Investigating Object Orientation Effects Across 18 Languages

Sau-Chin Chen1, Erin Buchanan2, Zoltan Kekecs3,65, Jeremy K. Miller4, Anna Szabelska5, Balazs Aczel3, Pablo Bernabeu6, Patrick Forscher7,66, Attila Szuts3, Zahir Vally8, Ali H. Al-Hoorie9, Mai Helmy10,67, Caio Santos Alves da Silva11, Luana Oliveira da Silva11, Yago Luksevicius de Moraes11, Rafael Ming C. S. Hsu11, Anthonieta Looman Mafra11, Jaroslava V. Valentova11, Marco Antonio Correa Varella11, Barnaby Dixon12, Kim Peters12, Nik Steffens12, Omid Ghaesmi13, Andrew Roberts13, Robert M. Ross13, Ian D. Stephen13,68, Marina Milyavskaya14, Kelly Wang14, Kaitlyn M. Werner14, Dawn L. Holford15, Miroslav Sirota15, Thomas Rhys Evans16, Dermot Lynott17, Bethany M. Lane18, Danny Riis18, Glenn P. Williams19, Chrystalle B. Y. Tan20, Alicia Foo21, Steve M. J. Janssen21, Nwadiogo Chisom Arinze22, Izuchukwu Lawrence Gabriel Ndukaihe22, David Moreau23, Brianna Jurosic24, Brynna Leach24, Savannah Lewis24, Peter R. Mallik25, Kathleen Schmidt26, William J. Chopik27, Leigh Ann Vaughn28, Manyu Li29, Carmel A. Levitan30, Daniel Storage31, Carlota Batres32, Janina Enachescu33, Jerome Olsen33, Martin Voracek33, Claus Lamm34, Ekaterina Pronizius34, Tilli Ripp35, Jan Philipp Röer35, Roxane Schnepper35, Marietta Papadatou-Pastou36, Aviv Mokady37, Niv Reggev37, Priyanka Chandel38, Pratibha Kujur38, Babita Pande38, Arti Parganiha38, Noorshama Parveen38, Sraddha Pradhan38, Margaret Messiah Singh38, Max Korbmacher39, Jonas R. Kunst40, Christian K. Tamnes40, Frederike S. Woelfert40, Kristoffer Klevjer41, Sarah E. Martiny41, Gerit Pfuhl41, Sylwia Adamus42, Krystian Barzykowski42, Katarzyna Filip42, Patrícia Arriaga43, Vasilije Gvozdenović44, Vanja Ković44, Tao-tao Gan45, Chuan-Peng Hu46, Qing-Lan Liu45, Zhong Chen47, Fei Gao47, Lisa Li47, Jozef Bavoľár48, Monika Hricová48, Pavol Kačmár48, Matúš Adamkovič49,50, Peter Babinčák49, Gabriel Baník49,50, Ivan Ropovik50,69, Danilo Zambrano Ricaurte51, Sara Álvarez Solas52, Harry Manley53, Panita Suavansri53, Chun-Chia Kung54, Belemir Çoktok55, Asil Ali Özdoğru55, Çağlar Solak56, Sinem Söylemez56, Sami Çoksan57, John Protzko58, İlker Dalgar59, Mahmoud Elsherif60, Martin Vasilev61, Vinka Mlakic62, Elisabeth Oberzaucher63, Stefan Stieger62, Selina Volsa62, Janis Zickfeld64, & Christopher R. Chartier24

1 Department of Human Development and Psychology, Tzu-Chi University, Hualien, Taiwan

2 Harrisburg University of Science and Technology, Harrisburg, PA, USA

3 Institute of Psychology, ELTE, Eotvos Lorand University, Budapest, Hungary

4 Department of Psychology, Willamette University,Salem OR, USA

5 Institute of Cognition and Culture, Queen’s University Belfast, UK

6 Department of Psychology, Lancaster University, Lancaster, United Kingdom

7 LIP/PC2S, Université Grenoble Alpes, Grenoble, France

8 Department of Clinical Psychology, United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, UAE

9 Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu, Jubail, Saudi Arabia

10 Psychology Department, College of Education, Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

11 Department of Experimental Psychology, Institute of Psychology, University of Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, Brazil

12 School of Psychology, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

13 Department of Psychology, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia

14 Department of Psychology, Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada

15 Department of Psychology, University of Essex, Colchester, UK

16 School of Social, Psychological and Behavioural Sciences, Coventry University, Coventry, UK

17 Department of Psychology, Maynooth University, Maynooth, Ireland

18 Division of Psychology, School of Social and Health Sciences, Abertay University, Dundee, UK

19 School of Psychology, Faculty of Health Sciences and Wellbeing, University of Sunderland, Sunderland, UK.

20 Department of Psychiatry and Psychological Health, Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Sabah, Malaysia

21 School of Psychology, University of Nottingham Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

22 Department of Psychology, Alex Ekwueme Federal University, Ndufu-Alike, Nigeria

23 School of Psychology, University of Auckland, Auckland, NZ

24 Department of Psychology, Ashland University, Ashland, OH, USA

25 Hubbard Decision Research, Glen Ellyn, IL, USA

26 School of Psychological and Behavioral Sciences, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL, USA

27 Department of Psychology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA

28 Department of Psychology, Ithaca College, Ithaca, NY, USA

29 Department of Psychology, University of Louisiana at Lafayette, Lafayette, LA, USA

30 Department of Cognitive Science, Occidental College, Los Angeles, USA

31 Department of Psychology, University of Denver, Denver, CO, USA

32 Department of Psychology, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, PA, USA

33 Faculty of Psychology, University of Vienna, Wien, Austria

34 Department of Cognition, Emotion, and Methods in Psychology, Faculty of Psychology, University of Vienna, Wien, Austria

