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2 **Visuo-motor interference with a virtual partner is equally present in cooperative and competitive interactions**

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10
11 **Abstract**

12 Automatic imitation of observed actions is thought to be a powerful mechanism, one that may mediate the reward value
13 of interpersonal interactions, but that could also generate visuo-motor interference when interactions involve
14 complementary movements. Since interpersonal coordination seems to be crucial both when cooperating and competing
15 with others, the questions arises as to whether imitation - and thus visuo-motor interference - occurs in both scenarios.
16 To address this issue, we asked human participants to engage in high- or low-interactive (Interactive or Cued condition
17 respectively), cooperative or competitive, joint reach-to-grasps with a virtual partner. More specifically, interactions
18 occurred in: i) a Cued condition, where participants simply adapted their movement timing to synchronize with (during
19 cooperation) or anticipate (during competition) the virtual partner’s grasp; ii) an Interactive condition requiring the
20 same adaptation, as well as a real-time selection of their action according to the virtual character’s movement. In order
21 to simulate a realistic human-human interaction, the virtual character would change its movement speed in consecutive
22 trials according to participants’ behaviour. Results demonstrate that visuo-motor interference – as indexed by movement
23 kinematics (higher maximum wrist height during complementary compared to imitative power grips) - emerges in both
24 cooperative and competitive motor interactions only when predictions about the partner’s movements are needed in
25 order to perform one’s own action (Interactive condition). These results support the idea that simulative imitation is
26 heavily present when individuals need to match their behaviours closely.

27
28
29 **Keywords**

30 Cooperation, competition, motor interactions, mutual adjustment, visuo-motor interference, kinematics, reward.
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32

33 **Introduction**

34 Competition and cooperation are two basic forms of interpersonal interactions that profoundly differ in their execution
35 being the former mainly based on the anticipation of, and the latter mainly on synchronization with, the actions of the
36 partner. However, both forms require the ability to predict the partner's movements and to link one's own action goal to
37 that of the partner.

38 Behavioral and kinematic studies indicate that individual action execution can be affected by the observation of others'
39 actions, especially when we intentionally interact with them. Importantly, visuo-motor interference (that is the
40 automatic tendency to simulate other's movement when performing an action) between self-executed actions and those
41 observed in a partner might arise when visual information on the partner's movement is present (Kilner et al., 2003).
42 This could indicate that the partner's action is co-represented in one's own motor plan, meaning that we not only
43 represent the action that we need to perform but also our partner's action (Sebanz et al., 2006; Sacheli et al., 2015c) as
44 also suggested by a recent study showing that participants tend to imitate the kinematics of other's actions even when
45 this compromises the efficiency of their own movements (Forbes and Hamilton 2017). In support of this idea, studies
46 have shown that pair performance improves when participants can directly experience their partner's action during
47 cooperative motor interactions (Moreau et al., 2016). It is also worth noting that the process of automatically imitating
48 the behaviour of others seems to play a crucial role in the promotion of fundamental social phenomena such as group
49 affiliation (Hove and Risen, 2009), perhaps due to the intrinsic reward value of imitation (Walter et al., 2005). Yet the
50 tendency to imitate others' behavior seems to be present even when imitation is detrimental to the success of
51 competitive interactions (Cook et al., 2012; Belot et al., 2013; Naber et al., 2013). Naber et al., (2013), for example,
52 reported that in a competitive game, humans tended to imitate an opponent's behaviour when that behaviour was
53 visible. This is consistent with the idea that both cooperative and competitive motor interactions necessitate self-other
54 monitoring, which is the ability to guide actions in accordance with both one's own and others' goals (Decety and
55 Sommerville, 2004). Automatic imitation of observed actions is thus a powerful simulative mechanism that, on the one
56 hand, helps predict other's actions and establish social bonds, but, on the other, can also be detrimental to one's own
57 performance (Panasiti et al., 2017). The aim of this study is to investigate whether automatic imitation in cooperative
58 and competitive social contexts is driven by the need to predict other's actions.

59 More specifically, we investigated whether visuo-motor interference effects emerge in cooperative and competitive
60 contexts according to whether predictions about the partner's movements are needed to perform one's own action.
61 Participants had to synchronize their actions with the virtual character in the cooperative context and anticipate the
62 action of the virtual partner in the competitive one (Context factor). The task included two interactive conditions
63 (Interactivity factor) orthogonal to the main Cooperation vs Competition manipulation: i) a Cued condition in which
64 participants only had to adapt the timing of their movements in order to synchronize with (during cooperation) or
65 anticipate (during competition) the virtual partner's grasp, and, ii) an Interactive condition requiring the same adaptation
66 as in the Cued condition, plus a real-time selection of their action goal according to the virtual character's movement
67 (thus making their goal a shared one, dependent on the movement of their partner/competitor). A bottle-shaped object
68 was used for the grasping task. Participants in the Interactive condition did not know in advance whether they would
69 have to perform a precision grip on the upper part of the bottle or a power grip on the lower part of it, but they were
70 asked to either imitate (the same grip type, imitative condition, Interaction type factor) or complement (the opposite grip
71 type, complementary condition) the virtual character's actions.

