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Alix Pérusseau-Lambert, Margarita Anastassova, Mehdi Boukallel, Mohamed Chetouani, Ouriel Grynszpan. The social Simon effect in the tactile sensory modality: a negative finding. *Cognitive Processing*, 2019, 20 (3), pp.299-307. 10.1007/s10339-019-00911-4 . hal-02407435

HAL Id: hal-02407435

<https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-02407435>

Submitted on 12 Dec 2019

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THE SOCIAL SIMON EFFECT IN THE TACTILE SENSORY MODALITY: A NEGATIVE

FINDING

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Abstract:

Objective: This study seeks to investigate whether users activate cognitive representations of their partner's action when they are involved in tactile collaborative tasks.

Background: The social Simon effect is a spatial stimulus-response interference induced by the mere presence of a partner in a go/nogo task. It has been extensively studied in the visual and auditory sensory modalities, but never before in the tactile modality.

Method: We compared the performances of 28 participants in three tasks: (i) a standard Simon task where participants responded to two different tactile stimuli applied to their fingertips with either their left or right foot, (ii) an individual go/nogo task where participants responded to only one stimulus and (iii) a social go/nogo task where they again responded to only one stimulus, but were partnered with another person who responded to the complementary stimulus.

Results: The interference effect due to spatial incongruence between the side where participants received the stimulus and the foot used to answer increased significantly in the standard Simon task compared to the social go/nogo task. Such a difference was not observed between the social and individual go/nogo tasks. Performances were nevertheless enhanced in the social go/nogo task, but irrespectively of the stimulus-response congruency.

Conclusion: This study is the first to report a negative result for the social Simon effect in the tactile modality. Results suggest that cognitive representation of the co-actor is weaker in this modality.

27 **Keywords:** Tactile, Joint action, Interpersonal coordination, stimulus-response compatibility

28 I. INTRODUCTION

29 Action performed jointly between two or more human partners has spurred much debate in the field
30 of cognitive sciences. Gallotti and Frith (2013) advocate for the existence of a specific mode of
31 functioning, which they called the “we-mode” (p. 160), that appears when individuals are involved in
32 collective actions. One of the core mechanisms that give rise to the “we-mode” is our spontaneous
33 tendency to be influenced by actions performed by co-actors. Sebanz, Knoblich and Prinz (2003)
34 reported an experiment that illustrated how one’s motor planning ability was affected by a co-actor’s
35 actions. It has become a prominent paradigm, referred to as the social or joint Simon effect, which
36 has been extensively used to study joint actions between two co-actors (Dittrich, Rothe, & Klauer,
37 2012; Iani, Anelli, Nicoletti, Arcuri, & Rubichi, 2011; Klempova & Liepelt, 2016; Kuhbandner, Pekrun,
38 & Maier, 2010; Liepelt, Wenke, & Fischer, 2013; Liepelt, Wenke, Fischer, & Prinz, 2011; Stenzel et al.,
39 2012, 2014; Tsai & Brass, 2007; Vlainic, Liepelt, Colzato, Prinz, & Hommel, 2010; Welsh, 2009; Welsh
40 et al., 2013). It derives from the standard Simon task (Simon, 1969) that induces a spatial stimulus-
41 response interference effect whereby participants respond faster to stimuli that are presented on
42 the same side as the limb they use to answer, even though the location of the stimuli is task-
43 irrelevant. For instance, either a blue or green circle appears to the left or right of the participant
44 who is to press a key on her/his left for the green circle and a key on her/his right for the blue circle
45 (Hommel, Colzato, & van den Wildenberg, 2009). Participants’ response times will decrease when the
46 location of the stimulus is congruent with the location of the response key. This effect disappears if
47 participants are instructed to perform a simple go/nogo task where they respond to only one of the
48 two stimuli with a single key. The interference effect however reappears de novo when the
49 participant is partnered with another individual who responds to the alternative stimulus. The
50 partner’s action in this social go/nogo condition thus influences the participant’s motor planning. The
51 goal of the study reported here was to test whether this effect can still be observed when the stimuli

52 are delivered on the tactile sensory modality. This issue is expected to be highly relevant for the
53 design of collaborative tactile interfaces.