35 Department of Psychology and Psychotherapy, Witten/Herdecke University, Germany

36 School of Education, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece

37 Department of Psychology, Ben Gurion University, Beersheba, Israel

38 School of Studies in Life Science, Pt. Ravishankar Shukla University, Raipur, India

39 Department of Biological and Medical Psychology, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway

40 Department of Psychology, University of Oslo, OSLO, Norway

41 Department of Psychology, UiT - The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway

42 Institute of Psychology, Jagiellonian University, Krakow, Poland

43 Iscte-University Institute of Lisbon, CIS-IUL, Portugal

44 Laboratory for Neurocognition and Applied Cognition, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Belgrade

45 Department of Psychology, Hubei University, Wuhan, China

46 School of Psychology, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, China

47 Faculty of Arts and Humanities, University of Macau, Macau, China

48 Department of Psychology, Faculty of Arts, Pavol Jozef Šafarik University in Košice, Slovakia

49 Institute of Psychology, University of Presov, Slovakia

50 Institute for Research and Development of Education, Faculty of Education, Charles university, Czechia

51 Faculty of Psychology, Fundación Universitaria Konrad Lorenz, Bogotá, Colombia

52 Ecosystem Engineer, Universidad Regional Amazónica Ikiam, Tena, Ecuador

53 Faculty of Psychology, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand

54 Department of Psychology, National Cheng Kung University, Tainan, Taiwan

55 Department of Psychology, Üsküdar University, İstanbul, Turkey

56 Department of Psychology, Manisa Celal Bayar University, Manisa,Turkey

57 Department of Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey

58 Department of Psychological Science, Central Connecticut State University, New Britain, CT, USA

59 Department of Psychology, Ankara Medipol University, Ankara, Turkey.

60 University of Leicester, UK

61 Bournemouth University,Talbot Campus, Poole, UK

62 Department of Psychology and Psychodynamics, Karl Landsteiner University of Health Sciences, Krems an der Donau, Austria

63 Department of Evolutionary Anthropology, University of Vienna, Wien, Austria

64 Department of Management Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark

65 Department of Psychology, Lund University, Lund, Sweden

66 Busara Center for Behavioral Economics, Nairobi, Kenya

67 Psychology Department, Faculty of Arts, Menoufia University, Shebin El-Kom, Egypt

68 Department of Psychology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, UK

69 Faculty of Education, University of Presov, Slovakia

Author note

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Miller: Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing; Anna Szabelska: Project administration, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing; Balazs Aczel: Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Pablo Bernabeu: Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing - review & editing; Patrick Forscher: Methodology, Writing - review & editing; Attila Szuts: Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Zahir Vally: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Ali H. Al-Hoorie: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Mai Helmy: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Caio Santos Alves da Silva: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Luana Oliveira da Silva: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Yago Luksevicius de Moraes: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Rafael Ming C. S. 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Kunst: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Christian K. Tamnes: Investigation, Resources, Writing - review & editing; Frederike S. Woelfert: Investigation, Writing - review & editing; Kristoffer Klevjer: Investigation, Writing - review & editing; Sarah E. 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Chartier: Investigation, Project administration, Writing - review & editing.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Sau-Chin Chen, No. 67, Jei-Ren St., Hualien City, Taiwan. E-mail: [csc2009@mail.tcu.edu.tw](mailto:csc2009@mail.tcu.edu.tw)

Abstract

Mental simulation theories of language comprehension propose that people automatically create mental representations of objects mentioned in sentences. Mental representation is often measured with the sentence-picture verification task, wherein participants first read a sentence that implies the shape/size/color/orientation of an object and, on the following screen, a picture of an object. Participants then verify if the pictured object either matched or mismatched the implied visual information mentioned in the sentence. Previous studies indicated that matching items showed an advantage over mismatching items for shapes, but findings concerning object orientation were mixed across languages. This registered report investigated the match advantage of object orientation across 18 languages. The preregistered analysis revealed that there is no compelling evidence for a global match advantage, although some evidence of a match advantage in one language (German) was found. Additionally, the match advantage was not predicted by mental rotation scores. Overall, the results did not support current embodied cognition theories.

*Keywords:* language comprehension, mental simulation, object orientation, mental rotation, cross-lingual research

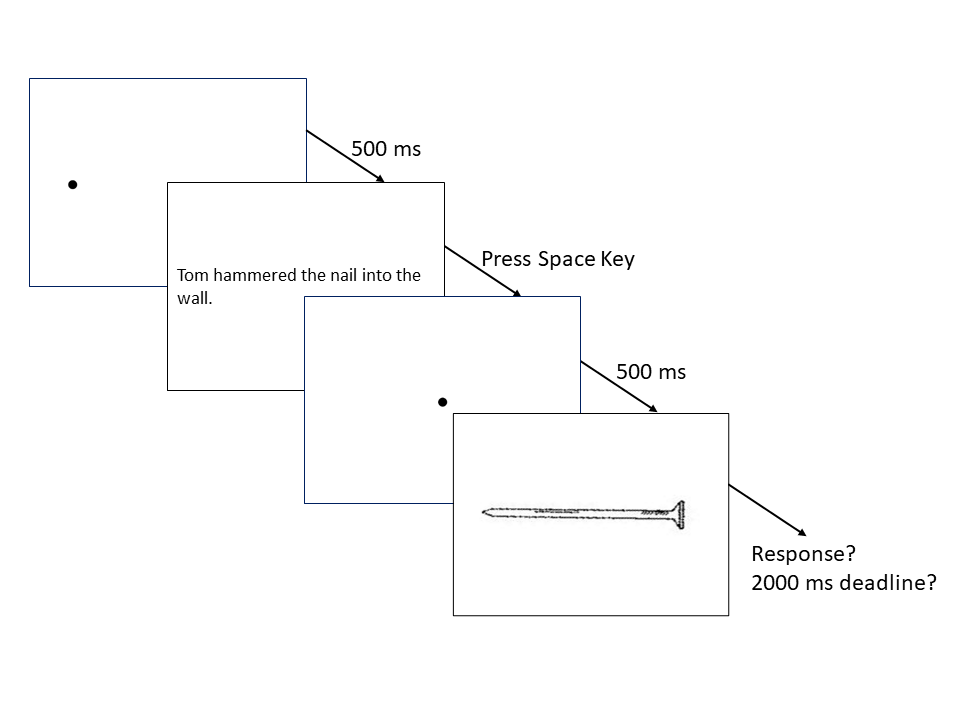
*Word count:* 5,138 words in total; Introduction: 1,242 words

Investigating Object Orientation Effects Across 18 Languages

Mental simulation of object properties is a major topic in conceptual processing research (Ostarek & Huettig, 2019; Scorolli, 2014). Theoretical frameworks of conceptual processing describe the integration of linguistic representations and situated simulation (e.g., reading about bicycles integrates the situation in which bicycles would be used, Barsalou, 2008; Zwaan, 2014). Proponents of situated cognition assume that perceptual representations are able to be generated during language processing (Barsalou, 1999; Wilson, 2002). Recently, neuroimaging studies have explored and attempted to corroborate this hypothesis by examining the cortical activation patterns from seeing visual images and reading text (see the summary of Ostarek & Huettig, 2019).

One empirical index of situated simulation is the mental simulation effects measured in the sentence-picture verification task (see Figure 1)). This task requires participants to read a probe sentence displayed on the screen. On the following screen, the participants see a picture of an object and must verify whether the object was mentioned in the probe sentence. Verification response times are operationalized as the mental simulation effect, which occurs when people determine if pictured objects whose properties match those of objects implied in the probe sentences more quickly than those properties that mismatch those of the objects. For example, the "eagle was moving through the air" would be matched more quickly if an eagle was depicted flying, rather than stationary.