72 In order to make the cooperative and competitive scenarios similarly difficult, we created a virtual partner who reacted
73 to the movements of its human partner (i.e. changing the speed of its movements in consecutive trials; see Material and

74 Methods). This manipulation created the need for mutual adaptation, a fundamental feature of human-human motor
75 interactions (Konvalinka and Roepstorff, 2012; Era et al. 2018), making our task ecologically valid for the study of
76 social motor interactions (Reader and Holmes, 2016).

77 We implemented the Cooperation/Competition and Interactive/Cued conditions in order to investigate whether: 1) the
78 observation of others' actions evokes automatic imitation to the same extent in cooperative and competitive contexts; 2)
79 visuo-motor interference is linked to the necessity of predicting someone else's actions. Recording action kinematics
80 allowed us to measure visuo-motor interference effects in complementary compared to imitative movements. More
81 specifically, we expected visuo-motor interference to be detected in both the reaching component (wrist height) and in
82 the pre-shaping component (grip aperture) of the joint grasping, when performing complementary actions (as shown in
83 Sacheli et al., 2012; 2015; 2018; Candidi et al., 2017). In more details, we expected that during the interactive
84 condition, when performing power grips, maximum wrist height would be higher during complementary compared to
85 imitative movements. Moreover, we expected that during the interactive condition maximum grip aperture would be
86 bigger when performing precision grips in complementary actions compared to imitative ones.

87

88 **Materials and Methods**

89 **Participants**

90 Sixteen participants (age 25.21 ± 3.28 , 8 males) were involved in the study. All participants were right-handed (as
91 confirmed by the Standard Handedness Inventory [Briggs and Nebes, 1975]), reported normal or corrected-to-normal
92 vision and were naive as to the purpose of the experiment. The experimental protocol was approved by the ethics
93 committee of the Fondazione Santa Lucia and was carried out in accordance with the ethical standards of the 1964
94 Declaration of Helsinki and later amendments. Participants gave their written informed consent to take part in the study
95 and were debriefed as to the purpose of the study at the end of the experimental procedures. Participants were
96 reimbursed 7 euros/h plus up to 10 extra euros depending on their performance during the interactive task (Win trials,
97 mentioned later).

98

99 **Stimuli**

100 The virtual partner was created in Maya 2011 (Autodesk, Inc.) by a customized Python script (Prof. Orvalho V.,
101 Instituto de Telecomunicacoes, Porto University) and the virtual scenario was designed in 3DS Max 2011(Autodesk,
102 Inc.). The virtual character moved according to the kinematics of a real actor's upper body [SMART-D motion capture
103 system (Bioengineering Technology & Systems (B|T|S))] (Tierl et al., 2015) that was recorded while performing 12
104 reach-to-grasp movements with the dominant right hand, 6 toward the upper part of the bottle (precision grip) and 6
105 toward the lower part (power grip). We thus implemented 12 different movements (six precision and six power grips),
106 that were included in the experimental task as experimental stimuli. The 3D position of 19 passive reflecting markers,
107 attached to the participant's upper body, including right hand, forearm shoulder and chest (see Tierl et al. 2015 for
108 further details) were recorded by means of a SMART-D motion capture system. Raw data were processed offline using
109 SMART-D modules to reconstruct and label the markers and to interpolate short missing parts of the trajectories. The
110 final processed human-kinematics were realized by using the commercial software MotionBuilder 2015 and 3DS Max
111 2015 (Autodesk Inc.) thanks to which the kinematics were implemented in a high-polygons 3D model of a caucasian
112 male upper body. To avoid virtual character facial expressions having any unwanted influence, participants could only
113 see it from the neck down. The duration of each clip (~2000 ms) was the same for up (precision grip) and down
114 movements (power grip). We created five different clips for each condition, each with a different avatar movement

115 duration. We did so by modifying the number of frames per second: 1600 ms; 1800 ms; 2000 ms; 2200 ms; 2400 ms. In
116 order to make the virtual character reactive to participants' behaviour on a trial-by-trial basis, participants were shown
117 stimuli with different durations according to their performance (see below). Each stimulus started with an unmoving
118 virtual character, its hands on the table. The virtual character started its movement a variable amount of time after the
119 auditory go signal (i.e. between 200 and 500 ms). The timing of its hand-object contact was calculated by a photodiode
120 on the screen displaying the videos that detected the appearance of a black dot pasted on the frame where the virtual
121 character touched the bottle.

