Preferences for costly cooperation are highly individualized

**Abstract** 2

When deciding between action alternatives, we use information about the costs and rewards of each action to choose an appropriate plan. Curioni et al. (2022) recently found that participants had a strong preference for completing a virtual box-clearing task cooperatively with a partner rather than alone, despite it being more motorically and cognitively costly. Participants completed the task standing beside each other in close proximity, which may have created a social pressure to cooperate through a need to manage one's reputation or a sense of commitment. Here, 50 human pairs—each composed of a "Decision-maker" and "Helper"—completed a box-clearing task modeled 10 after Curioni et al. while seated farther away and out of view of one another. In 50% of 11 trials, Decision-makers were forced to complete the task alone or with the Helper. In the remaining 50% of trials, Decision-makers chose to work alone or cooperatively. When 13 working together, participants were required to synchronize their movements without communication or feedback of their partner's movements. Decision-makers answered 15 open-ended questions regarding why and when they chose to complete the task alone and 16 together. We found a slight preference for individual action over costly joint action, yet this preference was not significantly different from chance. Inductive thematic analysis 18 revealed two dominant themes: "chose actions with greater instrumental utility" and 19 "chose actions with greater social value". The identified themes suggest that preferences 20 to cooperate are highly individualized, and that cooperative actions may provide additional 21 social rewards that drive preferences for cooperation even when it is more costly. 22 Keywords: joint action, social decision-making, utility, costs, thematic analysis

# Preferences for costly cooperation are highly individualized

When choosing between action alternatives, it has been suggested that individuals 1 weigh the costs they will incur against the potential benefits they could receive (Gallivan et al., 2018; Gordon et al., 2021; Kahneman & Tversky, 2012; Shadmehr et al., 2016). Indeed, 3 individuals tend to optimize their decisions by choosing actions that maximize their rewards while minimizing their costs (e.g., Jara-Ettinger et al., 2016; Todorov, 2004). This behavior is well captured in utility models such as the Naive Utility Calculus (Jara-Ettinger et al., 2016, 2020) wherein the utility (usefulness) of an action is equated to the rewards (direct payoff) of successfully achieving the desired action outcome minus the costs incurred (resources used) while acting. Importantly, these evaluations are subjective and susceptible to social influences (Mosteller & Nogee, 1951; Rangel et al., 2008). Instrumental rewards related to the action outcome include the completion of the task itself, as well as additional rewards the actor may earn for successfully completing the task, such as money or points. Movement-related costs include energy expenditure and biomechanical factors associated with performing the action (Cos et al., 2011, 2014; Moskowitz et al., 2023; Shadmehr et al., 2016; Todorov, 2004). Interestingly, performing a joint action is more costly—both cognitively and motorically—than performing the same action alone as individuals must represent, predict, and/or monitor the performance of 17 their partner (Knoblich et al., 2011; Sebanz et al., 2006; Sebanz & Knoblich, 2021). Such 18 coordinated actions therefore create opportunities for spatial and temporal errors between 19 co-actors that do not occur when acting alone; thus, increasing the overall cost function of 20 joint action. An open question is how individuals decide to engage or not engage in a joint 21 action, and whether this decision is based on principles of optimization and utility. 22 Curioni et al. (2022) recently explored this question in a series of experiments using 23 a virtual "box clearing" task where it was instrumentally more costly to perform the task 24 with a partner compared to alone. When the task was performed alone, an individual would clear boxes as quickly as possible by tapping them and could clear the boxes in any

order. When the task was performed together, the total number of boxes was divided evenly between participants and arranged identically. Without communicating or looking at the other person's workspace, the partners had to clear boxes as quickly as possible by 29 tapping the same box within a pre-specified synchrony threshold. Despite joint action 30 being the suboptimal way to complete the task, due to the additional task constraints 31 produced by the coordination elements of the together condition, on the trials where the 32 participant in the Decision-maker role could choose to complete the task alone or together, 33 participants showed a consistent preference for cooperation across experiments. Interestingly, in control experiments where individuals chose between completing the 35 same "box clearing" task either unimanually or bimanually, individuals preferred to complete the task unimanually. That is, participants chose the less costly and more 37 optimal way to perform the task under these conditions. As bimanual actions are thought to be representative of interpersonal actions from a coordination perspective (e.g., Kourtis et al., 2014; Schmidt & Richardson, 2008), the data from Curioni and colleagues (2022) strongly suggest that social factors inherent to joint actions, such as a higher intrinsic reward value assigned to cooperation, may bias the computation of the utility of performing a task with another person. In the joint action version of the task, the two participants were always positioned beside each other (shoulder-to-shoulder) and performed the task on the same touchscreen device (46 in), but within their respective 45 workspaces that were created by dividing the touchscreen in two equal halves. This physical proximity of the participants may have created a social pressure for the Decision-maker to engage in joint action, possibly through a sense of commitment (e.g., 48 Michael et al., 2016a, 2016b) and/or from a need to manage one's reputation (e.g., Nowak 49 & Sigmund, 2005). 50

Here, we assessed the replicability of Curioni and colleagues' (2022) finding that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Experiments 1 and 2, the pre-specified time window was 200 ms. In Experiment 3 it was 250 ms and in Experiments 4 and 5 it could be either 120 or 60 ms.