(Insert Figure 1 about here)



*Figure* *1.*  Procedure of sentence-picture verification task.

Mental simulation effects have been demonstrated for object shape (Zwaan et al., 2002), color (Connell, 2007), and orientation (Stanfield & Zwaan, 2001). Subsequent replication studies revealed consistent results for the shape but inconsistent findings for the color and orientation effects (De Koning et al., 2017; Rommers et al., 2013; Zwaan & Pecher, 2012), and the theoretical frameworks do not provide researchers much guidance regarding the potential causes for this discrepancy. With the accumulating concerns about the lack of reproducibility (e.g., Kaschak & Madden, 2021), researchers have found it challenging to update the theoretical framework in terms of mental simulation effects being unreplicable. Researchers who intended to improve the theoretical framework necessarily require a reproducible protocol for measuring mental simulation effects.

An additional facet of this research is the linguistic representations of object properties may play a role in the unreliability of the mental simulation effect. Mental simulation effects for object shape have consistently appeared in English (Zwaan et al., 2017; Zwaan & Madden, 2005; Zwaan & Pecher, 2012), Chinese (Li & Shang, 2017), Dutch (De Koning et al., 2017; Engelen et al., 2011; Pecher et al., 2009; Rommers et al., 2013), German (Koster et al., 2018), Croatian (Šetić & Domijan, 2017), and Japanese (Sato et al., 2013). Object orientation, on the other hand, has produced mixed results across languages: see positive evidence in English (Stanfield & Zwaan, 2001; Zwaan & Pecher, 2012) and Chinese (Chen et al., 2020), null evidence in Dutch (De Koning et al., 2017; Rommers et al., 2013), and German as second language (Koster et al., 2018). Among the studies of shape and orientation, the results indicated smaller effect sizes of object orientation than that of object shape (e.g., *d* = 0.10 vs. 0.17; in Zwaan and Pecher (2012); 0.07 vs. 0.27 in De Koning et al. (2017)). To understand the causes for the discrepancies among object properties and languages, it is imperative to consider the cross-linguistic and experimental factors of the sentence-picture verification task.

## Cross-linguistic, Methodological, and Cognitive Factors

Several factors might contribute to cross-linguistic differences in the match advantage of orientation as a mental simulation effect, and we focused on context, methodological, and cognitive factors. Researchers have argued that languages differ in how they encode motion and placement events in sentences (Newman, 2002; Verkerk, 2014). In addition, the potential role of mental rotation as a confound has been considered (Rommers et al., 2013). We expand on how the context, experimental, and cognitive factors hinder the improvement of theoretical frameworks below.

**Context Factors.** The probe sentences used in object orientation studies usually contain several motion events (e.g., “The ant walked towards the pot of honey and tried to climb in.”). The languages we probed in this study encode motion events in different ways, and grammatical differences between language encodings could explain different match advantage results. According to Verkerk (2014), Germanic languages (e.g., Dutch, English, German) generally encode the manner of motion in the verb (e.g., ‘The ant dashed’), while conveying the path information through satellite adjuncts (e.g., ‘towards the pot of honey’). In contrast, other languages, such as the Romance family (e.g., Portuguese, Spanish) more often encode path in the verb (e.g., ‘crossing,’ ‘exiting’). Crucially, past research on the match advantage of object orientation is exclusively based on Germanic languages, and yet, there were differences across those languages, with English being the only one that consistently yielded the match advantage. As a minor difference across Germanic languages in this regard, Verkerk (2014) notes that path-only constructions (e.g., ‘The ant went to the feast’) are more common in English than in other Germanic languages.

Another topic to be considered is the lexical encoding of placement in each language, as the stimuli contains several placement events (e.g., ‘Sara situated the expensive plate on its holder on the shelf.’). Chen et al. (2020) and Koster et al. (2018) noted that some Germanic languages, such as German and Dutch, often make the orientation of objects more explicit than English. Whereas in English readers could use the verb “put” in both “She put the book on the table” and “She put the bottle on the table,” in both Dutch and German, readers could instead say “She laid the book on the table,” and “She stood the bottle on the table.” In these literal translations from German and Dutch, the verb “lay” encodes a horizontal orientation, whereas the verb “stand” encodes a vertical orientation. This distinction extends to verbs indicating existence. As Newman (2002) exemplified, an English speaker would be likely to say “There’s a lamp in the corner,” whereas a Dutch speaker would be more likely to say “There ‘stands’ a lamp in the corner.” Nonetheless, we cannot conclude that these cross-linguistic differences are affecting the match advantage across languages because the current theories (e.g., language and situated simulation, Barsalou, 2008) do not precisely define the complexity of linguistic aspects such as placement events.

**Methodological factors.** Inconsistent findings on the match advantage of object orientation may be due to reliability in task design. For example, studies failing to detect the match advantage may not have required participants to verify the probe sentences they had read (see Zwaan, 2014). Without such a verification, participants might have paid less attention to the meaning of the probe sentences, in which they would have been less likely to form a mental representation of the objects (e.g., Zwaan & van Oostendorp, 1993). In this regard, it is relevant to acknowledge that variability originating from individual differences and other characteristics of experiments can substantially influence the results (Barsalou, 2019; Kaschak & Madden, 2021).

**Cognitive Factors.** Since Stanfield and Zwaan (2001) showed a match advantage of object orientation, later studies on this topic have examined the association between the match advantage and alternative cognitive mechanisms rather than the situated simulation. Spatial cognition is one of the potential cognitive mechanisms, which may be measured with mental rotation tasks. Studies have suggested that mental rotation tasks offer valid reflections of previous spatial experience (Frick & Möhring, 2013) and of current spatial cognition (Chu & Kita, 2008; Pouw et al., 2014). De Koning et al. (2017) suggested that effectiveness of mental rotation could increase with the depicted object size. Chen et al. (2020) examined this implication in use of the picture-picture verification task that was designed using the mental rotation paradigm (Cohen & Kubovy, 1993). In each trial of this task, two pictures appear on opposite sides of the screen. Participants had to verify whether the pictures represent identical or different objects. This study not only indicated shorter verification times for the same orientation (i.e., two identical pictures presented in horizontal or vertical orientation) but also showed the larger time difference for the large size object (i.e., pictures of bridges versus pictures of pens). The pattern of results were consistent among their investigated languages: English, Dutch, and Chinese. In comparison with the results of sentence-picture verification and picture-picture verification, Chen et al. (2020) depicted that mental rotation may affect the comprehension in some languages versus others by converting the picture-picture verification times to the mental rotation scores that were the discrepancy of verification times between the identical and different orientation[[1]](#footnote-25). With this measurement, we explore the relation of mental rotation in spatial cognition and orientation effect in comprehension across the investigated languages.

