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**Reliability of Self-Prioritization Effect as Measured by the Perceptual Matching Task: Evidence from Multiple Datasets**

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# **Abstract**

The self-prioritization effect (SPE) refers to the effect that performance on cognitive tasks is better when stimuli are related to the self than when they are not. In the last decade, the self -perceptual matching task (SPMT) has emerged as a mainstream paradigm for studying SPE due to its simplicity and elimination of familiarity effects. As a simple button-pressing task, SPMT yields two outcomes: reaction time and accuracy. Other indices can be derived from reaction times and accuracy, including sensitivity d prime under signal-detection theory, the efficiency index through a direct division between reaction times and accuracy, and drift rate (v) and starting point (z) estimated using drift-diffusion models. All these indices have been used to quantify SPE in the literature. However, the reliability of these SPE indices remains unexplored. To address this research gap, we conducted a pre-registered study wherein we re-analyzed existing data from 18 datasets using the split-half reliability and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). Our findings demonstrate that response time and efficiency exhibit consistently high test-retest reliability and split-half reliability across multiple datasets. The ICC results suggest that all the indices related to SPE in the SPMT are more suitable for group-level analysis rather than assessing individual-level variation. These findings establish a benchmark for future investigations utilizing the SPMT and underscore the limitations of accuracy-based measures, which should be considered when employing the SPMT as an assessment tool.

Keywords: Self-Prioritization Effect (SPE), Self-Perceptual Matching Task (SPMT), Reliability, Multiverse

# **1 Introduction**

The Self-Prioritization Effect (SPE) refers to the phenomenon whereby performance in cognitive tasks is better when stimuli are related to the self than when they are not. This effect has been widely documented and confirmed since the 1950s. In the early days of cognitive psychology, researchers found that subjects were able to recognize their own names, even when they were mixed with a noisy auditory background and not the target of the task in dichotic listening tasks (Cherry, 1953; Moray, 1959). SPE effect was then reported in memory research by Craik and Tulving (1975), who found that participants were able to recall more words when they were related to the self compared to when they were processed at other levels (e.g., semantic). This SPE effect in memory was then replicated by many others (Conway & Dewhurst, 1995; Rogers et al., 1977; Symons & Johnson, 1997). In the following decades, the SPE has also been found to occur with different stimuli, such own face (Keenan et al., 2000; Kircher et al., 2000; Turk et al., 2002), own voice (Hughes & Harrison, 2013; Payne et al., 2021), own name (Constable, Rajsic, et al., 2019), and newly owned object (Strachan et al., 2020). SPE was found across a variety of cognitive tasks, such as perceptual task (Cunningham & Turk, 2017; Desebrock et al., 2018), decision-making task (Sui & Humphreys, 2013), attentional task (Shapiro et al., 1997), and ownership task (Cunningham et al., 2008).

Although SPE is often argued to be a self-specific effect, it can be challenging to disassociate it from the familiarity effect since most studies use stimuli owned by participants or by others. Sui et al. (2012) proposed a paradigm where participants first associate geometrical shapes (e.g., triangle, square, and circle) with labels of persons (e.g., "You," "friend," and "stranger") and then perform a perceptual matching task in which they decide if the shape-label pairs presented on the screen match the learned association or not (Sui et al., 2012). Because the task requires participants to learn the social meaning of different geometric shapes, it is called the Self-Perceptual Matching Task (SPMT). In this task, Sui et al. (2012) found that shapes associated with the self are performed better, with faster response times, better accuracy, and/or higher sensitivity scores, compared to shapes associated with friends and strangers. Because the self-relatedness is acquired immediately right before they start the perceptual matching task, this paradigm eliminated the effect of familiarity of the stimuli.