54 The social Simon effect has been shown to depend on the degree of perceived interdependence
55 between the co-actors (Colzato, de Bruijn, & Hommel, 2012; Iani et al., 2011; Ruys & Aarts, 2010). It
56 is enhanced when the co-actor is seen as friendly and cooperative compared to intimidating and
57 competitive (Hommel et al., 2009; Iani et al., 2011). The social Simon effect has been classically
58 explained by our spontaneous tendency to represent actions performed by others within our own
59 sensory-motor system (Sebanz et al., 2003; Sebanz, Knoblich, Prinz, & Wascher, 2006), although
60 alternative accounts emphasize the importance of the spatial arrangement of the two co-acting
61 partners with respect to the stimuli (Dittrich, Dolk, Rothe-Wulf, Klauer, & Prinz, 2013; Dittrich et al.,
62 2012; Guagnano, Rusconi, & Umiltà, 2010) and the attention-grabbing events caused by the co-
63 actor's actions (Dolk, Hommel, Prinz, & Liepelt, 2013; Klempova & Liepelt, 2016). Despite the
64 different theoretical frameworks that are used to account for the effect, the social Simon effect has
65 been robustly reproduced across various settings and has been used in numerous imaging studies to
66 examine neural networks associated with joint action (Costantini et al., 2013; de la Asuncion, Docx,
67 Morrens, Sabbe, & de Bruijn, 2015; Dolk, Liepelt, Villringer, Prinz, & Ragert, 2012; Sebanz et al., 2006;
68 Sebanz, Rebecchi, Knoblich, Prinz, & Frith, 2007; Tsai, Kuo, Hung, & Tzeng, 2008). Yet, to our
69 knowledge, until now, experiments on the social Simon effect have always used either visual or
70 auditory stimuli, but have never been conducted in the tactile modality.

71 The small number of studies that implemented the standard Simon task in the tactile modality have
72 been consistent in reporting the expected interference effect. Hasbroucq and Guiard (1992) applied
73 mechanical taps on the index fingers and thumbs of the two hands and found shorter response times
74 when the stimulation was congruent with the hand with which participants had to answer. In the
75 study by Medina, McCloskey, Coslett and Rapp (2014), participants received vibrotactile stimuli on
76 their middle fingers and had to respond using foot pedals. They responded faster on trials where the

77 finger receiving the stimulus and the foot releasing the pedal were somatotopically congruent.

78 Salzer, Aisenberg, Oron-Gilad and Henik (2014) exerted vibrotactile stimulations on the left and right
79 part of the back of the torso. Once again, they observed an interference effect when participants had
80 to answer with the hand opposite to the side where they perceived the tactile stimulus.

81 In the present experiment, we applied vibrotactile stimulations on the index fingertips of
82 participants, who had to respond by pressing foot pedals. Following a classical experimental design
83 for studying the social Simon effect, we compared three tasks: (i) a standard Simon task where
84 participants received two different types of tactile vibration and had to respond with their two feet;
85 (ii) an individual go/nogo task where participants still received the two types of tactile vibration, but
86 responded to only one of them; (iii) a social go/nogo task where participants responded in the same
87 way as in the individual go/nogo task, while another person sitting next to them responded to the
88 complementary stimulus. We hypothesized that the congruency between the side where the
89 vibrotactile stimulation was applied and the foot with which participants had to respond would have
90 an effect on response times in the standard Simon task and in the social go/nogo task, but not in the
91 individual go/nogo task. Additionally, participants were administered the Autism-Spectrum Quotient
92 (AQ) questionnaire (Baron-Cohen, Wheelwright, Skinner, Martin, & Clubley, 2001), which assesses
93 Autism-Spectrum traits in the general population. This questionnaire provided a metric that we
94 intended to correlate with the amplitude of the hypothesized interference effect in the social Simon
95 go/nogo task. A previous study (Sebanz, Knoblich, Stumpf, & Prinz, 2005) reported that the social
96 Simon effect was unaltered in individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). However, given the
97 profound impairments in the ability to spontaneously represent others' intentions in action that are
98 associated with ASD (Senju, Southgate, White, & Frith, 2009) and the theory linking the social Simon
99 effect to a spontaneous representation of others' action (Sebanz et al., 2003, 2006), we tentatively
100 hypothesized a negative correlation between the social Simon effect and Autism-Spectrum traits
101 given the social nature of the experimental manipulation.

102

II. METHODS

103 *II.1 Participants*

104 Twenty-eight adults (14 males, 14 females) participated in the experiment. Their age range was
105 21 – 39 years with a mean of 27.4 years ($SD = 5.1$). A power analysis was performed prior to the
106 experiment to estimate the required minimum sample size based on data reported by former studies
107 (Hommel, Colzato, & van den Wildenberg, 2009; Liepelt, Wenke, Fischer, & Prinz, 2011). The
108 computation was carried out with the G*Power application (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007)
109 setting the significance threshold to 0.05 and the power to 0.9. It yielded a minimum sample size of
110 16. Participants were free of any known psychiatric or neurologic symptoms, non-corrected visual or
111 auditory deficits and recent use of any substance that could impede concentration. This research
112 complied with the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Institutional Review
113 Board at Université Paris-Descartes. Informed consent was obtained from each participant.