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humans have a preference to perform a task cooperatively, rather than alone, despite the higher costs of coordinating with a partner. Our experiment was modeled after Experiment 1 of Curioni et al. (2022) and we extend their work in two important ways. First, we used a 54 different task setup that naturally increased the distance between participants as each 55 participant performed the task on separate devices. Second, we queried the participants 56 that were randomly assigned to the Decision-maker role about their thought processes on the trials where they decided to perform the task alone or together with their partner. 58 Based on Curioni et al. (2022), we predicted that participants would show a significant preference for performing the task with their partner compared to chance level (50%). This 60 would support the idea that human adults have a preference for cooperating, rather than acting alone, despite the added cost of coordinating with a partner. We also predicted that 62 on no-choice trials participants would complete the task faster alone than with a partner and that the time required to complete the task would increase with the number of boxes to clear.

Method 66

We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions (if any), all manipulations, and all measures in the study (Simmons et al., 2012). Our preregistration can be accessed at https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/EVDP5. Data and code are available 69 at https://github.com/cartermaclab/expt\_solo-or-joint-action. 70

#### **Participants** 71

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A sample of 100 undergraduate and graduate students (50 human pairs,  $M_{\text{age}}$  = 72 18.51 years, SD = 2.01) participated in the experiment. Sample size was determined a priori 73 as 2.5 times the original sample size in Curioni et al. (2022) based on the recommendations of Simonsohn (2015). All participants self-reported that they were free of sensorimotor impairments and had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Participants were compensated with \$5 CAD or with course-credit for their time. All participants provided written informed consent and the experiment was approved by the University's

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Research Ethics Board.

# Task and apparatus

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Participants performed a virtual box clearing task similar to that used in Curioni et 81 al. (2022). In their version, participants cleared boxes by tapping a box with their finger in 82 any order they preferred. In our version, participants cleared boxes by "hitting" a box with 83 their virtual cursor in any order they preferred. Our task was performed using two Kinarm End-Point Labs (Kinarm; Kingston, ON, Canada) that are able to interact with each other in 85 real-time. Each participant of a human pair was seated in an adjustable chair in front of either the left or right End-Point Lab at a height such that their forehead could rest comfortably on the system's padded headrest. This experimental setup naturally positioned the participants out of sight from one another and at a distance of 3.05 m. Each participant grasped the handle of the robotic manipulandum using their preferred hand and made reaching movements in the horizontal plane. A semi-silvered mirror blocked the vision of the upper limb and displayed virtual images from an LCD monitor. On the virtual display, participants saw their respective workspace, a cursor representing their unseen hand, and virtual boxes (i.e., targets) in a grid arrangement. Hand position was recorded at 1000 Hz and stored for offline data analysis. 95

#### Procedure

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Participant pairs, which were created randomly, entered the lab and were directed to sit at a desk across from one another to receive verbal and written instructions about the experiment. Within each pair, one participant performed the task in the role of the "Decision-maker" and the other in the role of the "Helper". These roles were assigned randomly and the Kinarm End-Point Lab (left or right) occupied by the Decision-maker was counterbalanced across participants. Participants were instructed that the task goal was for the Decision-maker to collect as many points as possible by clearing boxes from their workspace (1 point per box) within 30 mins. It was made clear that points were not earned for any boxes cleared by the Helper on their respective workspace. However, participants

unknowingly completed a fixed number of trials, which required less time to complete than this time limit. Participants were also not permitted to communicate with one another throughout the experiment.