## Purposes of this study

To scrutinize the discrepancies findings across languages and cognitive factors, we examined the reproducibility of the object orientation effect in a multi-lab collaboration. Our preregistered plan aimed at detecting a general match advantage of object orientation across languages and evaluated the magnitude of match advantage in each specific language. Additionally, we examined if match advantages were related to the mental rotation index. Thus, this study followed the original methods from Stanfield and Zwaan (2001) and addressed two primary questions: (1) How much of the match advantage of object orientation can be obtained within different languages and (2) How do differences in the mental rotation index affect the match advantage across languages?

# Method

## Hypotheses and Design

The study design for the sentence-picture and picture-picture verification task was mixed using between-participant (language) and within-participant (match versus mismatch object orientation) independent variables. In the sentence-picture verification task, the match condition reflects a match between the sentence and the picture, whereas in the picture-picture verification, it reflects a match in orientation between two pictures. The only dependent variable for both tasks was response time. The time difference between conditions in each task are the measurement of mental simulation effects (for the sentence-picture task) and mental rotation scores (for the picture-picture task). We did not select languages systematically, but instead based on our collaboration recruitment with the Psychological Science Accelerator (PSA, Moshontz et al., 2018).

We pre-registered the following hypotheses:

1. In the sentence-picture verification task, we expected response times to be shorter for matching compared to mismatching orientations within each language. In the picture-picture verification task, we expected shorter response time for identical orientation compared to different orientations. We did not have any specific hypotheses about the relative size of the object orientation match advantage in different languages.
2. Based on the assumption that the mental rotation is a general cognitive function, we expect equal mental rotation scores across languages but no association with mental simulation effects (see Chen et al., 2020).

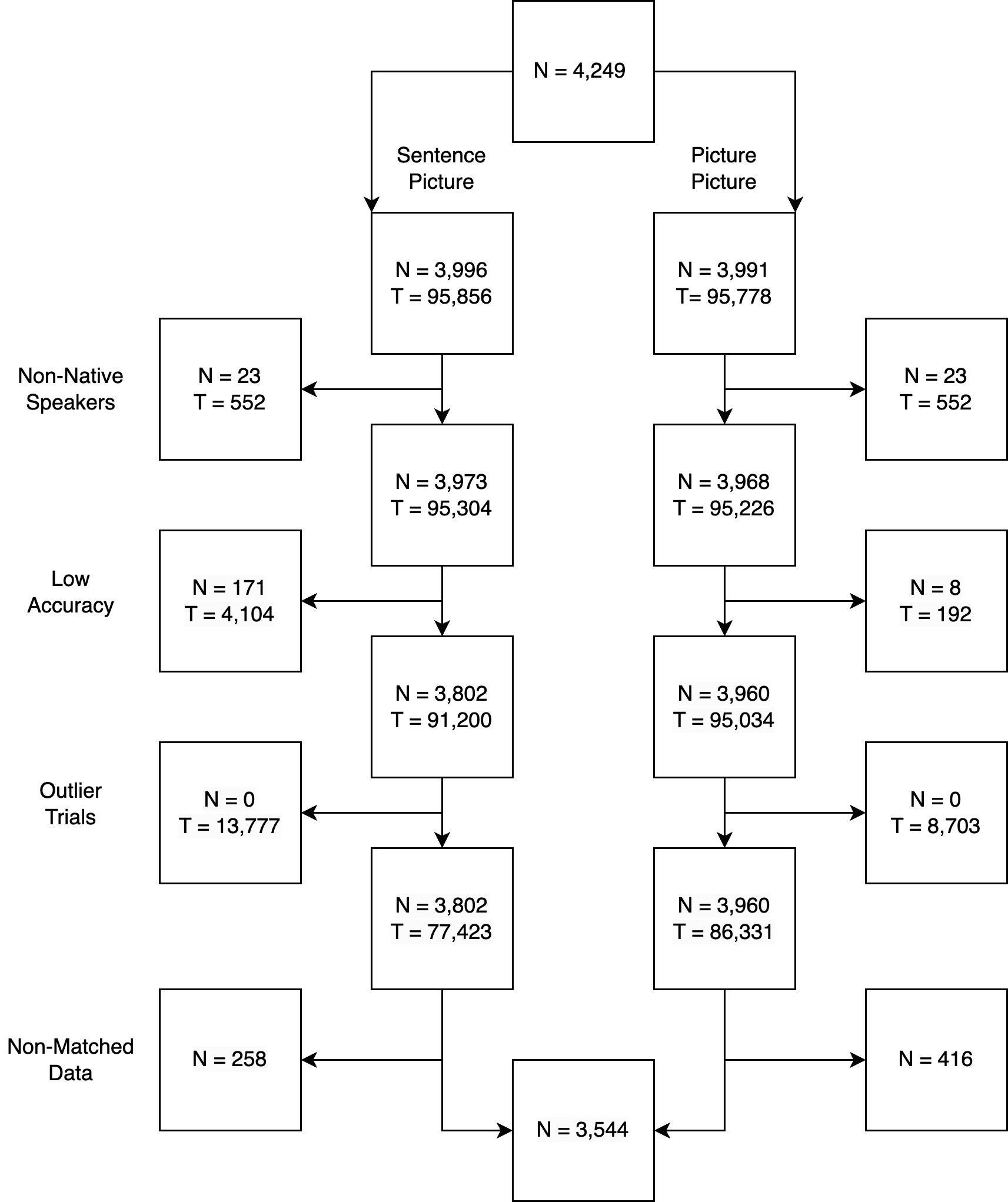
## Participants

The preregistered power analysis indicated *n* = 156 to 620 participants for 80% power for a directional one-sample *t*-test for a *d* = 0.20 and 0.10, respectively. A mixed-model simulation suggested that *n* = 400 participants with 100 items (i.e., 24 planned items nested within at least five languages) would produce 90% power to detect the same effect as Zwaan and Pecher (2012). The laboratories were allowed to follow a secondary plan: a team collected at least their preregistered minimum sample size (suggested 100 to 160 participants, most implemented 50), and then determine whether or not to continue data collection via Bayesian sequential analysis (stopping data collection if = 10 or )[[2]](#footnote-29).