122

123 **Interactive task**

124 We used an ecological and well-controlled human-avatar interactive task (Sacheli et al., 2015a; 2015b; Candidi et al.,
125 2017; Sacheli et al., 2018) that has been shown to recruit the same processes as human-human interaction, namely
126 mutual adjustment and automatic imitation (Sacheli et al., 2012; 2013; Candidi et al., 2015; Curioni et al., 2017). An
127 important feature of the task was that neither the interaction goal nor the participants' own action goal could be
128 achieved without considering the virtual partner's movements and adapting online to them. Participants sat at a table
129 with a bottle-shaped object placed 45 cm in front of them. A monitor positioned behind the bottle-shaped object showed
130 a virtual partner facing the participant. In front of this virtual partner was a virtual object identical to that of the
131 participants (Fig.1). Participants were asked to reach and grasp the bottle-shaped object placed in front of them. With
132 their index finger and thumb touching each other, they positioned their right hand over a start-button placed 40 cm from
133 the bottle-shaped object and 10 cm to the right of the table's midline. In order to record participants' touch-time on the
134 bottle, two pairs of touch-sensitive copper plates were placed at 15 cm and 23 cm of the object's height. Given the
135 shape of the object, the virtual character would either grasp the lower part with a whole-hand grasp (power grip), or the
136 upper part with a thumb-index finger precision grip. Participants were asked to perform opposite (complementary) or
137 same (imitative) movements with respect to those of the virtual partner. In the Imitative condition, participants had to
138 grasp the same part of the object with the same grasp type as the virtual partner. In the Complementary condition,
139 conversely, participants had to perform the opposite movement as the virtual partner (one grasping the upper part via
140 precision grip, the other grasping the lower part via power grip, or vice-versa) (Fig.1). In one of the two experimental
141 sessions, participants were instructed to grasp the object as synchronously as possible with their virtual partner
142 (Cooperative session). In the other (Competitive session), human participants were instructed to grasp the object before
143 the virtual partner (notably, the virtual character's movement speed changed according to the behaviour of its partner,
144 thus helping participants feel that their partner was actually competing). Moreover, participants were required in
145 separated blocks to: 1) on-line adapt to the partner's movement by performing either the same action or a different one
146 (Interactive coordination condition) without knowing in advance whether this would mean performing a precision grip
147 on the upper part or a power grip on the lower part; or 2) grasp the upper or lower part of the bottle-shaped object
148 regardless of what movement their partner performed (Cued coordination condition). In 20% of the trials, in order to
149 catch participant's attention, the virtual partner performed a movement correction (switching from a precision to a
150 power grip, or vice versa) during the reaching phase . These trials were excluded from the analyses.

151 The trial timeline (Fig.2) went as follows: participants would hear the Imitative/Complementary or Up/Down auditory
152 instruction, release the start button and reach-to-grasp the bottle-shaped object. Auditory instructions concerning the
153 movement to be executed were delivered to participants prior to each trial via headphones. For the cued condition, the
154 instructions consisted of two sounds having the same duration (200 ms) and different frequency: i) "high-pitched" ,
155 1479 Hz, indicating that participants had to grasp the upper part of the bottle, ii) "low-pitched", 115.5, Hz indicating that

156 participants had to grasp the lower part of the bottle. For the interactive condition, participants heard a voice
157 pronouncing the first two syllables of the Italian word opposite and same, lasting 200 ms each. When participants
158 started their movement before hearing the instruction, the trial was classified as a false start and discarded from the
159 analyses. At the end of each trial, participants would receive feedback about their performance (win/loss trial) by way
160 of green or red LED lights. A win trial meant that participants had followed their auditory instructions (i.e., correctly
161 performed complementary/imitative or up/down movements) and met the requirements of the respective sessions
162 (grasping synchrony in the cooperative, grasping before the virtual partner in the competitive in both the Cued and
163 Interactive conditions). The action was considered synchronous in the Cooperative session if the time-delay between
164 participant and virtual character index-thumb bottle contact-times fell within a given time-window. This time-window
165 was narrowed or widened on a trial-by-trial basis according to a stair-case procedure. Alternatively, the action was
166 considered fast enough to win a Competition trial when the participant touched the object a certain time-window before
167 the virtual partner. A stair-case procedure was used here as well to narrow or widen the time-window on a trial-by-trial
168 basis. This procedure allowed us to change the time-window so as to tailor the task difficulty to the specific
169 performance of each participant. In order to motivate the individual and create commitment to the task, participants
170 knew that their final monetary reward depended on the number of wins accumulated during the experimental sessions.
171 The intertrial interval was not fixed, but depended on the time participants took to go back from the bottle to the starting
172 position. Indeed, the experimenter manually moved to the next trial as soon as participants went back to the starting
173 position and pressed the start button.