114 *II.2 Material*

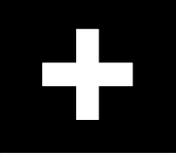
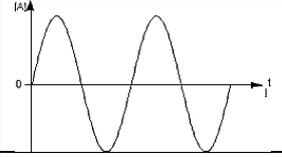
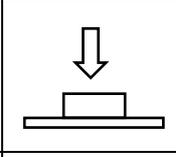
115 The tactile stimulations were produced by two Linear Resonant Actuators (LRA) from Precision
116 MicroDrive™ that produced vibrations. The actuators were monitored with the National Instrument
117 Emission/ Acquisition cards (NI 9265 and NI 9205). The input signals were amplified and powered by
118 home-made electronic cards. The entire experimental systems was controlled with a home-made
119 program coded in the Python language. The LRAs were fixed on a table and positioned on an axis that
120 was parallel to the edge of the table. Participants would sit on a comfortable chair in front of the
121 table, in-between the two LRAs, and would place their right and left index fingertips on the LRA that
122 was on the same side as their hand. The vibrotactile stimuli were provided by a 205 Hz vibration of
123 either (a) 1.5 μ m displacement amplitude or (b) 3.7 μ m displacement amplitude. The vibration was
124 continuous and lasted 250ms. The 1.5 μ m amplitude vibration was referred to as the “low” stimulus
125 signal and the 3.7 μ m amplitude vibration was the “high” stimulus signal. Participants responded to
126 the tactile stimuli by pushing pedals that were located under the table. One pedal was on the left

127 side of the participant and the other one was on the right. Each pedal was associated with a given
128 vibration amplitude (either high or low) that was indicated on the pedal. The vibration noise was
129 totally eliminated by having participants wear a noise-cancelling headphones playing pink noise.
130 Hence, the sense of touch was the only sensory modality that participants could rely on to
131 discriminate between the two vibration amplitudes.

132 *II.3 Procedure*

133 Participants sat next to the experimenter who was on their left. A computer screen was placed on
134 the table in-between the participant and the experimenter. Instructions were provided verbally and
135 by writing. The written version was accessible throughout the experiment. Participants were
136 instructed to respond as fast as they could to the tactile stimuli. They had to place their feet
137 symmetrically with respect to their body. Their feet were separated by a distance equivalent to the
138 size of their hips or distance from shoulder to shoulder, according to what was the most natural
139 posture for them. The pedals were placed besides each one of their foot, either under it or next to it,
140 in the most comfortable and easy to reach positions for every individual participant. Participants
141 were then introduced the low and high stimuli on each LRA. For half of the participants, the “high”
142 pedal, which was to be pressed when perceiving a high stimulus, was on their right side, and the
143 “low” pedal on their left side. The reverse configuration was used for the other half of participants.

144 As in Salzer et al. (2014), each trial began with a fixation cross that was displayed at the center of
145 the screen for 250ms. When the fixation cross disappeared, one of the LRA delivered a vibrotactile
146 stimulus for 250ms. Once the vibrotactile stimulus began, participants had 1500ms to respond by
147 pressing one of the two pedals. After the participants’ response, a “Right” or “Wrong” feedback
148 message was displayed during 300ms. No feedback was provided if participants had not responded
149 fast enough. The feedback message was followed by a black screen that lasted until the next trial
150 began. The inter-trial interval duration varied randomly between 1000 and 1500ms. Figure 1
151 summarizes the event flow during a trial.

Event	Fixation cross	Tactile stimuli	Participant's response	Feedback	Inter-trial interval
				Correct	
Duration	250ms	250ms		300ms	1 000-1 500ms
		1 500ms			

152 *Figure 1: Flow of sequential events that occur during a trial*

153 The experiment was composed of 5 blocks that were separated by short breaks. The first block was
154 used to train participants in perceiving the two different vibrotactile stimulations. It contained 60
155 trials that were not included in the analyses. The four following blocks comprised 120 trials each and
156 were used to collect experimental data, that is, reaction time and accuracy (number of errors). The
157 Reaction Time was measured from the stimulus onset until the participant's response. During each
158 block, the LRAs produced an equal number of low and high amplitude stimuli that were equally
159 distributed on the left and on the right. The left/right positions and low/high amplitudes of the
160 stimuli were randomly allocated. As explained above, participants were to respond to the low or high
161 stimuli with either their left foot or right foot depending on where the low and high pedals had been
162 placed. When the stimulus appeared on the same side as the pedal to be pressed, the trial was said
163 to be congruent. It was incongruent when the stimulus appeared on the opposite side.