We collected data in 18 languages from 50 laboratories. Each laboratory chose a maximal sample size and an incremental *n* for sequential analysis before their data collection. Because the preregistered power analysis did not match the final analysis plan, we additionally completed a sensitivity analysis to ensure sample size was adequate to detect small effects, and the results indicated that if the observed orientation difference in reaction time between the different orientations was overall 2.36 ms or higher, the effect would be detected as significant. Appendix A summarizes the details of sensitivity analysis.

The original sample sizes are presented in Table ?? for the teams that provided raw data to the project. Data collection proceeded in two broad stages: initially we collected data in the laboratory. However, when the global Covid-19 pandemic made this practice impossible to continue, we moved data collection online. In total, 4,248 unique participants completed the present study with 2,843 completing the in-person version and 1,405 completing the online version[[3]](#footnote-31). The in-person version included 35 research teams and the online version included 19 with 50 total teams across both data collection methods (i.e., some labs completed both in-person and online data collection). Based on recommendations from research teams, two sets of data were excluded from all analyses due to participants being non-native speakers. Figure 2 provides a flow chart for participant exclusion and inclusion for analyses. All participating laboratories had either ethical approval or institutional evaluation before data collection. All data and analysis scripts are available on the source files (<https://codeocean.com/capsule/9287673>). Appendix B summarizes the average characteristics by language and laboratory.

(Insert Figure 2 about here)



*Figure* *2.*  Sample size and exclusions. N = number of unique participants, T = number of trials. The final combined sample was summarized to a median score for each match/mismatch condition, and therefore, includes one summary score per person.

## General Procedure and Materials

In the beginning of the sentence-picture verification task, participants had to correctly answer all the practice trials. Each trial started with a left-justified and horizontally centered fixation point displayed for 1000 ms, immediately followed by the probe sentence. The sentence was presented until the participant pressed the space key, acknowledging that they understood the sentence. Then, the object picture (from Zwaan & Pecher, 2012) was presented in the center of the screen until the participant responded or it disappeared after 2 s. Participants were instructed to verify that the object on screen was mentioned in the probe sentence as quickly and accurately as they could. Following the original study (Stanfield & Zwaan, 2001), a memory check test was carried out after every three to eight trials to ensure that the participants had read each sentence carefully.

The translation workflow of probe sentences followed our preregistered plan. Every non-English language coordinator had to recruit at least four translators who were fluent in English and the target language. Every language coordinator supervised the translators using the Psychological Science Accelerator guidelines ([https://psysciacc.org/translation-process/](https://www.google.com/url?q=https://psysciacc.org/translation-process/&sa=D&source=docs&ust=1680671843449808&usg=AOvVaw2Lp4-G01CyfxaMyrZfwvmy)). In addition, the coordinator and participating laboratories consulted about each of the following points:

1. The translators could denote the items that are unfamiliar for a particular language based on object familiarity ratings. The forward translation team would suggest alternative probe sentences and object pictures to replace the unfamiliar objects. The backward translation team would evaluate the suggested items.
2. Some objects in a particular language have different spellings or pronunciations among countries and geographical zones due to dialect. For example, American individuals use **tire**; British individuals use **tyre**. Every coordinator would mark these local translations in the final version of translated materials. Participating laboratories could replace the names in consideration of local cultural usage.

The picture-picture verification task used the same object pictures. In each trial, two objects appeared on either side of the central fixation point until either the participant indicated that the pictures displayed the same object or two different objects or until 2 s elapsed. In the trials where the same object was displayed, the pictures on each side were presented in the same orientation (both were horizontal/vertical) or different orientations (one was horizontal, one was vertical).

The study was executed using OpenSesame software for millisecond timing (Mathôt et al., 2012). After data collection moved online, in order to minimize the differences between on-site and web-based studies, we converted the original Python code to Javascript and collected the data using OpenSesame through a JATOS server (Lange et al., 2015; Mathôt & March, 2022). We proceeded with the online study from February to June 2021 after the changes in the procedure were approved by the journal editor and reviewers. Following the literature, we did not anticipate any theoretically important differences between the two data collection methods (see Anwyl-Irvine et al., 2020; Bridges et al., 2020; de Leeuw & Motz, 2016). The instructions and experimental scripts are available at the public OSF folder (<https://osf.io/e428p/> “Materials” in Files).

## Analysis Plan

Our first planned analysis[[4]](#footnote-39) employed a random-effects meta-analysis model that estimated the match advantage across laboratories and languages. The meta-analysis summarized the median reaction times by match condition to determine the effect size by laboratory (). For the languages for which at least two teams collected data, we computed the meta-analytical effect size of that language.

Next, we ran planned mixed-effect models using each individual response time from the sentence-picture verification task as the dependent variable. In each analysis we first built a simple linear regression model with a fixed intercept only. Then, we systematically added fixed effect and random intercepts arriving at the final model. First, the random intercepts were added to the model one-by-one in the following order: participant ID, target, laboratory ID, and finally language. Please see below for decision criteria. Then, the fixed effect of matching condition (match vs. mismatch) was added to the model. Language-specific mixed-effect models were conducted in the same way if the meta-analysis showed a significant orientation effect.

According to the preregistration, we planned to first evaluate the equality of mental rotation scores across languages using an ANOVA. However, this plan was updated to use mixed models instead due the nested structure of the data (Gelman, 2006). The same analysis plan was used for model building and selection as described above for the sentence-picture verification task. The last planned analysis was to use mental rotation scores for the prediction of mental stimulation with an interaction between language and mental rotation scores to determine there were differences in prediction of match advantage based on language. This model was updated to a mixed-effects model to control for the random effect of the data collection lab.

**Decision criterion.** *p*-values were interpreted using the preregistered level of .05. *p*-values for each effect were calculated using the Satterthwaite approximation for degrees of freedom for individual predictor coefficients and meta-analysis (Luke, 2017). For model comparison and random effects selection, we compared the model fit measured by the AIC at each of these steps, to determine the best random effect structure for the model. Models with lower AIC were preferred over models with higher AIC, and in a case where the difference in AIC did not reach 2, the model with the fewer parameters was preferred.

**Intra-lab analysis during data collection.** Before data collection, each lab decided whether they wanted to apply a sequential analysis (Schönbrodt et al., 2017) or whether they wanted to settle for a fixed sample size. The preregistered protocol for labs applying sequential analysis established that they could stop data collection upon reaching the preregistered criterion (), or the maximal sample size. Each laboratory chose a fixed sample size and an incremental *n* for sequential analysis before their data collection. Two laboratories (HUN\_001, TWN\_001) stopped data collection at the preregistered criterion, . Fourteen laboratories did not finish the sequential analysis because (1) twelve laboratories were interrupted by the pandemic outbreak; (2) two laboratories (TUR\_007E, TWN\_002E) recruited English-speaking participants to comply with institutional policies. Lab-based records were reported on a public website as each laboratory completed data collection (details are available in Appendix C).