174 Cooperation and competition mean participants must perform two completely different behaviours: synchronize to the
175 partner's movements while cooperating, and anticipate the partner's movements while competing. In order to make the
176 two tasks equally difficult, the virtual partner adapted the duration of its movements according to the participant's
177 performance. It did so in two different ways: in the Cooperative session, the virtual character modified its velocity (by
178 increasing or reducing it) after two consecutive trials in which participant's asynchrony was smaller than the assigned
179 value. It did so for a third trial. If no such trend occurred, the virtual character's movement velocity remained
180 unchanged. This was done in order to make the virtual character's movements more predictable to poorly performing
181 participants (the virtual character was "committing" more to smooth the interaction) and less predictable to well
182 performing participants, as it has been shown that making one's own behaviour more predictable helps to simplify
183 coordination during joint-actions (Vesper et al., 2010 for a review). In the Competitive session, instead, the virtual
184 partner got faster on the third trial following two consecutive trials in which participants had grasped the object before
185 the virtual character by more milliseconds than the assigned value; conversely, when participants grasped the object
186 after the virtual character by more milliseconds than the assigned value for two consecutive trials, the virtual partner
187 became slower on the following trial. The virtual partner's velocity remained the same in the rest of the trials. Thus the
188 virtual character was more "competitive" with participants who had performed better in previous trials. In general, these
189 modifications allowed us to tailor the task difficulty according to the performance of each participant in both the
190 Cooperative and Competitive sessions. Movements were always performed with the right, dominant hand. It is worth
191 noting that in both the interactive and the cued conditions the virtual partner's movements could not be ignored because
192 participants needed to start their movements after the virtual partner started moving. Even more importantly, they
193 needed to anticipate (competition) or synchronize with (cooperation) the movements of the virtual partner. Thus,
194 participants always acted as followers, meaning that they always started moving after the virtual partner, as in situations
195 in which the Guslinger effect is investigated. This effect consists in an advantage in action execution when participants
196 react to the movement of another person in comparison to when they start moving. Interestingly, such an effect is

197 present in both cooperative and competitive situations (Weller et al, 2018). Participants performed one 112-trial
198 Cooperative and one 112-trial Competitive session (in a counterbalanced order between participants). In each session,
199 participants performed 14 x 2 (Complementary/Imitative) x 2 (Precision/Power grip) x 2 (Interactive/Cued) trials.
200 Stimuli presentation and randomization were controlled by E-Prime2 software (Psychology Software Tools Inc.,
201 Pittsburgh, PA).

202

203 **Kinematics Recording**

204 Reflective infrared markers (5 mm diameter) were attached to participants' right upper limbs at the following points: i)
205 thumb, ulnar side of the nail, ii) index finger, radial side of the nail and iii) wrist, dorso-distal aspect of the radial styloid
206 process. Movement kinematics were recorded with a SMART-D motion capture system [Bioengineering Technology &
207 Systems (B|T|S)]. Four infrared cameras with wide-angle lenses (sampling rate 100 Hz) placed about 100 cm away from
208 each of the table's four corners captured the movement of the markers in 3D space. When calibrating the motion
209 capture system, in order to ensure an accurate reconstruction of the 3D space where the interaction took place, the
210 standard deviation of the reconstruction error was always lower than 0.5 mm for the three axes.

211

212 **Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis**

213 Excluded from the analyses were those trials in which participants i) missed the touch-sensitive copper-plates,
214 preventing a response from being recorded, ii) released the start button before the "go" instruction, or iii) did not respect
215 their complementary/imitative or up/down instructions (on average, excluded trials = $8.31 \pm 5.4\%$ of total).

216 *Behavioral measures*

- 217 1. Accuracy, i.e. number of movements executed correctly (according to the instructions, data were coded as "0" and
218 "1", meaning inaccurate and accurate respectively);
- 219 2. Reaction Times (RTs), i.e. time from the go-signal to the release of the start button (Participants were told that
220 they could start their movements as soon as the avatar started moving. The "go signal" was thus the moment in
221 which the avatar started moving);
- 222 3. Grasping Asynchrony (GAsynchr), i.e. absolute value of time delay between the participant's and virtual
223 character's index-thumb contact-times on the bottle-shaped object (for the Cooperative session), and time delay
224 (with algebraic sign) between the participant's and virtual character's index-thumb contact-times on the bottle-
225 shaped object (for the Competitive session). We corrected GAsynchr values trial-by-trial in order to take the
226 changes in virtual character's movement velocity into account for the computation of GAsynchr. More
227 specifically, since interacting with a faster (Competition) or less predictable (Cooperation) virtual partner would
228 make the interaction more difficult in comparison to interacting with a slower (Competition) or more predictable
229 (Cooperation) one, we corrected GAsynchr values, in order to avoid this bias in the analysis of participant's
230 performance. More specifically, in the Cooperative session, we applied a 20 ms bonus (i.e. we subtracted 20 ms
231 from GAsynchr) every time the virtual character changed its velocity, thus becoming more difficult to predict. In
232 the Competitive session, instead, we subtracted from or added to GAsynchr, depending on whether the participant
233 had anticipated or lagged behind the virtual competitor, a number of ms equal to the difference between the
234 duration of the standard clip (2000 ms) and the one actually presented to the participant. In other words, when
235 participants were presented with a clip lasting 1800 ms, we subtracted 200 ms from GAsynchr (i.e. bonus for
236 performance on faster clips), while we added 400 ms to GAsynchr when participants were presented with a clip
237 lasting 2400 ms (i.e. malus on performance for slower clips).