Since then, the SPMT has become the mainstream method for investigating the mechanism underlying the SPE. For instance, researchers have explored the importance of personality traits in identity labels (Golubickis et al., 2020), the self-relevant labels that include the past, present, and future self (Golubickis et al., 2017), as well as "good self" and "bad self" labels (Hu et al., 2020), and the group advantage effect of in-group labels (Constable, Elekes, et al., 2019; Constable & Knoblich, 2020; Enock et al., 2018; Enock et al., 2020). Moreover, the SPMT has been applied to various fields. In neuroscience and physiology, researchers investigate which brain regions are activated during self-prioritization effect (Feng et al., 2018; Humphreys & Sui, 2015), and gender differences in self-prioritization effect due to oxytocin (Feng et al., 2020). In clinical research, SPMT has been used to understand atypical self-processing in populations such as those with autism or depression (Gillespie‐Smith et al., 2018; Nijhof & Bird, 2019; Sui & Humphreys, 2017). Cross-cultural studies have shown that individuals from individualistic cultures demonstrate a stronger self-prioritization effect (Jiang et al., 2019), and that the language of the experimental stimuli can affect the strength of the effect (Ivaz et al., 2016). Finally, the SPMT has also been applied to child development, with studies examining developmental changes in self-positivity effects (Maire et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2019).

While SPMT has gained widespread adoption as a prominent method for investigating the underlying mechanism of the self-prioritization effect, there has been microscopic examination and report of the psychometric properties of the outcomes, necessitating a careful evaluation. (Parsons et al., 2019; Zorowitz & Niv, 2023). Given the increasing use of SPMT to assess individual differences in fields such as psychiatry (Liu et al., 2022) and social psychology (Enock et al., 2018). it is crucial to ensure a high degree of measurement consistency to accurately assess human perceptual abilities (Parsons et al., 2019). Furthermore, in tasks as simple as the SPMT, there are multiple approaches to quantify the self-prioritization effect. These include two direct measures based on SPMT, namely reaction times (RT) and accuracy (ACC), as well as derived measures such as efficiency (Humphreys & Sui, 2015; Stoeber & Eysenck, 2008), *d* prime of Signal Detection Theory (SDT) (Hu et al., 2020; Sui et al., 2012), and drift rate (*v*) and starting point (*z*) from Drift Diffusion Model (DDM) (Golubickis et al., 2017).

To address the existing research gap, the present study aimed to investigate the

reliability of self-prioritization effect (SPE) indices in the self-perceptual matching task (SPMT). In order to comprehensively assess the SPE indices derived from SPMT, we examined six indices as mentioned earlier, that capture the disparity between self-related and other-related stimuli of the matching trials. This was achieved by reanalyzing data obtained from previous studies that employees SPMT. Given the diverse methods available for evaluating the reliability of cognitive tasks, we employed both the Split-Half Reliability and Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) to determine the reliability of each SPE index. These findings aim to provide valuable insights into the reliability and consistency of SPMT and its indices, having the potential to facilitate the future utilization of SPMT in research, clinical settings, and personal performance monitoring.

# **2 Methods**

## 2.1 Ethics information

Since this research involves a secondary analysis of pre-existing data obtained from publicly available datasets or archived data from author’s group, which have used SPMT in recent years, informed consent and confidentiality are not applicable.

## 2.2 Datasets

In order to assess the reliability of SPMT, we first provided a brief overview of its original experimental design, as described in the Experiment 1 by Sui et al. (2012). The original SPMT used a 2 by 3 within-subject design. The first independent variable, labeled “Matching,” consisted of two levels: “Matching” and “Nonmatching,” indicating whether the shape and label were congruent. The second independent variable, labeled “Identity,” comprised three levels: “Self”, “Friend”, and “Stranger”, representing the corresponding identity associated with the shape.

