

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Gender and autistic traits modulate implicit motor synchrony

Miao Cheng¹, Masaharu Kato^{2,3}, Chia-huei Tseng^{4*}

1 Department of Psychology, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China, **2** NTT Communication Science Laboratories, NTT Corporation, Atsugi, Japan, **3** Center for Baby Science, Doshisha University, Kyoto, Japan, **4** Research Institute of Electrical Communication, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan

* CH_Tseng@alumni.uci.edu



OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Cheng M, Kato M, Tseng C-h (2017) Gender and autistic traits modulate implicit motor synchrony. PLoS ONE 12(9): e0184083. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083>

Editor: Mariska E. Kret, Leiden University, NETHERLANDS

Received: February 10, 2017

Accepted: August 17, 2017

Published: September 5, 2017

Copyright: © 2017 Cheng et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files.

Funding: CT is supported by the Cooperative Research Project Program from Research Institute of Electrical Communication at Tohoku University, and the Seed Funding Programme for Basic Research from the University of Hong Kong. MK is supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science Kakenhi JP17K01923, JP24119006.

Competing interests: Author Masaharu Kato is employed by NTT corporation. NTT corporate does not play any role in the study design, data

Abstract

Interpersonal motor synchrony during walking or dancing is universally observed across cultures, and this joint movement was modulated by physical and social parameters. However, human interactions are greatly shaped by our unique traits, and self-related factors are surprisingly little studied in the context of interpersonal motor synchrony. In this study, we investigated two such factors known to be highly associated with motor coordination: gender and autistic traits. We employed a real-world task extending our understanding beyond laboratory tasks. Participants of the same gender were paired up to walk and chat in a natural environment. A cover story was introduced so that participants would not know their walking steps were being recorded and instead believed that their location was being tracked by a global positioning system (GPS), so they would ignore the motor recording. We found that the female pairs' steps were more synchronized than those of the males, and higher autistic tendencies (measured by the autism-spectrum quotient) attenuated synchronous steps. Those who synchronized better had higher impression rating increase for their walking partners (measured by interpersonal judgement scale) than those who synchronized less well. Our results indicated that the participants' joint movements were shaped by predisposed traits and might share similar mechanism with social functions such as empathy.

Introduction

Interpersonal motor synchrony is commonly observed in daily life. One kind of interpersonal motor synchrony is explicit and intentional, which usually occurs in a joint action requiring individuals deliberately moving along each other, for example, dancers coordinated body movements with their partners or soldiers sync steps in a military parade. The other kind, the focus of current study, is implicit and spontaneous, such as when individuals unintentionally sync their walking steps with others or audience automatically clapping[1] in a synchronized pattern. Although both kinds of synchrony involve simultaneous actions, explicit synchrony is both the purpose and the result of motor coordination while implicit synchrony is not the purpose but the result of motor coordination.

Recently, interpersonal synchrony and its confining factors such as physical parameters have attracted much research attention. A walking dyad with similar leg lengths tended to

collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. NTT corporation does not alter our adherence to PLOS ONE policies on sharing data and materials.

have more synchronized steps[2], and people exhibited less synchrony while rocking in chairs of vastly different weights[3]. When waving swords or clapping hands, dyad partners with differential weights attached to their wrists were less synchronized with each other[4]. When swinging pendulums, pairs holding pendulums of similar length were more stably and synchronously coordinated[5]. The interpersonal motor synchrony affected by discrepancies of a dyad's physical characteristics, from the perspective of coordination dynamics, is similar to the entrainment of two metronomes on a shared board affected by their natural frequencies. Smaller differences between two agents' intrinsic rhythms create less phase lag and promote the rhythmic synchronization of inanimate oscillations as well as movement harmony within a dyad[4]. Among these studies, participants' movements were tracked by motion sensors or motion capture markers placed on the participants' joints[2,4], the headrest of rocking chairs [3], and the end of pendulum[5]. In most cases, participants were requested to coordinate their movements with their partners and were aware of their movement being recorded.