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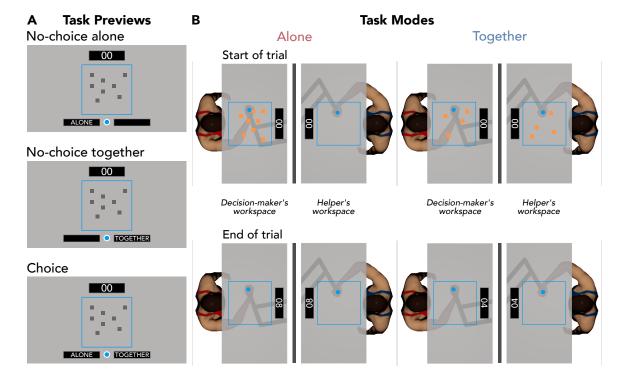
In 50% of trials, the Decision-maker was given the choice to perform the task alone or with the Helper (choice trials). In the remaining 50% of trials, the Decision-maker was forced to do the task alone (no-choice alone; 25% of trials) or together (no-choice together; 25% of trials). The fixed number of no-choice alone and no-choice together trials were included to ensure that each pair of participants experienced the same minimum number of trials in each task mode, irrespective of the Decision-maker's decisions in the choice trials. Within each task mode (i.e., no-choice alone, no-choice together, and choice), we manipulated the number of boxes that were displayed with either four, eight, or 12 boxes. The spatial arrangment of the boxes was randomly generated. All trial conditions were fully randomized and each number of boxes appeared an equal number of times. All pairs experienced the same randomized order of trial and box conditions.

The experiment began with four familiarization trials (two no-choice alone and two 120 no-choice together), followed by 180 experimental trials consisting of 90 choice, 45 121 no-choice alone, and 45 no-choice together in a random order. Each trial began with a preview of the box configuration for the upcoming trial displayed only to the 123 Decision-maker (see Figure 1A). Boxes were gray during the preview. Participants then 124 moved their virtual cursor into the home position. After holding this position for 500 ms, 125 two rectangles appeared at the bottom of the display on opposite sides of the home 126 position. In the choice task mode, the word ALONE appeared in one rectangle and TOGETHER in the other. The Decision-maker would move their cursor into one of the two 128 rectangles to select the task mode they wanted for the upcoming trial. In the no-choice 129 task mode, when the two rectangles appeared only one contained text to indicate the task 130 mode for the upcoming trial. The Decision-maker would then move their virtual cursor into 131 this rectangle. The rectangle that the ALONE and TOGETHER text appeared in was

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counterbalanced across pairs. Once the Decision-maker moved their cursor into the selected (choice task mode) or the imposed (no-choice task mode) rectangle, the boxes 134 changed from gray to orange, signifying the start of that trial. The trial ended once the last 135 box was cleared or after 100 s elapsed. On alone trials, boxes appeared only in the 136 Decision-maker's workspace and thus, could only be cleared by the Decision-maker. On 137 together trials, the boxes were evenly distributed across each participant's workspace and 138 appeared in the same arrangement (see Figure 1B). During these trials, both participants 139 had to "hit" boxes in the same grid location with their cursors, within a pre-specified time 140 window of  $\leq$  200 ms. If they "hit" different boxes or did not "hit" the same box within the 141 synchrony threshold, the box remained on the screen until synchronously hit. Participants 142 had no feedback of each other's movements and were not permitted to communicate with 143 each other. One point was awarded for every box cleared from the Decision-maker's 144 workspace. A box above the participant's workspace showed the cumulative number of 145 points earned and was updated at the end of each trial. This design ensured that 146 performing the task together was not only suboptimal in terms of maximizing reward (i.e., points per trial), but also increased movement costs associated with coordinating their 148 actions (i.e., same box in  $\leq$  200 ms) with their partner.

**Figure 1**Overview of experimental design and task.



Note. Human pairs performed a virtual "box-clearing" task in either the Decision-maker role or the Helper role. (A) At the start of each trial, only the Decision-maker was shown a preview of the target box arrangement for the upcoming trial and two task mode selection boxes. In the no-choice trials, the Decision-maker was instructed to select the active task mode selection box (i.e., only one contained text) by moving their cursor into the box. In the choice trials, both task mode selection boxes were active and the Decision-maker was instructed to choose one of the two task modes. (B) Once a task mode was selected, the selection boxes disappeared and the target boxes changed colour from gray to orange. This change in colours served as the GO-signal for participants. In alone trials, all boxes shown in the preview remained in the Decision-maker's workspace while the Helper saw an empty workspace. In together trials, the boxes were evenly distributed across each participant's workspace and appeared in the same arrangement. Trials ended once all boxes were cleared or timed out after 100 s. One point per box was earned for boxes cleared by the Decision-maker.

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After participants completed all experimental trials, the Decision-makers were asked a series of open-ended questions regarding their decision-making processes. The Decision-makers answered these questions by typing their responses in a survey form on a laptop that were saved for later analysis. Participants were asked to answer the following questions: a) "When given the choice to do the task alone or together with the Helper, why did you choose to complete the task alone?", b) "When given the choice to do the task alone or together with the Helper, when did you choose to complete the task alone?", c) "When given the choice to do the task alone or together with the Helper, why did you choose to complete the task together?", d) "When given the choice to do the task alone or together with the Helper, when did you choose to complete the task together?", and e) "Is there anything else you would like to tell us about how you completed the task?". No follow-up questions were asked regarding participants' responses. Participants required approximately five minutes to complete this part of the experiment.