The original SPMT consisted of two phases (see Fig. 1). In the first phase (learning

phase), participants completed a learning task in which they associated three geometric shapes (circle, triangle and square) with three labels (self, friend, and stranger) for approximately 60 seconds. The shape-label associations were balanced across participants. In the second phase (formal experimental phase), participants completed a perceptual matching task. Each trial started with a fixation cross displayed in the center of the screen for 500 ms, followed by a shape-label pairing and fixation cross for 100 ms. the screen then went blank for 1500 ms, or until a response was made. Participants were required to judge whether the presented shape and label matched the learned associations from the learning phase and respond as quickly and accurately as possible by pressing one of two buttons within the allotted timeframe. Prior to the formal experimental phase, participants completed a training session consisting of 24 practice trials. After the training, participants completed six blocks of 60 trials in the matching task, with two matching types (matching/nonmatching) and three shape associations, for a total of 60 trials per association. Short breaks lasting up to 60 seconds were provided after each block.



**Fig. 1.** Procedure of the original SPMT in the Experiment 1 (Sui et al., 2012). *Note*: The relation between shape-label pairs is counter-balanced between participants.

In this study, we collected a total of 18 existing datasets derived from 11 research articles, and one from our laboratory (Hu et al., 2023). and one from our collaborators (Liu et al., 2023), that included raw data from empirical studies utilizing the SPMT. The selection of these datasets was based on two criteria: (1) the experimental design did not deviate from the original SPMT of Sui et al. (2012); (2) the trial-level data is available so that we can estimate at least one reliability index. All these studies shared raw data publicly (Constable et al., 2021; Constable & Knoblich, 2020; Golubickis & Macrae, 2021; Navon & Makovski, 2021; Qian et al., 2020; Schäfer & Frings, 2019; Svensson et al., 2022) and did not deviate from the original experimental paradigm. Additionally, we identified five articles that did not have publicly available data but mentioned that data could be obtained upon request (Bukowski et al., 2021; Cheng & Tseng, 2019; Kolvoort et al., 2020; Martínez-Pérez et al., 2020; Woźniak et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2021). One of these articles indicated that data were shared on the Open Science Framework (OSF) platform (https://osf.io/pcv3u/), but the repository was found to be empty (Bukowski et al., 2021). We included datasets with raw data that were accessible to us. It is worth noting that the nature of the research culture discourages direct replications (Makel et al., 2012); thus, all datasets included in our analysis involved some degree of modification to the original design, such as incorporating additional independent variables or using different experimental materials (see our preregistration for details). Nonetheless, not all studies incorporated repeated measures. If a publicly available datasets did not include repeated measurements using SPMT within a specified time interval, we excluded it from calculating the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) and only considered split-half reliability. The details of the datasets used are described in Table 1.

Table 1. Dataset Information

| Paper | Exp. | Independent Variable | | | | Sample  Size | # of Trials per Condition | Self-Prioritization Effect Indices | | | | | | Reliability | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| IV 1 | IV 2 | IV 3 | IV 4 | RT | ACC | d | Eff | v | z | ICC | SHR |
| Hu et al. (2023) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Emotion  Control, Neutral,  Happy, Sad | Session | 34 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Constable and Knoblich (2020) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Switch Identity  Partner, Stranger | Phase | 92 | 40 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Constable et al. (2021) | 2 | Matching | Identity  Self; Stranger |  |  | 51 | 24 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Qian et al. (2020) | 1 | Matching | Identity Self; Stranger; Celebrity | Mood (Session) |  | 24 | 24 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 2 | Matching | Identity Self; Celebrity | Cue  With, Without |  | 25 | 50 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Schäfer and Frings (2019) | 1 | Matching | Identity Self; Mother; Acquaintance |  |  | 103 | 24 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Golubickis and Macrae (2021) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Presentation Mixed; Blocked |  | 30 | 30 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Navon and Makovski (2021) | 1 | Matching | Identity |  |  | 13 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 3 | Matching | Identity  Self; Father; Stranger |  |  | 27 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 4 | Matching | Identity |  |  | 26 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Svensson et al. (2022) | 1 | Matching | Identity Self; Friend |  |  | 20 | 50 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 2 | Matching | Identity Self; Friend | Frequency  self > friend |  | 24 | 100 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 3 | Matching | Identity Self; Friend | Frequency  self < friend |  | 25 | 100 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Cheng and Tseng (2019) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Go/No-go |  | 22 | 75 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 2 | Matching | Identity | Go/No-go |  | 26 | 75 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 3 | Matching | Identity | Go/No-go |  | 22 | 75 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Bukowski et al. (2021) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Imitation |  | 91 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 2 | Matching | Identity | Imitation |  | 109 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Kolvoort et al. (2020) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Delay  0, 40, 120, 700 |  | 31 | 25 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Martínez-Pérez et al. (2020) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Stimulation |  | 90 | 40 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Xu et al. (2021) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Feedback | Sex | 105 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Woźniak et al. (2018) | 1 | Matching | Identity | Facial Gender  Mele; Female |  | 18 | 56 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| 2 | Matching | Identity | Facial Gender  Mele; Female |  | 18 | 60 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |
| Liu et al. (2023) | 1 | Matching | Identity  Self; Stranger |  |  | 298 | 16 | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |  | √ |