Social factors related to others such as impressions and social relations also modulate the coherence and stability of interpersonal motor synchrony. For example, inherent and primed pro-social attitudes promote synchronous arm curls[6]. People tend to show more stable motor synchrony with a partner who is perceived more attractive[7] and punctual[8]. Besides, greater disparities in social competence[9] and aesthetic preferences[10] between two agents evoke greater interpersonal synchrony. Paxton and Dale [11] discovered that arguments inhibited the interpersonal convergence of body movements compared to less competitive conversations, while Tschacher et al.[12] found that a debate promoted greater levels of body synchrony than a cooperative conversation. Most of above-mentioned studies[7–10] required participants to coordinate their movements with an assigned partner while the motion sensors were attached to the participants' joints, and participants possibly became aware of and placed attention on their motion synchrony. Two studies[11,12] were able to tap it in a more implicit way by misleading participants to think that the research aimed for conversation study, and participants' body motion recorded by hidden cameras was analyzed afterwards.

Another similar phenomenon that also involves interpersonal nonverbal behavior matching, non-conscious mimicry (i.e. spontaneous or automatic imitation), has been extensively studied. Non-conscious mimicry refers to spontaneous imitation of body movement (e.g. face rubbing and foot shaking) and facial expression[13], and it is also closely interacts with social factors[14,15]. Automatic mimicry behavior evokes positive social consequences [14,15], which includes increased liking[13], rapport[16], prosocial behavior[17,18], and reduced radical prejudice[19]. Social factors, such as in-group membership[20] and romantic interest for an attractive stranger[21] also boosted automatic mimicry frequency. Furthermore, individual differences predispose one's tendency to mimic other's behavior[15]. For example, people with secure attachment style tend to exhibit more mimicry behavior than people with insecure attachment style[22]. However, little is known whether implicit motor synchrony is also constrained by individual differences.

While influences from the social relation with others have been studied, fewer studies have investigated whether self-related factors may also predispose individuals to processes of interpersonal synchronization in predictable ways. In this study, we fill in the research gap by investigating the impact from two factors on motor synchronization.

The first factor is gender, which was a well-acknowledged factor to modulate our motor performance. Males have better gross motor performance than females in various activities (e.g., cutting maneuvers, treadmill locomotion, throwing, ball skills, and object control proficiency) from childhood[23–25] to adulthood[26–28], possibly because males are more physically active since the beginning in childhood[29–31]. However, do men's motor advantages stand when it comes to coordinating with others? In early infancy, mother-son pairs are more

likely than mother-daughter pairs to sync their gazes and affective behaviors during face-to-face interactions[32,33]. In a recent study, Valdesolo, Ouyang, and Desteno found that synchronizing in rocking chairs enhanced performance in a subsequent joint motor coordination task[34]. Although little evidence from adult studies reports gender difference in interpersonal motor synchrony, it is tempting to speculate that males may benefit from their motor coordination abilities and sync better because both motor coordination activities and interpersonal synchrony require skills of analyzing anticipating external feedback and act accordingly at a precise timing[35].

However, as motor synchrony is also modulated by social factors with others, in which females are known to be superior (e.g., empathy and social communication), it leads to an opposite prediction: females sync better than males. It has been well studied that females' strength in decoding non-verbal cues. Perceptually, females are more sensitive than males to non-verbal cues such as emotion in faces[36–41] and biological motion[42,43]. Females also have stronger brain activity in areas related to social perception while processing biological motion[44]. In addition, females are also more emotionally expressive than male in facial expressions[41,45,46] and voice expressions[47]. Beginning in early infancy, females are more self-regulating in emotion expression; specifically, they show more positive and fewer negative emotions than males[33,48]. Last but not least, females feel more emotional contagion and mimic facial expression more than males[41]. Therefore, it is reasonable to hypothesize that that females are also more responsive than men to other's body movements, especially in terms of synchronizing their bodies to others'. It's intriguing to see how the two opposite predictions are reconciled in empirical studies and to investigate which factor contributes more to modulating implicit motor synchrony: motor abilities or social skills.