164 The four experimental blocks presented three different tasks: One block was dedicated to the
165 standard Simon task, one block to the individual go/nogo task and two blocks for the social go/nogo
166 task. To neutralize the effect of the tasks' order, their sequential order was counterbalanced across
167 participants using the Latin Square method. As there were three tasks, there were six possible
168 counterbalancing sequences and similar numbers of participants were allotted to each possible
169 sequence (4 to 6 participants per sequence).

170 In the standard Simon task, participants had to respond to the two amplitudes of vibration stimuli
171 (high and low) by pressing the matching pedal. In the individual and social go/nogo tasks, participants
172 would either respond exclusively to the low amplitude stimuli for the first 60 trials of each block and

173 to the high amplitude stimuli for the next 60 trials, or they would respond first to the high amplitude
174 stimuli and then to the low amplitude stimuli. The order in which participants were to respond to
175 vibration amplitudes was counterbalanced across participants. The position of the pedal which they
176 had to press was also counterbalanced across participants.

177 The only difference between the individual go/nogo condition and the social go/nogo condition
178 was that the experimenter took part in the task during the social go/nogo condition. In the latter
179 condition, the experimenter responded to the amplitude of the vibration stimuli that the participant
180 was asked not to respond to. For instance, if the participant had to respond to the low amplitude
181 stimuli, the experimenter responded to the high amplitude stimuli and vice versa. The instructions
182 explicitly specified that the participant and the experimenter were to cooperate in performing the
183 task. The experimenter placed her fingertips on a second set of LRAs that reproduced the vibrotactile
184 stimuli sent to the participant. The experimenter used the same foot as the participant to press the
185 response pedal. The experimenter was the same for all participants. As she was a female, the
186 participant's gender was taken into account in the statistical analysis. The experimenter was required
187 to respond evenly with every participants and not adjust to the participants' performances.

188

189 Standard Simon

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195 Individual Go/nogo

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200 Social Go/nogo

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206 *Figure 2: Upper view of the experimental setups for the three tasks. In each task, the participant received two tactile stimuli*

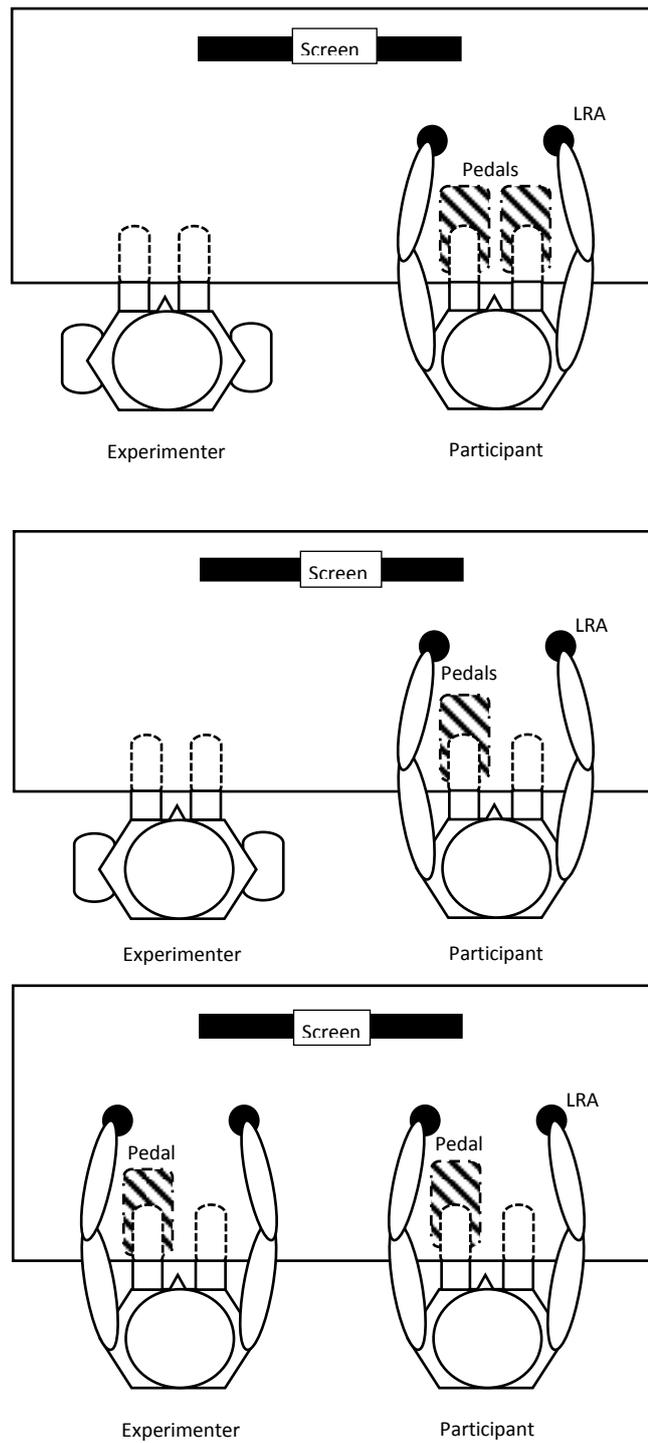
207 *from two LRA. Top: standard Simon task: The participant responded to two stimuli with two pedals; Middle: Individual*