# Data analysis

### Choice data

Our primary outcome variable was the proportion of trials in the choice task mode where the Decision-makers selected to perform the task with the Helper (i.e., to perform a joint rather than solo action). To gain better insights into the reasons the Decision-makers used when choosing to perform the task alone or together, we conducted an inductive thematic content analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to identify, analyze, and report themes within the open-ended questionnaire data. The analysis was conducted in a stepwise process. First, the primary coder (M.L.) read through all participants' responses to the open-ended questions and made initial notes of the content of the data. This allowed the coder to become familiar with the data, specifically the depth and breadth of the responses. Next, the coder systematically worked through the entire data set, identifying segments of responses (i.e., sentences, phrases, or individual words) that shared similar ideas or topics. While identifying such segments, the coder generated labels (initial codes)

for each common idea or topic. The coder then generated various levels of themes by considering how different codes could be combined to support overarching themes. The coder first consolidated the initial codes into initial themes. These initial themes were further combined to form intermediate themes. Finally, the intermediate themes were once more grouped into a final set of higher order themes. The operational definition, an example of a participant's response, and the number of responses for each higher order theme can be found in Table 1.

To ensure the validity of the identified themes and a reliable portrayal of the data by the primary coder, intercoder reliability was measured during the thematic analysis process following the guidelines of O'Connor and Joffe (2020). This process involved comparing the agreement of coding between two coders. After grouping the initial codes into five final themes, the primary coder provided a comparison coder (J.T.) with a random selection of 50% of the codes, as well as a list of the five final themes and the respective operational definitions. The comparison coder was instructed to sort each code into one of the five themes to the best of their knowledge using the theme names and definitions. A comparison analysis was performed to determine intercoder reliability between coders, which resulted in a Cohen's  $\kappa$  of .88. This value is larger than the recommended minimum value of .80 (Hruschka et al., 2004), suggesting strong intercoder reliability and confirming that the primary coder accurately represented the data within the five final themes.

**Table 1**The five final themes from the thematic analysis, as well as their operational definitions, intermediate and initial themes if applicable, and an example of a participant's response.

196	Final theme	Definition	Intermediate	Initial	Example
.50			theme	theme	p.:e
197	Chose actions	Made decisions with the intention of	Reduced	Maximized	"I decided to do all the optional tasks
	with greater	reducing the time or energy needed	instrumental	speed	alone because I knew it would be
	instrumental utility	to complete the task, and/or	costs		faster" (Participant 212)
		increasing the amount of points that			
		could be earned.			
198				Minimized	"I attempted to complete the task in
				movement	the most effective and quickest way,
					moving the handle with the shortest
					distance possible." (Participant 111)
199			Reduced cognitive	Minimized	"I chose to do the task alone when
			costs	decisions	there were many boxes that were far
				required	away from each other as I knew it
					would be difficult to choose the same
					boxes as the helper." (Participant 101)

200		Minimized	"[I chose alone] because it was more
		difficult co-	reliable and gave more points, it
		ordination	eliminated the variable of having to
			depend on another person's timing
			and thinking." (Participant 107)
201	Minimized task	Completed	"It was easier to complete the task
	constraints	the task in	alone" (Participant 404)
		the "easiest	
		way"	
202		Considered	"[I chose together] when there was
		the spatial	not as high of a concentration of
		arrange-	squares, but also when they were in
		ment of the	close proximity with each other."
		boxes	(Participant 203)
203	Maximized	NA	"I chose to complete the task alone
	instrumental		when I realized that the number of
	rewards		points I got from working together
			was not as much as working alone."
			(Participant 412)

204	Chose actions	Made decisions that were motivated	Maximized	NA	"I found it more fun and interesting
	with greater social	by enhancing their own and/or their	intrinsic rewards		when I had to complete the task
	value	partner's experience			together because you can see how
					similarly or differently you and your
					partner think and what each person's
					first instinct is." (Participant 312)
205			Prosocial	Empathy	"[I chose together] because I felt bad
			behaviour		for my partner if he was left with
					nothing to do" (Participant 102)
206				Fairness	"I chose to do the task together when
					I had done a few trials alone. I
					thought that my partner would be
					upset if I did a bunch of the trials on
					my own just to achieve more points,
					so I would sometimes choose to do
					them with her to make it more fair."
					(Participant 410)
207	Flexibility in	Open to changing their decisions	NA	NA	"There were some instances where I
	decision strategy	throughout the experiment			felt me and the helper changed the
					way we were slicing the squares to
					try to imitate each other"
					(Participant 211)