238 We calculated the individual mean value in each condition for each of these behavioral measures. The resultant values
239 were entered in different within-subject ANOVAs (see below).

240

241 *Motion kinematics analysis*

242 Motion tracking was continuously recorded during the experimental blocks. Participants' start button hand release-
243 times and index-thumb bottle contact-times were then used to subdivide the kinematics recordings into segment
244 corresponding to the reach-to-grasp phase (from start button hand-release to index-thumb contact-times). We then
245 analyzed:

- 246 1. Wrist trajectory as indexed by the maximum peak of wrist height on the vertical plane (*Maximum Wrist Height*) for
247 specific information on the movement's reaching component;
- 248 2. Maximum grip aperture (*Maximum Grip Aperture*, i.e., the maximum peak of index-thumb 3D Euclidean distance)
249 for specific information on the movement's grasping component. One participant was excluded from the Maximum
250 Grip Aperture analysis because of recording problems.

251 At the trial level, behavioral or kinematic values that fell 2.5 SDs above or below each individual mean for each
252 experimental condition were excluded as outliers. GAsynchr was computed as an absolute value in the Cooperative
253 session, while in the Competitive session it retained the algebraic sign. Thus two different ANOVAs on GAsynchr were
254 performed, one for each session. These ANOVAs had INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE
255 (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT (Power/Precision grip) factors (see below). All the other behavioural and
256 kinematic indexes were analysed through repeated measures ANOVAs with CONTEXT (Cooperative/Competitive) x
257 INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT
258 (Power/Precision grip) factors (i.e., 2x2x2x2 within-subject design) (see below). We used non-parametric tests with
259 regard to Accuracy. All tests of significance were based on an α level of 0.05. Post-hoc tests were performed using the
260 Newman-Keuls method when appropriate. Statistical analyses were performed using Statistica 8 software (StatSoft).

261 We also measured for Win trials, or the number of correct trials in which Grasping Asynchrony was below the
262 threshold time-window (and which corresponded to the amount of money earned at the end of the experiment).

263 In order to appropriately test the evidence for null results (Jarosz & Wiley, 2014; Masson, 2011; Rouder, 2014;
264 Wagenmakers, 2007) we ran Bayesian Paired Sample T Tests on participants' Maximum Wrist Height, as well as on the
265 Win trials in Cooperative and Competitive Contexts (JASP version 0.8.12, Love et al., 2015).

266

267 **Results**

268 *Behavioral measures*

269 GAsynchr was computed as an absolute value in the Cooperative session, while in the Competitive session it retained
270 the algebraic sign. We thus performed two different ANOVAs on GAsynchr, one for each session. The ANOVAs had
271 INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT
272 (Power/Precision grip) factors. Data were normalized on the individual grand mean and s.d. (Z-transformation) because
273 of Normality violations in the GAsynchr data's distribution.

274

275 *Grasping Asynchrony*

276 *Cooperative session*

277 The ANOVA on GAsynchr did not show any significant main effects or interactions (all $P_s > 0.13$).

278

279 *Competitive session*

280 The ANOVA on GASynchr showed a significant main effect of INTERACTIVITY ($F(1,15) = 34776, P < 0.001, \eta^2 =$
281 0.99), indicating that participants performed worse (i.e. higher GASynchr) in the Interactive condition than the Cued
282 one. The ANOVA on GASynchr also showed a significant INTERACTION TYPE x MOVEMENT interaction ($F(1,15)$
283 $= 124.71, P < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.89$). Post-hoc tests indicated that when grasping the lower part of the bottle and
284 performing complementary actions, participants performed worse than when grasping the upper part of the bottle ($P <$
285 0.001) and performing imitative movements ($P < 0.001$). On the other hand, when grasping the upper part of the bottle
286 and performing imitative actions, participants performed worse than when grasping the lower part of the bottle ($P <$
287 0.001) and performing complementary movements ($P < 0.001$).

288

289 *Accuracy*

290 Accuracy did not differ across conditions (Chi sqr = 13.97, $P = 0.53$).

291

292 *Reaction Times*

293 The CONTEXT (Cooperative/Competitive) x INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE
294 (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT (Power/Precision grip) ANOVA on Reaction Times showed a significant
295 main effect of CONTEXT ($F(1,15) = 13.16, P = 0.002, \eta^2 = 0.47$), indicating that participants started moving later in the
296 Cooperative session than in the Competitive one. The ANOVA also showed a significant main effect of
297 INTERACTIVITY ($F(1,15) = 34.16, P < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.69$) explained by longer Reaction Times in the Interactive
298 condition than in the Cued one. Moreover, the ANOVA on Reaction Times showed a significant INTERACTION
299 TYPE x MOVEMENT interaction ($F(1,15) = 9.07, P = 0.008, \eta^2 = 0.38$). Post-hoc tests showed reaction times were
300 slower when performing precision grips as opposed to power ones during the imitative condition ($P = 0.023$) but not the
301 complementary one ($P = 0.46$).