208 *go/nogo task: The participant responded to only one stimulus with one pedal; Bottom: Social go/nogo task: The*

209 *experimenter and the participant each responded to a different stimuli with one pedal. The position of the response pedal in*

210 *the individual and social go/nogo tasks was counterbalanced across participants.*

211 *LRA : Linear Resonant Actuator*



212 At the end of the experiment, participants were asked to fill in the Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ)
213 questionnaire (Baron-Cohen et al., 2001). The AQ is a psychometric instrument used screen autistic-
214 like traits in the general population. The AQ focuses on questions related to social and
215 communicative skills, imagination and flexibility.

216 III. RESULTS

217 Response times and error were analyzed using repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVA)
218 with participants' gender as an adjustment factor to account for possible effects due to the fact that
219 the experimenter was always a female. Three ANOVA were conducted for each measure. Every
220 ANOVA had two within factors: the experimental task and the congruency of the trial. Congruent
221 trials were those where the stimulus appeared on the same side as the response pedal. Incongruent
222 trials were those where the stimulus appeared on the opposite side.

223 The experimental design included three tasks: the standard Simon task, the individual go/nogo task
224 and the social go/nogo task. To test whether there was a social Simon effect, we performed one
225 ANOVA that compared the social go/nogo task with the individual go/nogo task and another ANOVA
226 comparing the social go/nogo task with the standard Simon task. The social Simon effect entailed
227 that congruency would affect response times and errors in the standard Simon task and the social
228 go/nogo task, while it would not in the individual go/nogo task. We therefore hypothesized that the
229 ANOVA comparing the social go/nogo task with the individual go/nogo task would yield an
230 interaction between the task and congruency factors, but that no such interaction would be
231 observed in the ANOVA comparing the social go/nogo task with the standard Simon task. Post-hoc *t*-
232 test were performed using the Tukey procedure. The analyses were carried out with Statistica
233 software (www.statsoft.com).

234 Although the sequential order of the tasks had been counterbalanced across participants, we tested
235 for a possible order effect by adding an additional adjustment factor representing the order in which
236 tasks had been administered. Yet, the tasks' order did not yield any significant differences except for

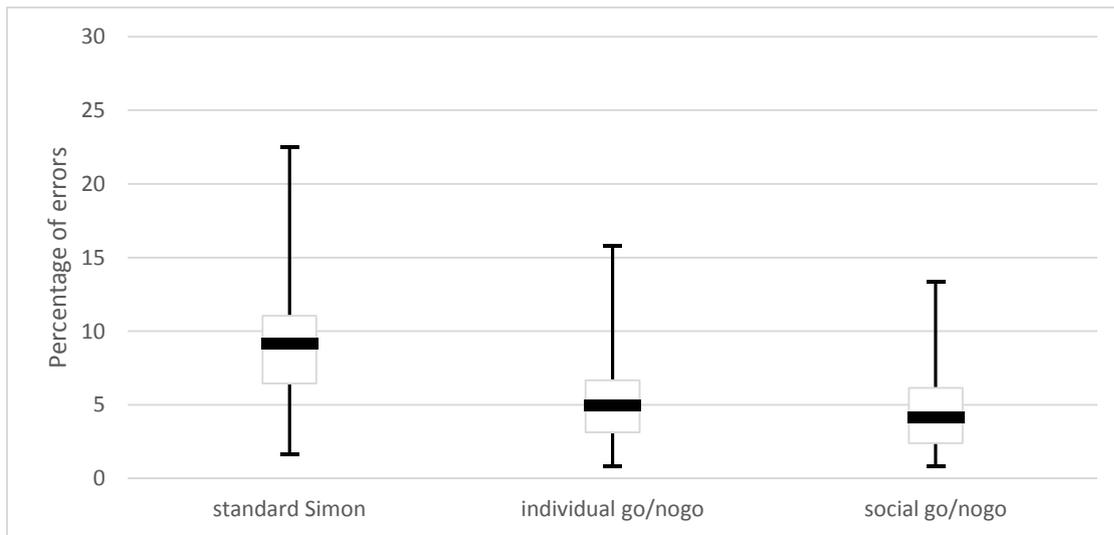
237 the percentage of errors in the ANOVA comparing the social go/nogo task with the standard Simon
238 task and, even in this case, this additional adjustment factor did not change the pattern of results.
239 Hence, to facilitate readability, we did not include this additional factor in the analyses presented
240 below.