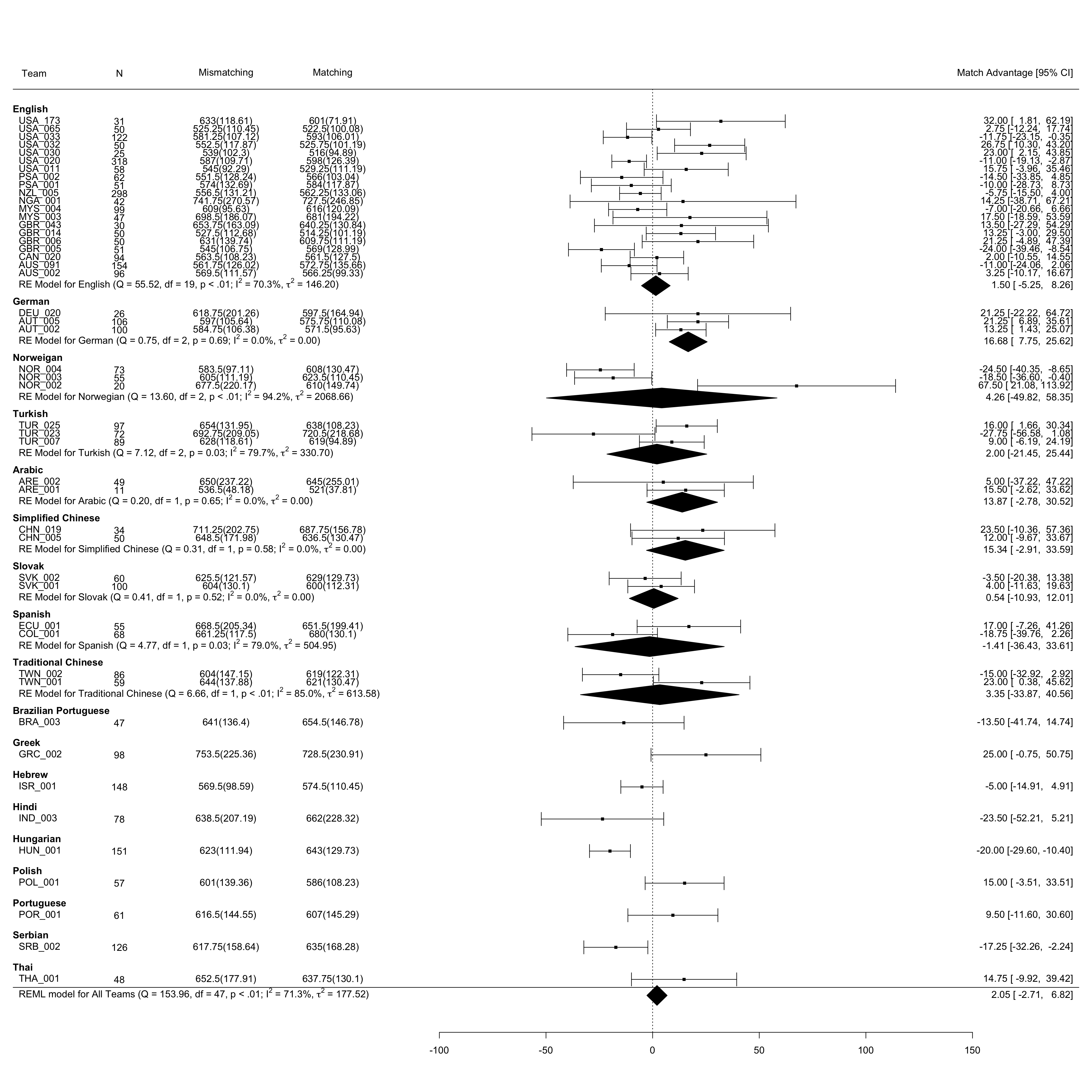
# Results

## Data Screening

As shown in Figure 2, entire participants were first removed from the sentence-picture and picture-picture tasks if they did not perform at 70% accuracy. Next, the data were screened for outliers. Our preregistered plan excluded outliers based on a linear mixed-model analysis for participants in the third quantile of the grand intercept (i.e., participants with the longest average response times). After examining the data from both online and in-person data collection, it became clear that both a minimum response latency and maximum response latency should be employed, as improbable times existed at both ends of the distribution. The minimum response time was set to 160 ms based on Hick’s Law (Kvålseth, 2021; Proctor & Schneider, 2018). The maximum response latency was calculated as two times the mean absolute deviation plus the median calculated separately for each participant. Exclusions were performed at the trial level for these outlier response times.

In order to ensure equivalence between data collection methods, we evaluated the response times predicted by the fixed effects of the interaction between match (match versus mismatch) and data collection source (in-person, online). We included random intercepts of participants, lab, language, and random slopes of source by lab, and source by language. This analysis showed no difference between data sources: *b* = 2.41, *SE* = 2.77, *t*(73729.28) = 0.87, *p* = .385. Therefore, the following analyses did not separate in-person and online data. Table ?? provides a summary of the match advantage by language for the sentence-picture verification task.

## Meta-Analysis



*Figure* *3.*  Meta-analysis on match advantage of object orientation for all languages

The planned meta-analysis examined the effect overall and within languages wherein at least two laboratories had collected data (Arabic, English, German, Norway, Simplified Chinese, Traditional Chinese, Slovak, and Turkey). Figure 3 showed a significant positive orientation effect across German laboratories (*b* = 16.68, 95% CI [7.75, 25.62]) but did not reveal a significant overall effect (*b* = 2.05, 95% CI [-2.71, 6.82]). Also, a significant negative orientation effect was found in the Hungarian (*b* = -20.00, 95% CI [-29.60, -10.40]) and the Serbian laboratory (*b* = -17.25, 95% CI [-32.26, -2.24]), although in these languages only a single laboratory participated, so no language-specific meta-analysis was conducted.

(Insert Figure 3 about here)

## Mixed-Linear Modeling

First, an intercept only model of response times with no random intercepts was computed for comparison purposes 1008828.79. The model with the participant random intercept was an improvement over this model 971783.32. The addition of a target random intercept improved model fit over the participant intercept only model 969506.32. Data collection lab was then added to the model as a random intercept, also showing model improvement 969265.28, and the random intercept of language was added last 969263.66 which did not show model improvement at least 2 points change. Last, the fixed effect of match advantage was added with approximately the same fit as the three random-intercept model, 969265.06. This model did not reveal a significant effect of match advantage: *b* = -0.17, *SE* = 1.20, t(69830.14) = -0.14, *p* = .887.