208	Planned	Discussed their own individual	NA	NA	"I noticed I tended to hit the boxes in
	movement path	directional patterns they typically			a circular motion starting from the
		moved in and/or the order they			one closest to me, moving outwards,
		planned to clear boxes in			then returning to the starting area."
					(Participant 309)
209	Made reliable	Made decisions knowing they could	NA	NA	"[I chose alone] because it was more
	decisions	perform the task consistently well in			reliable and gave more points, it
		that task mode			eliminated the variable of having to
					depend on another person's timing
					and thinking." (Participant 107)

## Box clearing data

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Our second outcome variable was trial completion time for no-choice trials, which was the interval of time between the boxes turning orange and the last box being cleared. Our third outcome variable was distance traveled for no-choice trials, which was the total distance that an individual's cursor moved in the interval of time between the boxes turning orange and the last box being cleared.

Alpha was set to .05 for all quantitative analyses, which are described below. 216 Corrected degrees of freedom using the Greenhouse-Geisser method are always reported 217 when appropriate. Generalized eta squared  $(\eta_G^2)$  is reported as an effect size for all 218 omnibus tests. Post-hoc comparisons were performed using the Holm-Bonferroni 219 approach to adjust for multiple comparisons. Statistical analyses were conducted using R 220 (Version 4.4.2; R Core Team, 2024) and the R-packages afex [Version 1.4.1; (Singmann et 221 al., 2024), easystats (Version 0.7.4; Lüdecke et al., 2022), emmeans (Version 1.10.7; Lenth, 222 2025), grateful (Version 0.2.10; Rodriguez-Sanchez & Jackson, 2023), here (Version 1.0.1; 223 Müller, 2020), Hmisc (Version 5.2.2; Harrell Jr, 2025), kableExtra (Version 1.4.0; Zhu, 2024), 224 patchwork (Version 1.3.0; Pedersen, 2024), rcompanion (Version 2.4.36; Mangiafico, 2024), renv (Version 1.1.0; Ushey & Wickham, 2025), tidyverse (Version 2.0.0; Wickham et al., 226 2019), and waffle (Version 1.0.2; Rudis & Gandy, 2023) were used in this project. 227

228 Results

### Choice data

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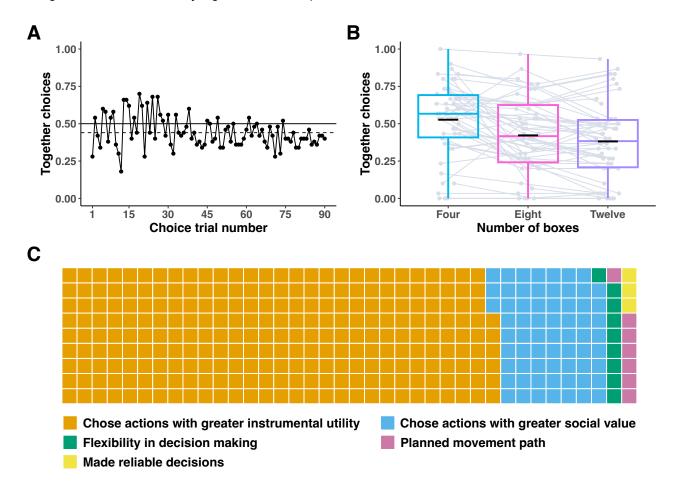
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Participants showed a slight preference of acting alone (M = 0.56, SD = 0.23) compared to joint action (see Figure 2A). A two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test comparing the mean proportion of together choices against a 50% chance level was not significant, V = 472.5, p = .112, r = -.225, 95% CI [-.0.478, 0.068].

Figure 2

The proportion of selecting to perform the task together on choice trials and the frequency of the global themes underlying the decision process.



Note. During the experiment the Decision-maker could choose to perform the task either alone or together with their Helper on 90 choice trials. These choice trials were randomly interleaved with the forced alone and forced together trials. (A) The mean proportion of together choices across participants which is characterized by some early fluctuation that becomes more stable over trials. The solid and dashed horizontal lines represent the 50% chance level and the mean of all choice trials, respectively. (B) Boxplots of the proportion of together choices as a function of the number of boxes on choice trials. Boxplots represent the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, and the solid black line denotes the mean. Grey dots connected by grey lines represent means from individual participants. (C) Waffle plots showing the frequency of the five final themes based on the self-reported responses to the open-ended questions administered to the Decision-maker at the end of the experiment. Each square represents a code (single unit of information) aligning with one of the five final themes. The dominant theme was "chose actions with greater instrumental utility" (orange, \*n\* = 258) followed by "chose actions with greater social value" (blue, \*n\* = 65). The remaining themes were far less common.