241 *III.1 Number of errors*

242 We computed the percentage of erroneous trials in each task. A trial was considered erroneous
243 when the participant pressed the wrong pedal. There were generally few errors and thus the
244 distribution of the percentage of errors was skewed towards zero. To normalize the distribution, we
245 used a Box Cox transformation (Sakia, 1992) before applying the ANOVA. The ANOVA comparing the
246 individual go/nogo task with the social go/nogo task did not yield any significant main effect, nor
247 interaction between task and congruency, $F(1,26) = 0.52, p = 0.48, \eta_p^2 = 0.02$. The ANOVA comparing
248 the standard Simon task with the social go/nogo task revealed a significant main effect of task,
249 $F(1,26) = 16.08, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.38$. There were more errors in the standard Simon task
250 (median = 9.17%, interquartile range = 4.58%) than in the social go/nogo task (median = 4.17%,
251 interquartile range = 3.75%). There was no main effect of congruency, nor interaction between
252 congruency and task. The number of errors in each block is plotted in Figure 3.

253

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255

256 *Figure 3: The percentage of erroneous trials in each experimental tasks. As the distribution of data was not normal, boxplots*
 257 *were used to represent the median (horizontal bold lines), the 25th and 75th percentiles (boxes) and the minimum and*
 258 *maximum values (error bars)*