Note. SPE: Self-Prioritization Effect, ICC: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, SHR: Split-Half Reliability

# **3 Analysis**

In our initial pre-registration plan, we intended to estimate the drift rate (*v*) and starting point (*z*) of the drift-diffusion model (DDM) using the “fit\_ezddm” function from the “hausekeep” package (Lin et al., 2020). This function was a wrapper for the EZ-DDM function (Wagenmakers et al., 2007). However, during parameter recovery (see supplementary Fig. 1), we observed a substantial disparity between the parameter starting point (z) provided by the "hausekeep" package and those obtained using the original HDDM package (Wiecki et al., 2013) employed in prior studies (Golubickis et al., 2017). This discrepancy may be attributed to the assumption made by "hausekeep" that z = a / 2. As a result, we made the decision to replace the original package with the “RWiener” package (Wabersich & Vandekerckhove, 2014), which we found to yield the most comparable results to the HDDM package. For detailed model comparison results, please refer to the supplementary materials. All the analyses in this paper are performed using the statistical software R (R Core Team, 2023). The research flow of the current study is visually represented in Fig. 2.



**Fig. 2** Roadmap of the current study. Note: SPE: self-prioritization effect; d-prime is the sensitivity index under the Signal Detection Theory; drift rate (v) and starting point (z) are parameters derived from the Drift-diffusion Model; ICC: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, SHR: Split-half Reliability.

## 3.1 Data pre-processing

In total, we gathered 18 publicly available datasets, as mentioned earlier and presented in Table 1. We pre-processed the secondary data using the following criteria:

1. Participant exclusion criteria
2. Participants who had wrong trial numbers because of procedure errors is excluded from the analysis,
3. Participants with an overall accuracy < 0.5 is excluded from the analysis,
4. Participants with any of the conditions with zero accuracy is excluded from the analysis.
5. Behavioural data exclusion criteria
6. Trials with no response or wrong key press is excluded from the analysis,
7. The practice trials is excluded from the formal analysis,
8. Participants with any of the conditions with zero accuracy is excluded from
9. the analysis,
10. The data under conditions other than the “control condition” would not be used in the current study.

### 3.1.1 Calculating the SPE

For each dataset, we calculated six indices for each experimental condition: Mean RT (MRT), accuracy (ACC), d-prime (*d′*), efficiency (*η*), drift rate (*v*), and starting point

(*z*). Mean RT and ACC are obtained directly from the datasets, while *d′* and *η* are calculated based on Mean RT and ACC using a simple formula (see Table 2).

Table 2. Indices in SPMT and corresponding calculation of indices and SPE

| **Indices** | **Indices Calculation** | **SPE Calculation Based on Indices** | **Source** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Mean  Reaction Times  (RT) |  |  | Sui et al. (2012) |
| Accuracy (ACC) |  |  | Sui et al. (2012) |
| *d* prime |  |  | Sui et al. (2012) |
| Efficiency |  |  | Humphreys and Sui (2015); Stoeber and Eysenck (2008) |
| Drift rate (*v*) | DDM：parameters will be identified through model selection |  | Golubickis et al. (2017) |
| Starting Point (*z*) |  | Golubickis et al. (2017) |

Note. DDM: Drift Diffusion Model.