We analyzed the proportion of together choices for each box number condition (see Figure 2B) using a one-way repeated measures ANOVA. Participants chose to perform the task together more often when there were fewer boxes to clear, F(1.51, 74.06) = 16.43, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2 = .057$ . The mean proportion of together choices was greater for 4 boxes than all other numbers of boxes (p's < .002) and for 8 boxes than 12 boxes (p = .023).

Five final themes were identified (see Figure 2C), which represented participants' reasoning behind their decisions: "chose actions with greater instrumental utility", "chose actions with greater social value", "made reliable decisions", "flexibility in decision strategy", and "planned movement path". The dominant reasoning was "chose actions with greater instrumental utility" (n = 258), followed by "chose actions with greater social value" (n = 65). The other three themes prevailed to similar extents, with the least supported theme being "made reliable decisions" (n = 3).

The two most prominent themes were each composed of several intermediate and initial themes. Within the first theme, "chose actions with greater instrumental utility", participants expressed desires to: reduce instrumental costs, reduce cognitive costs, minimize task constraints, and maximize instrumental rewards. Reducing instrumental costs included ideas of maximizing speed and minimizing movement, while efforts to reduce cognitive costs included minimizing the amount of decisions required and minimizing difficult coordination. Participants minimized task constraints by completing the task in the "easiest" way and considering the spatial arrangement of the boxes as ways to prioritize efficiency and complete the task with ease. These intermediate themes reflect the separate cost and reward components of instrumental utility, and highlight the complexity of the costs associated with action alternatives. For the second theme, "chose actions with greater social value", participants reported making efforts to: maximize intrinsic rewards and engage in prosocial behaviour. Prosocial behaviours included acts of empathy and fairness, taking the Helper's feelings or perspectives into account, and choosing the task condition with the intention of being inclusive to their partner.

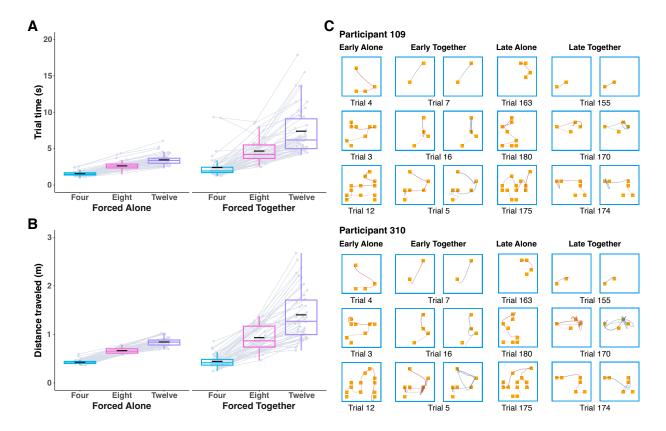
# Box clearing data

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We analyzed mean trial time (see Figure 3A) using a 2 Task Mode (Forced Alone, 262 Forced Together) x 3 Number of Boxes (4, 8, 12) repeated measures ANOVA. The 263 significant main effects of Task Mode, F(1,49) = 74.33, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2$  = .323, and Number of 264 Boxes, F(1.57, 76.85) = 266.51, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2 = .422$ , were superseded by a significant Task 265 Mode × Number of Boxes interaction, F(1.52, 74.57) = 56.57, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2 = .130$ . Post hoc 266 analyses revealed that participants were significantly faster at performing the task alone 267 than together with all number of boxes (p's < .006), with 4 boxes than all other numbers of 268 boxes in both task modes (p's < .001), and with 8 boxes than 12 boxes in both task modes 269 (p's < .001).270

To complement the trial time data we calculated the distance traveled in each trial, 271 with data from two representative participants for each task mode and box conditions shown in Figure 3C. We analyzed mean distance traveled (see Figure 3B) using a 2 Task 273 Mode (Alone, Together) x 3 Number of Boxes (4, 8, 12) repeated measures ANOVA. The significant main effects of Task Mode, F(1,49) = 58.13, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2$  = .255, and Number of 275 Boxes, F(1.31, 64.22) = 370.88, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2 = .577$ , were superseded by a significant Task Mode x Number of Boxes interaction, F(1.30, 63.69) = 62.23, p < .001,  $\eta_G^2 = .173$ . Post hoc 277 comparisons revealed that participants traveled a significantly shorter distance when 278 performing the task alone than together with 8 and 12 boxes (p's < .001), with 4 boxes than 279 all other numbers of boxes in both task modes (p's < .001), and with 8 boxes than 12 boxes 280 in both task modes (p's < .001). 281