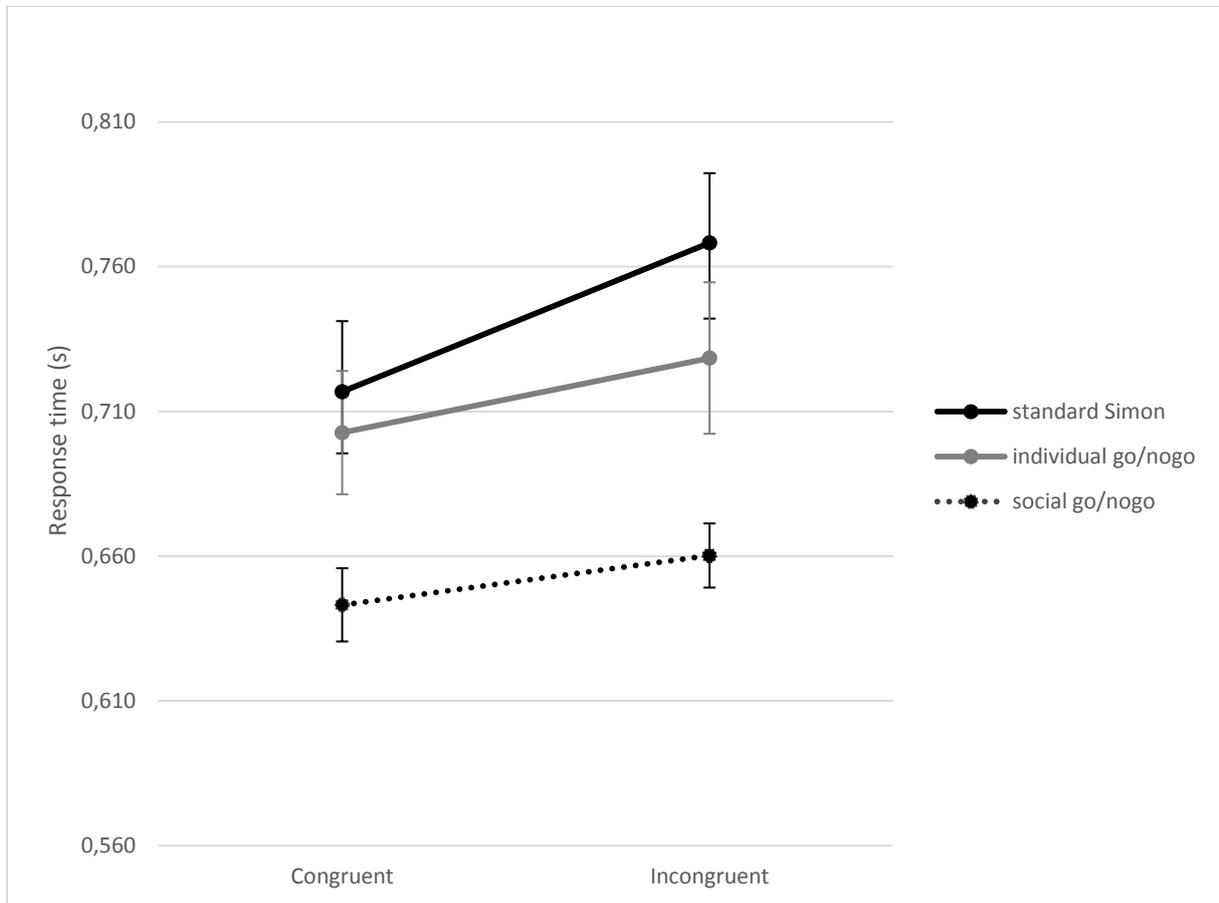
259 *III.2 Response Time*

260 The ANOVA comparing the individual go/nogo task with the social go/nogo task yielded main effects
 261 for the task factor, $F(1,26) = 14.61$ $p < 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.36$, and the congruency factor, $F(1,26) = 6.15$
 262 $p = 0.02$ $\eta^2 = 0.19$. Response times were longer in the individual go/nogo task (mean = 716ms,
 263 SE = 23ms) than in the social go/nogo task (mean = 652ms, SE = 11ms). Responses were shorter in
 264 the congruent trials (mean = 673ms, SE = 16ms) compared to the incongruent trials (mean = 694ms,
 265 SE = 17ms). The interaction between task and congruency was not significant, $F(1,26) = 0.258$
 266 $p = 0.62$ $\eta^2 < 0.01$. The ANOVA comparing the standard Simon task with the social go/nogo task
 267 showed main effects for task, $F(1,26) = 19.71$ $p < 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.43$, and congruency, $F(1,26) = 14.62$
 268 $p < 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.36$. There was also an interaction between task and congruency, $F(1,26) = 15.92$
 269 $p < 0.001$ $\eta^2 = 0.38$. The increase of response times due to congruency was larger in the standard
 270 Simon task (congruent: mean = 717ms, SE = 24ms; incongruent: mean = 768ms, SE = 24ms) than in
 271 the social go/nogo task (congruent: mean = 643ms, SE = 13ms; incongruent: mean = 660ms,
 272 SE = 11ms). Post-hoc *t*-test showed that the difference between congruent and incongruent trials
 273 was significant in each task (all $p < 0.05$). Response time data are shown in Figure 4.

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277

278 *Figure 4: Response times for congruent and incongruent trials in the three experimental tasks. Error bars represent standard*
279 *errors*

280

281 *III.3 Correlations with Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ) scores*

282 As explained earlier, we additionally sought to test whether the amplitude of the social Simon effect
283 would correlate with AQ scores. The AQ scores of the participants ranged from 7 to 35 (the maximum
284 possible score is 50) with a mean of 18.2 ($SD = 6.9$). The amplitude of the social Simon effect was
285 computed as the difference between response times in the incongruent and congruent trials.
286 Pearson's' correlation coefficients were not significant: $r = -0.03$ $p = 0.89$.

287 *III.4 Correlations with the experimenter's response times*

288 Given the unexpected shorter response times in the social go/nogo task, we conducted further
289 analyses to qualify the effect of the partnership. We correlated the response times of the
290 experimenter with those of the participants during this task. Pearson's correlation was significant,
291 $r = 0.87$ $p < 0.001$. We also verified whether there were significant differences in response times
292 between the experimenter and the participants during the social go/nogo task with a Student t-test.
293 The difference was not significant, $t(27) = 1.74$ $p = 0.09$.