302

303 *Win trials*

304 We computed the means of the win trials in both Cooperative and Competitive contexts. We ran a Bayesian Paired
305 Sample T Test on the difference between win trials in the Cooperative and Competitive contexts that showed moderate
306 evidence in favour of the null hypothesis ($BF_{10} = 0.29$). Win trials were thus similar in cooperative and competitive
307 contexts.

308

309 *Kinematics measures*

310 *Maximum Wrist Height*

311 The CONTEXT (Cooperative/Competitive) x INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE
312 (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT (Power/Precision grip) ANOVA on Maximum Wrist Height showed a
313 significant INTERACTIVITY x INTERACTION TYPE x MOVEMENT interaction ($F(1,15) = 10.52, P = 0.005, \eta^2 =$
314 0.41). Post-hoc tests indicated that when performing power grips during the interactive conditions, maximum wrist
315 height was higher during complementary than imitative movements ($P < 0.001$). In the cued condition, maximum wrist
316 height did not differ for complementary and imitative movements ($P = 0.53$) (Fig.3). In line with previous studies
317 (Sacheli et al., 2012; 2013; 2015 a; 2015b; Candidi et al., 2015; Curioni et al., 2017), this result highlights the presence
318 of visuo-motor interference between self-executed actions and those observed in the partner as an index of automatic

319 imitation. All lower-level interactions and main effects (reported in Table 1) were accounted for by this higher order
320 interaction.

321 In sum, results from the Maximum Wrist Height analyses showed that visuo-motor interference effects were present in
322 both cooperative and competitive contexts. In order to test the null effect of CONTEXT over the wrist interference
323 effect, we calculated visuo-motor interference effect indexes separately for Cooperative and Competitive contexts by
324 subtracting the means of Maximum Wrist Height in imitative trials when performing power grips from those in
325 complementary trials. We ran a Bayesian Paired Sample T Test between visuo-motor Interference indexes for
326 Cooperative and Competitive contexts. They showed moderate support of the null hypothesis ($BF_{10} = 0.29$). Visuo-
327 motor interference effects were thus similar in cooperative and competitive contexts.

328

329 *Maximum Grip Aperture*

330 The CONTEXT (Cooperative/Competitive) x INTERACTIVITY (Interactive/Cued) x INTERACTION TYPE
331 (Complementary/Imitative) x MOVEMENT (Power/Precision grip) ANOVA on Maximum Grip Aperture (index-
332 thumb) showed a significant main effect of INTERACTIVITY ($F(1,14) = 46.36, P < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.77$), indicating a
333 larger maximum grip aperture in interactive than cued actions. As expected, this analysis also showed a significant main
334 effect of MOVEMENT ($F(1,14) = 351.41, P < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.77$), indicating that performing precision grips resulted in
335 smaller maximum grip aperture than power grips. The ANOVA on Maximum Grip Aperture also showed a significant
336 CONTEXT x INTERACTIVITY interaction ($F(1,14) = 11.7, P = 0.004, \eta^2 = 0.46$). Post-hoc tests indicated that
337 during competitive interactions, maximum grip aperture was larger in the Interactive condition than the Cued one ($P <$
338 0.001). Moreover, during the Interactive condition, maximum grip aperture was larger in the Competitive than the
339 Cooperative context ($P = 0.002$), while while there was no such difference between the two contexts in the Cued
340 condition ($P = 0.29$). No other main effect or interaction reached statistical significance (all P s > 0.1).

341

342 **Discussion**

343 In the present study we investigated whether visuo-motor interference effects during cooperative and competitive motor
344 interaction are linked to the necessity of predicting someone else's actions. Results showed that the automatic imitation
345 of the partner's action during complementary motor interactions emerges in both cooperative and competitive social
346 contexts, as indexed by comparable visuo-motor interference effects. However, this effect is specific for conditions that
347 require making predictions about the partner's goals (Interactive condition).

348 *Visuo-motor interference during cooperative and competitive interactions.*

349 Individuals must predict their partner's actions during real life motor interactions that involve a shared goal. They must
350 then use that prediction to plan and adjust their own actions so as to achieve that shared goal (Sebanz et al., 2006).
351 When dancing tango, for example, which is a cooperative context, the dancers need to predict and adapt to each other in
352 order to perform the choreography fluidly. When playing football, a competitive context, the goalkeeper and offensive
353 player must predict one another's action in order to anticipate that action and "beat them to" the shared goal.
354 Importantly, motor interactions are characterized by the emergence of dynamic, real-time, mutual adaptations supported
355 by the continuous integration of predictions about one's own and other's actions. This type of integration process allows
356 inter-actors to adjust their movements mutually on a moment-to-moment basis (Hasson and Frith, 2016) and thus
357 achieve shared goals that depend on the goal of the other individual regardless of whether they are cooperative or

358 competitive. Indeed, no type of goal would be achieved if individuals were to ignore the others' movements (Sacheli et
359 al., 2015c).