We conducted an exploratory mixed-effect model on German data as this was the only language indicating a significant match advantage in the meta-analysis. An intercept-only model with random effects for participants, target, and lab was used as a comparison, 55828.57. The addition of the fixed effect of match showed a small improvement over this random-intercept model, 55824.52. While the AIC values indicated a significant change, the *p*-value did not reveal a significant effect of match advantage: *b* = 4.84, *SE* = 4.12, t(4085.71) = 1.17, *p* = .241. All the details of the above fixed effects and random intercepts are summarized in Appendix D.

## Mental Rotation Scores

Using the same steps as described for the sentence-picture verification mixed model, we first started with an intercept only model with no random effects for comparison 1029362.78. The addition of subject 979873.47, item 977037.64, lab 976721.45, and language 976717.46 random intercepts all subsequently improved model fit. Next, the match effect for object orientation was entered as the fixed effect for mental rotation score, 973054.93, which showed improvement over the random intercepts model. This model showed a significant effect of object orientation, *b* = 32.30, *SE* = 0.53, t(79585.24) = 61.23, *p* = < .001, such that identical orientations were processed faster than rotated orientations. The coefficients of all considered mixed-effects models are reported in Appendix E, along with all effects presented by language.

## Prediction of Match Advantage

The last analysis included a mixed effects regression model using the interaction of language and mental rotation to predict match advantage. First, an intercept only model was calculated for comparison, 42678.66, which was improved slightly by adding a random intercept of data collection lab, 42677.80. The addition of the fixed effects interaction of language and imagery improved the overall model, 42633.44. English was used as the comparison group for all language comparisons. No interaction effects or the main effect of mental rotation were significant, and these results are detailed in Appendix 5.

# Discussion

This study aimed to verify the existence of a global object orientation effect and to estimate the magnitude of object orientation effect in each particular language. The findings of our study do not support the existence of the object orientation effect as a language-general phenomenon. Our data also failed to replicate the effects in English and Chinese, languages in which the effect has been reported previously (Chen et al., 2020; Stanfield & Zwaan, 2001; Zwaan & Pecher, 2012). The only language in which we found an indication of the orientation effect in the predicted direction was German in our meta-analysis, but this effect was not supported by the mixed-effect model approach. Mixed-effect models indicated significant mental rotation scores for each language. However, the mental rotation score did not predict the object orientation effects nor interact with language. Overall, the failure to replicate the previously reported object orientation effects casts doubt on the existence of the effect as a language-general phenomenon (Kaschak & Madden, 2021). Below, we summarize the lessons and limitations of the methodology and analysis, and discuss theoretical issues related to the orientation effect as an effective probe to investigate the mental simulation process.

## Methodology

By examining the failed team-level replications of the English orientation effects (see Figure 3), researchers can learn the possible factors (such as the participants' language proficiency or backgrounds) that may have contributed to the discrepancies between this project and the original studies. Although our project had a larger sample size of English participants compared to the original studies [Stanfield and Zwaan (2001); Zwaan and Pecher (2012), the English participants came from multiple countries where different dialects are spoken. Although we prepared an alternative version of the stimuli for British English, these two versions of English stimuli did not cover all English language backgrounds, such as participants from Malaysia and Africa. Despite the overall non-significant effect in all English data, the meta-analysis indicated three significant positive team-based effects (USA\_173, USA\_030 and USA\_032, see Figure 3), and also three significant negative effects (USA\_33, USA\_20, and GBR\_005, see Figure 3).

Regarding the failed replication of Chinese orientation effects, we have to note that the past study used simpler sentence content compared to this project. Chen et al. (2020) used the probe sentences in which the target objects were the subject of sentences (e.g., The **nail** was hammered into the wall). The Chinese probe sentences in this project were translated from the English sentences used in Stanfield and Zwaan (2001), in which the target objects are the object of sentences (e.g., The carpenter hammered the **nail** into the wall). Potentially, the object orientation effect is present or stronger when the target objects are the subject of the sentence, rather than the direct object, and future studies could explore this linguistic component.

Last, past studies that employed a secondary task among the experimental trials (Chen et al., 2020; Kaschak & Madden, 2021; Stanfield & Zwaan, 2001) showed a positive object orientation effect. In our study, the memory check requirement in this project did not increase the likelihood to detect the mental simulation effects. In addition, we do not find that mental imagery predicted match advantage, which implies that this strategy to ensure linguistic processing had limited influence in our study.

## Analysis Issues

The orientation effects were analyzed using a meta-analytic approach and mixed-effects models. Both approaches did not reveal an overall effect of object orientation. In the language-by-language analysis, a significant orientation effect was found in German language data in the meta-analysis. The mixed model analysis did not confirm this result, since the effect in the German data was not significant according to our preregistered test criteria. It is worth noting that there is considerable debate in the statistical community regarding the precision of the p-values computed for linear mixed models (Bolker, 2015). One alternative approach to testing the significance of a fixed effect predictor is assessing the difference in AIC model fit index between a model that contains a fixed effect predictor and one that does not. Using this approach the effect of orientation in the German language data is significant in the mixed effect model as well, meaning that the results of the meta-analysis and the mixed-effect model are compatible. Nevertheless, even if the orientation effect exists in the German language, the size of the effect seems minute, estimated at 16.68 ms by the meta-analysis and 4.84 ms by the mixed-model.

## Theoretical Issues

Theorists of mental simulation have proposed the cognitive processing framework that explains how the human mind converts sentences into either abstract symbols or grounded mental representations (Barsalou, 1999, 2008; Zwaan, 2014). However, the tasks used to test these theories rely on priming-based logic, whereby a designed sentence generates perceptual representations along some dimension (such as orientation) that facilitates or interferes with perceptual processing [McNamara (2005); Kaschak and Madden (2021). Priming-logic implies that the reading of the sentence will activate perceptual imagery, thus facilitating a matching object picture, and causing interference for a mismatching picture. As discussed previously, the linguistic structure of languages is variable, and it may be that testing all languages together masks or adds unexpected variability to linguistic processing that is averaged across in analyses. Similar to the issues found with replication in the Chinese language, we may not know exactly what sentence content for each language can create the most priming for the object orientation effect. On the other hand, accumulating the small magnitude of orientation effects would reduce the theoretical importance of mental simulations in language comprehension. Future studies should examine the semantic and syntactic aspects, yet to be investigated in the published studies.