294 IV. DISCUSSION

295 The results of the present study confirmed the existence of a Simon effect for tactile stimulations,
296 but they did not support our hypothesis of a reappearance of this effect when the action was
297 distributed between two partners. Participants responded faster to congruent trials than to
298 incongruent trials in the standard Simon task where they had to react to the two different
299 vibrotactile amplitudes. When comparing the individual and social versions of the go/nogo task
300 where participants responded to only one vibrotactile amplitude, we did not find the expected
301 difference in the effect of congruency. By contrast, the effect of congruency was superior in the
302 standard Simon condition compared to the social go/nogo condition. In other words, the influence of
303 congruency was reduced in the social go/nogo task to a degree that was not dissimilar to the
304 individual go/nogo task. Response times thus showed patterns that were opposite to what the social
305 Simon effect predicted. Given that our study was dimensioned according to previous studies carried
306 out with visual stimuli, this outcome tentatively suggests that the social Simon effect may depend on
307 the sensory modality of the stimuli. If so, a reduced social Simon effect in the tactile modality is not
308 well accounted for by the current theories explaining this effect. It may be that representing another
309 person's action within one's own sensory-motor system (Sebanz et al., 2003) or response coding
310 scheme (Dittrich, Bossert, Rothe-Wulf, & Klauer, 2017; Dolk et al., 2013) does not spontaneously
311 occur when stimulations are in the tactile sensory modality. The sense of touch is contingent on
312 one's local skin contact with an object. It is therefore more personal and does not yield a sensory

313 environment that can be straightforwardly shared. In the social go/nogo task of our experiment, the
314 two partners received the same vibrotactile stimulations, but they originated from different (although
315 identical) sources. The lack of shared sensory space may have hindered the natural tendency of
316 participants to activate sensory-motor representations of their partner's actions. This interpretation
317 is consistent with neural imaging evidence that emphasize the important role of shared attention
318 mechanisms in the social Simon effect (Costantini et al., 2013).

319 The Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ) did not correlate with the response time difference between the
320 incongruent and congruent trials in the social go/nogo condition. This result is not surprising given
321 the absence of a social Simon effect.

322 Despite the absence of the expected social Simon interference, the social go/nogo condition did have
323 an effect: Performances increased independently of the congruency of the stimuli, as shown by the
324 reduced response times in the social go/nogo task compared to the standard Simon and individual
325 go/nogo tasks. This decrease in response times did not come at the expense of accuracy. The
326 percentage of erroneous trials was actually lower in the social go/nogo task compared to the
327 standard Simon task.

328 One could argue that participants could have used a strategy whereby they relied on the
329 experimenter's responses, that is, responding only when the experimenter did not respond and
330 inhibiting their response when the experimenter responded. Such a strategy entails that participants
331 would have been waiting for the experimenter's response, or lack of response, before they would
332 initiate a response. If this was the case, then their response times would be superior to the upper
333 range of the experimenter's response times. However, response times of the participants were not
334 significantly different from those of the experimenter. Additionally, waiting for the experimenter's
335 response should have increased the cognitive load of the social go/nogo task compared to the
336 individual go/nogo task, which seems at odds with the fact that processing time was actually reduced
337 in the social go/nogo task.

338 Altogether, the data showed that performing the task with a partner boosted performances. A
339 similar result was reported in the study on the social Simon effect by Liepelt et al. (2011). The
340 performance boost observed in our experiment cannot be merely attributed by the attendance of
341 another person alongside the participant. Indeed, the experimenter sat next to the participants in
342 every experimental conditions. The only variation introduced by the social go/nogo condition was
343 that the experimenter took part in the task. The enhancing effect on performances in this condition
344 may be explained by the classical effect of social facilitation induced by engaging in the same activity
345 as a partner (Zajonc, 1965). Additionally, the response times of the participants correlated with those
346 of the experimenter. The participants and the experimenter thus appeared to have adjusted their
347 processing time when performing the task as partners. This observation tends to support the view of
348 social facilitation induced by the partnership.

349 In the present experiment, as participants were partnered with the experimenter in the social
350 go/nogo task, they may have considered her as a reference that they should try to match. This could
351 explain why their performances were boosted in the social go/nogo condition. Further research
352 would be warranted to verify whether or not the observed enhancement of performances in the
353 social go/nogo task would have also occurred if the partner had been another randomly selected
354 participant. Despite this limitation, the present study contributes to the current knowledge on joint
355 action by indicating that the social Simon effect may be hindered when the stimulations are in the
356 tactile modality. This outcome suggests that coordination between co-actors might be challenging in
357 this modality as their natural tendency to activate sensory-motor representations of their partner's
358 actions could to be less spontaneous than in other modalities. We tentatively attributed this failure
359 to a lack of shared sensory space. This hypothesis could be tested by future experiments in which the
360 tactile stimulations would be provided to the two partners via the same vibrotactile devices.

361 **Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

362 **Ethical approval:** All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in
363 accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and
364 with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.
365 Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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