### 3.1.2 Estimating the Reliability

**Split-half reliability.** We will calculate the split-half reliability of the six indices using four types of split-half reliability measures: first-second, odd-even, permutated, and Monte Carlo (Kahveci et al., 2022; Pronk et al., 2022). The first-second split divides the front and back halves of trials, while the odd-even split divides trials into odd and even numbered sequences. And the permutation split shuffles the trial order and randomly assigns each half to a group. The Monte Carlo split-half is similar to the permutated split-half, but it repeats the process thousands of times to calculate the average and 95% confidence interval of the split-half reliability.

First, the data will be stratified according to, Matching, Identity and Session (if applicable). If the data is not stratified, directly splitting it in half will result in an uneven distribution of trials for each experimental condition in the two halves, which can lead to an overestimation or underestimation of split-half reliability. Therefore, once the data is stratified, we split it into two halves. For example, when using Monte Carlo Split-Half, we randomly split the data into two halves. Then we repeat this process 5000 times. This will result in 5000 pairs of two halves of the data. Next, we use these 5000 pairs of data to calculate 5000 Pearson correlation coefficients, and then obtain the average and 95% confidence interval of the Monte Carlo split reliability. First-second split, odd-even split, and permutated split are similar to Monte Carlo method, but they only perform one split, so only one split-half reliability is obtained without an interval estimate of the split-half reliability.

**Test-Retest Reliability (ICC).** We assessed the test-retest reliability of the

six indices in our dataset that involved multiple experiment sessions by calculating the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC). To perform this analysis, we utilized the “psych” package as described by (Revelle, 2017). ICC is a well-established measure used in test-retest, intra-rater, and inter-rater studies to assess reliability (Fisher, 1992). Unlike the Pearson correlation coefficient, ICC considers both the correlation and agreement between multiple measurements, making it a more comprehensive measure of test-retest reliability. Within the ICC family, we specifically employed ICC2 and ICC2k. ICC2 focuses on the individual-level reliability of the indices, while ICC2k evaluates the reliability of mean ratings furnished by a group of judges (Koo & Li, 2016). For the calculation of ICC2 estimates, the formula is:

where MSBS is the mean square between subjects, MSE is the mean square error, MSBM is the mean square between measurements, k is the number of measurements, n is number of participants. For the calculation of ICC2k estimates, the formula is:

Although there is no strict criterion for defining the level of reliability, a widely

accepted guideline for Cronbach’s alpha is that a value of 0.60 is “acceptable”, and a value greater than 0.8 means excellent reliability (Cicchetti & Sparrow, 1981; Kupper & Hafner, 1989).

# **4 Results**

## 

## 4.1 Split-Half Reliability

First, we stratified the data based on three variables: Matching, Identity and Session (if applicable), and then split the stratified data into two halves using four methods. Next, we will calculate 6 indices for each type of “Target”. It is worth noting that we define “Friend”, “Partner”, “Father” and “Mother” as "Close" targets, while “Acquaintance” and “Stranger” are categorized as "Stranger" targets. Additionally, “Celebrity” and “None” are two independent types of targets. Then, we will compute the SPE between each type of “Target” and “Self”. As an example, we will calculate the average reaction time difference (SPE of MRT) between "Self" and "Friend". Finally, we will calculate four split-half reliabilities for each target and all six indices.

Fig. 4 displays the 3 types of split-half reliabilities, including first-second, odd-even, and permuted, for all the indices. Due to our utilization of two packages to calculate drift rate *v* and starting point *z*, a total of eight indices are presented. However, the overall split-half reliabilities for these indices appear to be low. Notably, the split-half reliabilities for the SPE of RT and Efficiency indices show relatively higher values. In addition, when the target is "Stranger," (SPE = Self - Stranger) the reliability is relatively higher compared to the other three target types.