## Limitations

This study reflected the challenges to assess the mental simulation of object orientation across languages, especially when dealing with effects that require large sample sizes (see Loken & Gelman, 2017; Vadillo et al., 2016). Our data collection deviated from the preregistered plan because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the lack of participant monitoring online, and an inspection of the data, we post hoc used filtering on outliers in terms of participants' response times for both too quick (< 160 ms) and too slow responses (2 MAD beyond the median for each participant individually). After these exclusions, a mixed-effect model confirmed no difference of response times between in-person and online data.

Although we combined the two data sets in the final data analysis, it is worth considering that online participants' attention may be easily distracted given the lack of any environmental control and lack of experimenter assistance. Our planned analysis did not include the memory check responses, but this secondary task revealed that online participants had a higher percent correct than in-person participants, *t*(3,256.14) = 36.09, *p* < .001, = 85.51 (*SD* = 14.15) and = 67.68 (*SD* = 16.27).

## Conclusion

This project did not find evidence for a general orientation effect across languages. Furthermore, the study failed to replicate previous results in which the orientation effect was detected in some specific languages. These findings challenge the existence of this effect. We explore the limitations of methodology and analysis, such as the participants' language backgrounds and the difference of stimuli properties between studies, that may insufficiently maximize object orientation effects. These constraints that are beyond the scope of our plan reveal the psychological and linguistic factors yet to be considered in the latest mental simulation theories. Our findings on the orientation effects question the theoretical importance of mental simulation in linguistic processing but yet give clues to other avenues of investigation.

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# (APPENDIX) Appendix

# Sensitivity Analyses

The R codes for the sensitivity analysis on the trial level were written by Erin M. Buchanan.

## Load data and run models

The data for the sensitivity analysis shared the same exclusion criterion for the preregistered mixed-effect models. First, we shall determine if there is a minimum number of trials required for stable results.

## View the Results

## [1] -0.17 -0.17 -0.17 -0.17 -0.18 -0.12 0.49 -0.14 0.67 3.11

## [1] ".887" ".887" ".887" ".890" ".880" ".918" ".687" ".913" ".647" ".150"

As we can see, the effect is generally negative until participants were required to have 7-12 correct trials. When participants accurately answer all 12 trials the effect is approximately 3 ms. Examination of the p-values indicates that no coeffecients would have been considered significant.

## Calculate the Sensitivity

Given we used all data points, the smallest detectable effect with our standard error and degrees of freedom would have been:

## [1] 2.356441

# Data Collection Logs

The log website was initiated since the data collection began. The public logs were updated when a laboratory updated their data for the sequential analysis. The link to access the public site is: <https://scgeeker.github.io/PSA002_log_site/index.html>

If you want to check the sequential analysis result of a laboratory, at first you have to identify the ID and language of this laboratory from “Overview” page. Next you will navigate to the language page under the banner “Tracking Logs”. For example, you want to see the result of “GBR\_005”. Navigate “Tracking Logs -> English”. Search the figure by ID “GBR\_005”.

The source files of the public logs are available in the github repository: <https://github.com/SCgeeker/PSA002_log_site>

All the raw data and log files are compressed in the project OSF repository. Direct access link: <https://osf.io/rg8a3/>

The R code to conduct the Bayesian sequential analysis is available at “data\_seq\_analysis.R”. Direct access link is: <https://github.com/SCgeeker/PSA002_log_site/blob/master/data_seq_analysis.R>

**Note 1** USA\_067, BRA\_004 and POL\_004 were unavailable because the teams withdrew.

**Note 2** Some mistakes happened between the collaborators’ communications and required advanced data wrangling. For example, some AUS\_091 participants were assigned to NZL\_005. The Rmd file in NZL\_005 folder were used to identify the AUS\_091 participants’ data then move them to AUS\_091 folder.

## Datasets

Complete data can be found online with this manuscript or on each collaborators OSF page. Please see the Lab\_Info.csv on <https://osf.io/e428p/>.

## Flunecy test for the online study

At the beginning of the online study, participants will hear the verbal instruction narrated by a native speaker. The original English transcript is as below:

“In this session you will complete two tasks. The first task is called the sentence picture verification task. In this task, you will read a sentence. You will then see a picture. Your job is to verify whether the picture represents an object that was described in the sentence or not. The second task is the picture verification task. In this task you will see two pictures on the screen at the same time and determine whether they are the same or different. Once you have completed both tasks, you will receive a completion code that you can use to verify your participation in the study.”

The fluency test are three multiple choice questions. The question text and the correct answers are as below:

* How many tasks will you run in this session?  
  A: 1 \*B: 2 C: 3
* When will you get the completion code?  
  A: Before the second task B: After the first task \*C: After the second task
* What will you do in the sentence-picture verification task?  
  A: Confirm two pictures for their objects  
  \*B: Read a sentence and verify a picture C: Judge sentences for their accuracy

## Distributions of scripts

The instructions and experimental scripts are available at the public OSF folder (<https://osf.io/e428p/> “Materials/js” folder in Files). To upload to a jatos server, a script had to be converted to the compatible package. Researchers could do this conversion by “OSWEB” package in OpenSesame. We rent an remote server for the distributions during the data collection period. Any researcher would distribute the scripts on a free jatos server such as MindProbe ( <https://www.mindprobe.eu/> ).

# Demographic Characteristics by Lab

# Model Estimates for Mental Simulation

All model estimates are given below for the planned mixed linear model to estimate the matching effect for object orientation in the sentence picture verification task.

# Model Estimates for Mental Rotation

All model estimates are given below for the mixed linear model for the prediction of mental rotation scores by orientation, and the effects of predicting mental simulation effects (object orientation) with the mental rotation scores.

1. In the preregistered plan, we used the term “imagery score” but this term was confusing. Therefore, we used “mental rotation scores” instead of “imagery scores” in the final report. [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
2. See details of power analysis in the preregistered plan, p. 13 ~ 15. <https://psyarxiv.com/t2pjv/> [↑](#footnote-ref-29)
3. Data for this study was collected together with another unrelated study (Phills et al., 2022) during the same data collection session, with the two studies using different data collection platforms. The demographic data was collected within the platform of the other study during the in-person sessions. Some participants only completed the Phills et al. study and dropped out without completing the present study, and there were also some data entry errors in the demographic data. Thus, the demographic data of some participants who took the present study are missing or unidentifiable (*n* = 39 cannot be matched to a lab, *n* = 2,053 were missing gender information, and *n* = 332 were missing age information). Importantly, this does not affect the integrity of the experimental research data. [↑](#footnote-ref-31)
4. See the analysis plan in the preregistered plan, p. 19 ~ 20. <https://psyarxiv.com/t2pjv/> This plan was changed to a random-effects model to ensure that we did not assume the exact same effect size for each language and lab. [↑](#footnote-ref-39)