360 In order to successfully predict what other people will do next (Frith and Frith 2006) it is necessary to read the
361 kinematics of their ongoing movement (Krishnan-Barman et al., 2017; Ansuini et al., 2014; Reader et al., 2018). The
362 kinematics of our actions differ depending on whether we perform actions with a social or non-social intention (Ansuini
363 et al., 2008). Social context also plays a major role. For example, participant pairs requested to reach and grasp an
364 object and place it on the table together (cooperative condition) or one before the other (competitive condition) showed
365 two different kinematics profiles in the reach to grasp phase for the two interactive contexts (Georgiou et al., 2007).
366 Moreover, motion kinematics information is sufficient for people to determine whether someone is grasping an object
367 with a cooperative or competitive intent (Manera et al., 2011).

368 In this study we investigated whether the automatic imitation of someone else's actions are modulated by cooperative
369 and competitive social contexts that imply the real-time prediction of the other's movements. In particular, we explored:
370 i) whether visuo-motor interference effects that have been demonstrated to emerge during cooperative motor interaction
371 also emerge in competitive ones, and ii) whether these effects are specific to situations in which action prediction and
372 adaptation are needed (Interactive condition) as opposed to when these predictions may be neglected (Cued condition).

373 One main result of the present study is that the automatic imitation of the partner's movements (possibly relying on
374 sensorimotor simulation) during complementary motor interactions emerges in both cooperative and competitive social
375 contexts, as indexed by comparable visuo-motor interference effects. However, this effect is specific for conditions that
376 require making predictions about the partner's goals (Interactive condition). More specifically, the present results on
377 maximum wrist height showed that visuo-motor interference effects (Kilner et al., 2003) between self-executed actions
378 and those observed in the partner emerged in both cooperative and competitive contexts only during the Interactive
379 condition. This evidence strengthens the link between motor simulation, automatic imitation and action prediction in
380 interactive contexts (Sacheli et al., 2015b; Candidi et al., 2014; Aglioti et al., 2008; Abreu et al., 2017, Chinellato et al.,
381 2014, Ménoret et al., 2013). Although we expected to find visuo-motor interference effects in both maximum wrist
382 height and maximum grip aperture, the fact that they were present only in maximum wrist height might be due to the
383 fact that visuo-motor interference effects seem to be more stable in the reaching component (as indexed by maximum
384 wrist height) in comparison to the pre-shaping component (as indexed by maximum grip aperture). This is in keeping
385 with another study using the same experimental task (Sacheli et al., 2013) and reporting visuo-motor interference
386 effects in maximum wrist height but not maximum grip aperture.

387 At the behavioral level, the fact that participants achieved an equal level of performance during complementary and
388 imitative interactions is in line with previous studies showing that complementary interactions are not more difficult
389 than imitative ones (Ocampo and Kritikos, 2010; Sacheli et al., 2012; 2013). This is different from what happens in the
390 imitation inhibition tasks (Brass et al., 2000) where participants perform actions at the same time, but do not need to
391 predict the partner's action in order to perform one's own. In this type of task performing incongruent actions is usually
392 more difficult than performing congruent ones. While the present results are in line with previous studies showing that
393 imitative behavior also emerges when people compete with others (Cook et al., 2012; Belot et al., 2013; Naber et al.,
394 2013), this is the first time that visuo-motor interference effect has been investigated during realistic competitive motor
395 interactions in which the goal of the individual action is linked to that of the interacting partner. Moreover, in order to
396 make the human-avatar interaction more realistic, we created a virtual partner who could react to the movements of its
397 human partner, thus preserving the feature of mutual adaptation shown to be a fundamental feature of human-human
398 motor interactions (Era et al., 2018, Konvalinka and Roepstorff, 2012).

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Visuo-motor interference is linked to the rewarding value of interpersonal interactions.

In the present study, we adjusted the difficulty of the interaction so that participants could obtain a similar number of win trials in cooperative and competitive contexts. This might imply that the two contexts elicited a comparably rewarding experience in participants and may also explain why visuo-motor interference was comparable in the two interactive contexts.

It is worth noting that behaving in social contexts entails a reward value for individuals. Activations in the reward-related brain regions - and particularly in the ventral striatum - have been seen when people act in social situations characterized by mutual contingency between the co-agents. Examples include acting in synchrony (Miles, et al., 2009), engaging in direct eye contact (Pfeiffer et al., 2014; Redcay et al., 2010; Schilbach et al., 2010) or cooperating with others (Rilling et al., 2002). A recent study showed that observing social interactions characterized by shared intentions recruits reward-related areas such as the bilateral ventral striatum, while the observation of actions guided by parallel intentions does not (Eskenazi et al., 2015). Thus, not only does interacting with others generate a rewarding experience, but a comparable rewarding experience emerges when observing others interacting (Eskenazi et al., 2015). This rewarding experience might reinforce our motivation to engage in social interactions with others. Several studies have showed that positive interactions generate higher trustworthiness (Fehr and Fischbacher, 2004). Research on joint action in humans has shown that inducing trust in individuals before they engage in joint-action leads to them having higher heart-rate synchrony during interaction, which may be a physiological marker of interpersonal trust (Mitkidis et al., 2015).