Furthermore, the results obtained from the Monte Carlo split-half method (see Fig. 5) are consistent with the findings from the other three split-half methods. Among the various indices, RT and Efficiency demonstrate higher reliabilities. Specifically, the split-half reliabilities for RT and Efficiency are approximately 0.6, which is an acceptable level of reliability.

Unfortunately, the remaining six indices, regardless of the split-half method employed (first-second, odd-even, permuted, or Monte Carlo), exhibit split-half reliabilities below 0.5. Additionally, the reliabilities for the drift rate v and starting point z estimated using the "RWiener" approach are nearly zero. It is worth noting that the higher reliability of the drift rate v estimated by "hausekeep" compared to "RWiener" might be attributed to the former's reliance on average reaction time and accuracy, whereas the latter considers individual trial-level reaction times and correctness. The chosen split-half procedure may have a greater impact on the estimation by "RWiener," leading to lower split-half reliabilities for both of its indices.

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**Fig. 4.** First-Second, Odd-Even and Permuted Split-Half Reliability.

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**Fig. 4.** Monte Carlo Split-Half Reliability.

## 4.2 Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC)

Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) is a measure of the consistency or reliability of measurements made by different raters (observers) or repeated measurements made by the same rater (observer). We will calculate ICC only if the study involves repeated measurements of SPMT. Essentially, it tells us how much of the variation in the data can be attributed to differences between raters or repeated measurements, and how much can be attributed to differences within the subjects being measured. In simple terms, it provides an idea of the proportion of total variation in the data that is due to the true differences between subjects, versus due to measurement error or random fluctuations.

The present study aimed to investigate the stability of six indices, including reaction time (RT), accuracy (ACC), *d* prime, Efficiency, drift rate (*v*) and starting point (*z*) in the diffusion decision model (DDM), across time sessions. We utilized the Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICC) to evaluate the proportion of variation in SPMT that could be attributed to within-subject repeatability over time and between-subject differences. Specifically, we are most interested in ICC2 and ICC2k, where ICC2 represents the ratio of between-subject variance to total variance, and ICC2k represents the ratio of within-subject variance to total variance.

As shown in Fig. 6, the RT and Efficiency exhibit high ICC2K values, reaching 0.9, while their ICC2 values are relatively lower. This suggests that, at the individual level, the SPMT paradigm does not demonstrate a robust test-retest reliability. However, at the group level, this paradigm exhibits a high test-retest reliability. It is important to note that we only have repeated measurements of the SPMT from our own data (Hu et al., 2023), which enables us to calculate the ICC. Other datasets do not have such repeated measurements, making it impossible to calculate the ICC for those datasets.

The results of ICC are similar to the split-half reliability results, with RT and Efficiency also demonstrating the highest reliability. This may suggest that a stable measure, whether across time or across halves, tends to be relatively stable overall.

**图表

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**Fig. 6** Intraclass correlation coefficient.

# **5 Discussion**

Evaluating the reliability of a behavioral paradigm is essential for researchers planning to use the paradigm to investigate different research questions, such as individual differences and underlying mechanisms. However, despite its importance, this practice is not yet widely adopted (Green et al., 2016; Hedge et al., 2018; Parsons et al., 2019). In this pre-registered study, our objective is to investigate the reliability of the indices related to the self-prioritization effect (SPE) in the self-perceptual matching task (SPMT). We re-analyzed data from 18 datasets across 11 articles by employing the split-half reliability and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC2, ICC2k) for this purpose. Our analysis of these datasets collectively demonstrate that RT and Efficiency yield better results compared with other indices, and the result varies between different associations.