**Figure 3**Trial time and distance traveled to clear boxes on forced alone and forced together trials.



Note. (A) Boxplots of mean trial time (s), which was the interval of time between the boxes turning orange and the last box cleared, for each box condition in the forced alone and forced together trials. Participants were, on average, much faster when acting alone compared to together and not surprisingly, trial time increased as the number of boxes increased in both task modes. Boxplots represent the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, and the solid black line denotes the mean. Grey dots connected by grey lines represent means from individual participants. (B) Boxplots of mean distance traveled (m), which was the total distance that a participant's cursor moved during the interval of time between the boxes turning orange and the last box cleared, for each box condition in the forced alone and forced together trials. Participants moved, on average, less when acting alone compared to together and distance traveled increased in both task modes as the number of boxes increased. Boxplots represent the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, and the solid black line denotes the mean. Grey dots connected by grey lines represent means from individual participants. (C) Sample hand trajectory plots for two Decision-maker (red lines) and Helper (blue lines) participant pairs for early and late forced alone and force together trials for each box condition.

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282 Discussion

We found that participants showed a modest preference for solo action over joint action, which is opposite to what Curioni et al. (2022) found. Although this preference for solo action was not significantly different from chance levels, we did find that these preferences varied considerably at the individual level (range: 0.033%-100%). This was also evident from the participants' responses on the open-ended questionnaire. Interestingly, the slight preference we found for solo action over joint action is less than what would be expected based solely on principles of utility and optimization (Jara-Ettinger et al., 2016, 2020; Shadmehr et al., 2016; Todorov, 2004). Thus, in line with Curioni et al. (2022), our findings suggest that humans may assign additional reward value to performing actions with another person.

Our failure to replicate a preference for joint action even when it is more costly was surprising given the robustness of this effect across multiple experiments in Curioni et al. (2022). Importantly, this difference cannot be attributed to a failure on our part of not implementing a version of the box-clearing task wherein performing the task together was both more instrumentally costly and suboptimal. That is, less points could only ever be earned on together trials and all Decision-makers were, on average, significantly slower (see Figure 3A) and made significantly more movements (except in the 4 box arrangement; see Figure 3B) when performing the task together compared to alone. In contrast, there was a small subset of participants in Experiment 1 of Curioni et al. (2022) that were actually faster, on average, when performing the task with their Helper compared to alone. One possibility is that it is this subset of participants that drove the effect as these participants were able to reduce their coordination costs and clear boxes more efficiently through joint action. Based on the data from Experiment 4 of Curioni et al. (2022), we think this is an unlikely explanation as the strong preference for joint action was found; yet, similar to our data all Decision-makers, on average, were slower at clearing boxes and covered more distance with their partner compared to alone. We, instead,

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attribute our conflicting results to the differences in the physical proximity of participants between studies. When human pairs act on the same device beside one another, as in 310 Curioni et al. (2022), it is very likely that the Decision-makers experienced increased 311 pressure to cooperate, presumably through a desire to manage one's reputation (Nowak & 312 Sigmund, 2005; Wu et al., 2016) or a heightened sense of commitment (Michael et al., 313 2016a; Michael, 2022). Merely positioning participant pairs on separate devices and at a 314 distance of approximately 3 m from each other flipped the effect to a small preference for 315 solo action (56% in our experiment versus the 76% preference for joint action in Curioni et 316 al. (2022)). Nevertheless, participants in our experiment self-reported empathy (e.g., 317 Rumble et al., 2010) and fairness (e.g., Székely & Michael, 2023) as reasons for choosing to 318 perform the task with the Helper, suggesting that social pressures to cooperate may have 319 still been at play with our setup, but to a lesser extent. Further research is needed to better 320 understand the influence of these social factors on the decision to engage, or not engage, 321 in joint action, such as having participants in separate rooms akin to playing a game online or having participants perform the task in both the Decision-maker and Helper roles. 323

Although the mean proportion of choosing solo trials across participants was not significantly different from chance, there was considerable variability between participants. In fact, a subset of participants always chose to perform the task alone whereas one participant chose to perform the task together on nearly every opportunity (see Figure 2B). We suggest that participants' choices were in fact not random and instead reflect rather highly individualized preferences. In support of this, our thematic analysis revealed that no participant described making exclusively random or unrationalized decisions—each participant self-reported at least one deliberate reason within their responses. Thus, if some kind of generic additional reward value is assigned to performing a task with another person, it may largely depend on the individual and/or socio-cultural and psychological variables not explored in the current experiment.