Behavioral and kinematic studies (Wang and Hamilton 2012, for a review) have indicated that automatic imitation is a fundamental mechanism that shapes the way we interact with others. We (unconsciously) tend to mimic others' behavior, and this tendency also influences the relationship among the inter-actors: people who mimic each other more are more likely to engage in positive social interactions (Lakin and Chartrand, 2003; Lakin et al., 2003; Kämpf et al., 2017). Studies on cooperative joint-actions have shown that automatic imitation in the form of visuo-motor interference emerges when participants are performing complementary movements (Sacheli et al., 2012; 2013; 2015a; Candidi et al., 2015; 2017; Curioni et al., 2017). Importantly, this only seems to happen when it is necessary to predict the partner's movements in order to adapt to them (Sacheli et al., 2015b). Interestingly, visuo-motor interference also seems to be influenced by the social interpersonal relationship between interacting agents: when interacting with a negative interpersonal bond, participants do less mapping of others' behavior onto ones' own sensorimotor system (Sacheli et al., 2012). Similarly, automatic imitation in participants with a negative bias towards the out-group is reduced when interacting with an out-group partner (Sacheli et al., 2015b). These studies suggest that the reward value of motor interactions shapes the way people interact with each other. Accordingly, a recent study on patients with Parkinson's disease - studied as a model of dysfunctional dopaminergic system - showed that patients not taking dopaminergic medication were unable to differentiate their motor behaviour both when acting in isolation or in social conditions, regardless of whether they were cooperative or competitive contexts (Straulino et al., 2016). This result supports the hypothesis that the dopaminergic reward system is involved in shaping the mechanisms that underlie social interactions (Pfeiffer et al., 2014).

Conclusion

438 By using a mutually adaptive human-avatar interactive grasping set-up and measuring behavioral and motion
439 kinematics indexes, we showed, for the first time during naturalistic motor interactions, that visuo-motor interference
440 effects (possibly underpinned by sensorimotor simulation) are linked to the need to predict someone else's motor
441 behavior during motor interactions. Importantly, these visuo-motor interference effects are comparable when
442 cooperating or competing with others, which hints at the pervasiveness of simulative imitation in interactions.

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445 **Compliance with Ethical Standards:**

446 Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

447 Ethical approval: All procedures performed in study involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical
448 standards of the institutional research committee (Fondazione Santa Lucia) and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and
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450 Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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662 Figure and Table Legends

663 **Table1**

664 Results of the ANOVA on Maximum Wrist Height.

666 **Figure 1**

667 Participants were asked to reach and grasp the bottle-shaped object placed in front of them. They needed to perform
668 opposite (complementary) or same (imitative) movements with respect to the virtual partner. In the Imitative
669 movements condition, participants had to grasp the same portion of the object as the virtual partner (both performing
670 power or precision grips on the lower or upper part of the bottles, respectively, drawings highlighted in violet). In the
671 Complementary movement's condition, conversely, participants had to perform movements opposite to those of the

672 virtual partner (one grasping the upper part via precision grip, the other grasping the lower part via power grip, or vice-
673 versa, drawings highlighted in green). Moreover, in one of the experimental sessions, participants were instructed to
674 grasp the object as synchronously as possible with their virtual partner (Cooperative session, uppermost drawings). In
675 another experimental session (Competitive session, lowermost drawings), participants were instructed to grasp the
676 object before the virtual partner.

677

678 **Figure 2**

679 Trial timeline

680 Participants would hear the Imitative/Complementary or Up/Down auditory instruction, release the start button and
681 reach-to-grasp the bottle-shaped object. At the end of each trial, participants would receive feedback about their
682 performance (win/loss trial) by way of green or red LED lights. A win trial meant that participants had followed their
683 auditory instructions (i.e., correctly performed complementary/imitative or up/down movements) and met the
684 requirements of the respective sessions (grasping synchrony in the cooperative (green frame), grasping before the
685 virtual partner in the competitive (red frame))

686

687

688 **Figure 3**

689 Graph of Maximum Wrist Height Results: The ANOVA showed a significant INTERACTIVITY x INTERACTION
690 TYPE x MOVEMENT interaction ($F(1,15) = 10.52$, $P = 0.005$, $\eta^2 = 0.41$). Post-hoc tests indicated that when
691 performing power grips during the interactive conditions, maximum wrist height was higher during complementary than
692 imitative movements ($P < 0.001$). This result highlights the presence of visuo-motor interference between self-executed
693 actions and those observed in the partner as an index of automatic imitation.

694

695 **Figure 4**

696 Graph of Reaction Times Results

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698 **Figure 5**

699 Graph of Grasping Asynchrony Results

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702

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711

712 **Authors contribution:**

713 Designed research: VE, SMA, MC; Performed research: VE, CM; Analyzed data: VE, CM, MC; Wrote the paper: VE,
714 SMA, MC.
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716