The split-half reliability, the results indicate variations between the targets

and indices. Specifically, response time (RT) and Efficiency yield superior results compared to other indices, suggesting they are the two most reliable indicator for accurately assessing and distinguishing between the self and other targets in the SPMT. Furthermore, when examining the split-half reliability for the self-other difference, self-stranger is the highest among other comparisons. In terms of test-retest reliability results also suggest that RT and Efficiency score consistently exhibits high ICC2k and low ICC2 across datasets. However, measurements based on accuracy and DDM yield varying outcomes. Overall, the indices related to the SPE in the SPMT are more suitable for group-level analysis rather than assessing individual-level variation.

Such finding suggests that the measurement of this particular difference remains consistent across participants and studies, indicating the systematic processing difference. The self-friend differences demonstrate relatively lower reliability, indicating that the measurements obtained from the indices are not stable or consistent when split into two halves. This finding suggests that distinguishing between the self and friend in the paradigm is challenging. The aforementioned result aligns with previous studies conducted using SPMT, consistently demonstrating the establishment of a reliable self-advantage. This advantage is observed when the shapes are associated with the self, in comparison to when they are linked to an unfamiliar person or a neutral label (Feng et al., 2020; Sui et al., 2012).

Although RT yield the highest split-half reliability among other indices, the result

is still below a commonly considered excellent reliability (higher than 0.8, even higher than 0.9). The low split-half reliability may suggest that the indices in SPMT is subject to random error and inconsistent performance. Several plausible reasons can be identified. Firstly, self-prioritization effect between self and other targets is not sufficiently large. A recent study by Kucina et al. (2023) has highlighted the significance of the number of trials in cognitive tasks for determining reliability. The findings of the study revealed that if there is a substantial difference between the conflict and non-conflict experimental conditions, the reliability of the paradigm will be higher. Specifically, in the case of Stroopon task (a task combined with Stroop task and Simon task), the study identified that achieving satisfactory reliability required fewer trials compared with the original paradigm. Therefore, enhancing the differences between self and other targets in future experimental paradigms may lead to improved split-half reliabilities. Second, a potential contributor to low split-half reliability could be the insufficient number of trials per condition. Kucina et al. (2023) also mentioned in their paper that simply increasing the number of trials under each experimental condition can improve the reliability of a paradigm.

Thirdly, it is worth mentioning the influence of serial dependence effects on task reliability. A recent set of studies has examined serial dependence effects in a variety of cognitive tasks(Braun et al., 2018; Zhang & Alais, 2020). Serial dependence refers to the phenomenon in which the outcome of one trial is influenced by preceding trials, resulting in a systematic relationship between consecutive trials (Pascucci et al., 2023). Notably, studies in the field of perceptual decision making have demonstrated strong serial dependence effects in perception, even when the visual stimuli were reliable and varied randomly over time (Fischer & Whitney, 2014; John-Saaltink et al., 2016). In particular, if the split-half design unintentionally separates temporally adjacent trials in the SPMT, the presence of serial dependence may introduce performance differences between the halves, leading to a reduction in the reliability estimate. Thus, to accurately control for the impact of serial dependence in experiments, further research should employ appropriate statistical methods that account for the temporal dependencies between trials. Time series analysis techniques (Huitema, 1986) or modeling approaches that capture the serial correlation (Mei et al., 2023) can be utilized to obtain more accurate results.

The discrepancy between the high ICC2k and low ICC2 suggests that thew SPMT is more influenced by between-participant variability than within-participant variability (Hedge et al., 2018; Liljequist et al., 2019). It is common for behavioral paradigm to have such result pattern, as demonstrated in previous research testing other cognitive paradigms such as Flanker, Simon, or Stroop (Clark et al., 2022; Mollon et al., 2017). There are various reasons for this pattern. First, one significant factor could be the prevalence of practice effect, particularly if the practice effect is large enough to cause a substantial change in participants’ performance between measurement occasions, it can introduce additional variability in the measurements. This increased variability may lower the ICC2 (Oswald et al., 2015; Siegelman et al., 2017). The presence of a practice effect underscores the need for alternative measures that can consistently capture performance nuances and reveal individual differences more sensitively (Hedge et al., 2018). To address this limitation, researchers can consider incorporating additional performance metrics, such as composite RT-accuracy scores.