Motivation measures, such as the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (Paulhus,

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1998) or the Ring Measure of Social Values (Liebrand & McClintock, 1988), as well as personality inventories and other validated scales that assess individual differences could be implemented in future research to better understand the intersectionality of these factors (Appelt et al., 2011).

The most prominent higher order theme identified through our thematic analysis 340 was "chose actions with greater instrumental utility" (see Figure 2C). The sub themes 341 within this category revealed that the Decision-makers were mindful of the task goal (i.e., 342 earn as many points as possible) and often aimed to maximize the utility of their actions 343 when making their decisions. Participants frequently reported wanting to complete the 344 task in the fastest way (overwhelmingly perceived to be the alone condition) or choosing 345 the task condition they thought would require the least amount of movement. This 346 behaviour aligns with the Naive Utility Calculus (Jara-Ettinger et al., 2016, 2020); however, 347 if these participants exclusively considered the instrumental factors of the action 348 alternatives (e.g., points earned, time spent, actions required, etc), we would expect to see 349 a much greater proportion of alone trials than we observed in the choice trials. Many 350 participants also described choosing to work together when there were fewer boxes to 351 clear as they perceived the task to be easier compared to when there were more boxes. With more boxes, participants described it would not only be difficult to select the same 353 box as the Helper, but also coordinate their movements more times. In line with this, we 354 did find that participants made significantly less together choices as the number of boxes 355 to clear increased. Being able to predict an interaction partner's behaviour is an important 356 mechanism for successful coordination (Sebanz et al., 2006). Although the identical 357 arrangement of boxes in each workspace would allow partners to share representations of 358 the task, the unspecified order that the boxes could be cleared made it difficult for 350 participants to predict each other's movement path. Future work should focus on the 360 relationship between individual costs and joint costs during joint action. 361

Despite the abundance of utility-centered participant responses in our thematic

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analysis, our data, together with that of Curioni and colleagues (2022), strongly suggest that other factors currently unaccounted for in the utility calculus may outweigh instrumental factors and motivate individuals to engage in costly joint action even when it is unnecessary. This could be represented by a cooperation reward variable in the calculus (Curioni et al., 2022); an idea that is supported by our second prominent theme of "chose" actions with greater social value". For example, participants described working together as being intrinsically rewarding and that they felt motivated by the enjoyment and enrichment they experienced from the added challenge of coordinating. Others acknowledged the prosocial benefits (Eisenberg et al., 2015) associated with choosing to perform the task together with their partner (e.g., Michael et al., 2020; Obhi & Sebanz, 2011; van der Wel et al., 2021). These individuals empathized with the Helper, choosing together when they felt bad that their partner was left doing nothing or had not participated in a while. This resulted in some participants balancing the distribution of alone and together trials throughout the experiment as a way to be fair towards their partner. Interestingly, these participants did acknowledge that they incurred additional costs and reduced (instrumental) benefits by working together; therefore, the value derived from making the task more fair was oftentimes strong enough to offset the weight of the instrumental factors in the task.

A possible limitation of our experiment is our use of a convenience sample of undergraduate students; thus, some participant pairs may have already been familiar with one another compared to others, or complete strangers. Individuals may be more inclined to interact with people they know or have previously had positive experiences working with (Hinds et al., 2000; Zander & Havelin, 1960), as a means to increase the predictability of others' actions. Similar to Curioni et al. (2022), our participant pairs were created randomly without controlling for sex, gender, age, or ethnicity. Demographics and identification with co-actors have been shown to impact decisions to cooperate (Chen et al., 2012; e.g., Chuah et al., 2014; Krumhuber et al., 2007; Levy et al., 2004), ability to coordinate (Boukarras et al., 2021), and partner choice in interactive tasks (Chuah et al.,

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2014; Krumhuber et al., 2007). Exploring the influence of these factors in future research may have important practical implications, especially in workplace settings.

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In conclusion, we did not find a strong preference for costly cooperative action like that observed by Curioni et al. (2022). Instead, we found a slight preference for choosing individual action, but this was much lower than would be expected if these choices were solely guided by principles of optimization and utility. Our quantitative and qualitative data add further support to the idea that additional rewards are derived from the social nature of joint action (e.g., Curioni et al., 2022) and that these preferences are highly individualized.

398 **Declarations** 

See Conflicts of interest/Competing interests. None.

Ethics approval. This project was approved and conducted in accordance with the

- approval of the University's Research Ethics Board.
- Consent to participate. All participants gave informed consent.
- 403 **Consent for publication.** All authors approve the manuscript.
- 404 Availability of data, materials, and code Can be accessed at
- https://github.com/cartermaclab/expt\_solo-or-joint-action.

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