>	<i>loglik</i>	<i>deviance</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
tm1	55	151370	151785	-75630	151260			
tm2	14	151816	151921	-75894	151788	527.24	41	<.001

→ tm3: random slope for condition as a function of participants and intercept of pairs of participants.

tm1	55	151370	151785	-75630	151260			
tm3 ^{final}	17	151344	151472	-75655	151310	49.39	38	.102
tm2	14	151816	151921	-75894	151788			
tm3 ^{final}	17	151344	151472	-75655	151310	477.85	3	<.001

(III) Joint analysis of Simon and flanker task*Latencies*

Model	<i>df</i>	<i>AIC</i>	<i>BIC</i>	<i>loglik</i>	<i>deviance</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
tm1	67	284446	284994	-142156	284312			
tm2	26	285229	285442	-142588	285177	865.16	41	<.001

→ tm3: random slope for the compatibility × condition interaction as a function of participants and intercept of pairs of participants.

tm1	67	284446	284994	-142156	284312			
tm3 ^{final}	47	284410	284795	-142158	284316	4.62	20	.999
tm2	26	285229	285442	-142588	285177			
tm3 ^{final}	47	284410	284795	-142158	284316	860.54	21	<.001

Table 1

Simon task: Mean reaction times (in milliseconds), mean error rates (in percent), and standard deviations for compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials as a function of condition and partition group, along with SCEs (incompatible trials - compatible trials)

		Spatial Compatibility							
		Compatible		Neutral		Incompatible		SCE	
Condition	Partition group	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Reaction times									
Individual go/no-go	No Partition	332	39	328	38	336	40	4	15
	Partition	327	39	323	39	330	40	3	8
Joint go/no-go	No Partition	320	31	309	32	323	30	3	12
	Partition	323	35	311	40	327	35	4	8
Error rates									
Individual go/no-go	No Partition	0.8	1.2	1.3	1.7	2.1	2.5	1.3	2.4
	Partition	0.9	1.3	1.6	2.0	1.1	1.3	0.2	1.2
Joint go/no-go	No Partition	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.3	1.8	-0.4	1.0
	Partition	1.9	3.5	2.1	3.7	2.0	3.3	0.1	1.0

Table 2

Flanker task: Mean reaction times (in milliseconds), mean error rates (in percent), and standard deviations for compatible, neutral, and incompatible trials as a function of condition and partition group, along with compatibility effects (incompatible trials - compatible trials)

Condition	Partition group	Compatibility								
								Flanker effect		
		Compatible		Neutral		Incompatible		M	SD	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Reaction times										
Individual go/no-go	No Partition	381	55	376	62	388	49	7	18	
	Partition	379	51	370	50	390	56	11	16	
Joint go/no-go	No Partition	352	42	347	40	368	39	16	11	
	Partition	360	45	356	51	370	46	10	10	
Error rates										
Individual go/no-go	No Partition	2.1	2.4	3.5	3.4	6.7	4.2	4.6	2.6	
	Partition	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	5.0	4.4	3.1	4.1	
Joint go/no-go	No Partition	2.0	2.5	1.9	2.3	3.9	3.8	1.9	2.3	
	Partition	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.2	2.8	2.6	1.9	2.3	

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Experimental setup in the no-partition group (panel A) and in the partition group (panel B) for the individual condition (left) and the joint condition (right).

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

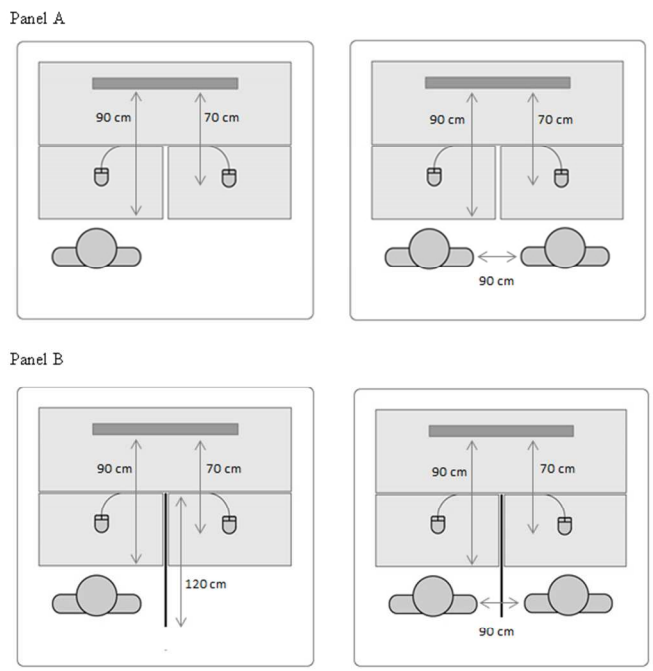


Figure 1. Experimental setup in the no-partition group (panel A) and in the partition group (panel B) for the individual condition (left) and the joint condition (right).
210x297mm (96 x 96 DPI)