By including RT alongside accuracy, a more stable assessment of participants’ abilities can be achieved, allowing for greater ICC2. Second, behavioral paradigms are susceptible to factors such as external conditions, contextual differences etc.., which contribute to greater within-participant variability and lower ICC2 values. However, when averaging performance between different individuals, the task could still exhibit good consistency, resulting in higher ICC2k values. It’s important to note that low ICC values should not be solely interpreted as a measure of a test’s overall quality but rather as an indication of the types of questions it can effectively address. In practical terms, the results suggest that the SPMT is better suited for distinguishing performance differences between individuals or groups, rather than capturing consistent performance within the same individuals over time. Thus, the SPMT may be particularly useful for studying inter-individual variability or conducting group-level comparisons, rather than tracking individual-level changes or stability. Therefore, we recommend that researchers take these factors into consideration when investigating individual differences in performance using the SPMT.

Our study has a few limitations that should be acknowledged. Firstly, although we

made efforts to enhance sample diversity by including open data as much as possible, it is important to note that a majority of our samples still consisted of individuals from what is commonly referred to as “wired” populations (Rad et al., 2018). Therefore, our findings may not be fully representative of the broader population, and a more diverse sample is needed to ensure greater generalizability. Additionally, it is important to highlight that the majority of the studies included in our analysis focused on adults from healthy populations. Hence, further investigation is needed to determine the reliability of the SPMT across different age groups and clinical populations. Secondly, it is important to clarify the aim of our study, which primarily focused on exploratory purposes and providing information regarding the current state of reliability for the assessed indices. Consequently, it is recommended that future research focuses on modifying the paradigm and conducting tests to assess potential improvements. We propose several approaches that could be considered, such as introducing more challenging task variations, which have the potential to increase the reliability of accuracy measurements. Another suggestion is to include a greater number of trials for each condition, as this may contribute to improved reliability. It is strongly encouraged to undertake further investigation and experimentation in order to refine the paradigm and enhance the reliability of the indices, rather than dismissing the paradigm under certain circumstances.

In conclusion, the current study find that RT and Efficiency provide a more robust result than any other indices. Moreover, SPMT is more suitable for group-level analysis rather than assessing individual-level variation. This aligns with the reliability paradox that has been previously proposed (Logie et al., 1996). It suggests that the SPMT paradigm exhibits significant differences across different experimental conditions for all participants. However, the differences (SPE) induced by different experimental conditions are unstable at the individual level. The findings of our study offer significant insights into the reliability of SPMT, shedding light on important factors that require careful consideration when interpreting the reliabilities. These findings also have implications for future task design and data collection protocols aimed at improving reliability. Ultimately, our study paves the way for the prospective utilization of these tasks, in various domains including research, clinical applications, and personal performance monitoring. The information obtained from our study contributes valuable knowledge to the field and sets the stage for further investigations and advancements in utilizing SPMT effectively.

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# **Author contributions**

HCP contributed to the conception and supervision of the study. JS contributed to fund raising, HCP contributed to data collection. ZL, ZYR and HMZ will perform the data pre-processing, analysis and visualize the results. In addition, ZL, JS, HMZ and HCP will contribute to discussing the results and the drafting of the final manuscript. All authors will critically revise the manuscript.

# **Data and Material Availability**

The pre-registration plan is available at <https://osf.io/zv628>. The de-identified raw data from our lab (Dataset 0) is available at https://doi.org/10.57760/ sciencedb.08117. The simulated data is accessible on GitHub (https://github.com/ Chuan-Peng-Lab/ReliabilitySPE).

# **Code Availability**

Code used to simulate and analyze the data is made accessible at https://github.com/ Chuan-Peng-Lab/ReliabilitySPE.

# **Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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