The second factor of our interest is autistic traits, which was motivated by the growing number of reports in clinically diagnosed autistic spectrum disorders (ASD) individuals. ASD patients, in addition to the well-known motor deficits[49–53], also show less interpersonal synchronization when required to intentionally take action in time with others[54], implicitly sync with caregivers in rocking chairs[55,56], and they also perform worse in imitation tasks[57–59] and social motor coordination tasks[54,60]. ASD participants have lower interpersonal brain synchrony in social brain areas when watching a film presenting social interactions compared to the typically developed (TD) population[61]. There is only one report that we are aware of that suggested that autistic traits were associated with interpersonal motor synchronization in healthy individuals. Schmidt and colleagues[62] revealed that less bodily synchronization was observed in a joke telling task when the responders were more autistic measured by autism-spectrum quotient (AQ) questionnaire[63]. However, individuals with high autistic tendencies are also known to have trouble understanding jokes[64], and motor synchrony is also influenced by agreement levels within a verbal communication[11]. It is possible that other cognitive factors such as incomprehension of jokes in addition to autistic tendency also contributed to reduced motor synchrony. As autistic trait is believed to be a continuum among the non-clinical population[63], it will add to the accumulated knowledge in the field by investigating whether the healthy individuals' autistic traits also connect to their behavioral synchrony.

The current study investigates healthy participants' gender, permanent traits (especially, autistic tendencies), and implicit interpersonal motor synchronization in a natural, everyday situation. Participants, meeting for the first time, walked along a pleasant path while freely talking about any topics of their choice. Normally, such an ice-breaking conversation includes contents that both parties fully comprehend, so that we can avoid possible confounding from incomprehension of communication such as in a joke-telling task[62]. Participants' steps were recorded with motion sensors disguised as GPS to preclude their awareness of the motion recording so they would not pay excessive attention to their movement.

Methods

This study applied between-subject design and we intended to recruit 60–80 pairs in each gender based on a study done by one of our co-authors [65]. For data collection efficiency, we hoped to pair each participant with every other one to maximize the possible number of pairs. Due to motor sensor availability, we planned to recruit eight participants in each session. The final number varied from 4–8 due to the enrollment situation (e.g. no-show).

Participants

A total of 31 female and 27 male participants were recruited. In all we conducted five sessions with females and four sessions with males. All participants provided written informed consent to participate the experiment. They were told a cover story, and the real purpose was disclosed to them at the end. All the procedures were approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Hong Kong (Reference No. EA231012). All methods were performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations.

Procedure

After participants arrived at the meeting room, they were instructed to fill out a personal information form (including age, height, weight, and foot length) and autism-spectrum quotient (AQ) questionnaire [63] (see [S1 File](#) for Chinese translation). Participants also rated their first impressions of every other participant using an interpersonal judgment scale (IJS) [66] (see [S2 File](#) for Chinese translation) (Byrne, 1971). The experimenter gave the participants misleading instructions to make them believe that this study was about how communication content affected interpersonal liking, and that the experiment would be conducted while walking to simulate a natural situation for communication and avoid interference from others. The walking path was part of a quiet and barrier-free path inside the University of Hong Kong. The distance was fixed, about 350 m, and it took participants approximately 6–9 minutes to finish one round trip. After filling out the AQ questionnaire and the pre-experiment IJS on their first impressions of the other subjects, participants walked individually to get familiar with the walking path. They were then paired with each other participant, successively, and immediately completed a post-experiment IJS, rating each partner again.

During the walks, the participants wore voice recorders. Their walking movements were recorded by acceleration sensors (ATR-promotions, TSND121) disguised as a GPS device, which were attached above their right ankles. The session continued until each participant had walked with every other participant in that session. Usually one session lasted 1–2.5 hours.

Data processing

The data processing details are shown in supplementary materials. We extracted the acceleration data from motion sensors and used auto correlation to obtain participants' duration required to complete one step (i.e. pitch), an indicator for walking tempo (our sensor did not provide walking distance, so walking speed was not available). Cross-correlation is to compute the lag between two walkers' footsteps, and the total duration when two walkers were phase-synchronized relative to the total walking period was defined as the phase synchronization time ratio [65].

Results

A total of 31 female and 27 male participants formed 84 female pairs and 81 male pairs. Because previous study showed that motor synchrony was affected by social relation [10,65],

we only included pairs of strangers who had never met each other before. After excluding 12 pairs who were acquaintance prior to the experiment, the data analysis was based on 77 female pairs and 76 male pairs. Age-related data analysis only had a sample size of 71 female pairs and 76 male pairs because of data loss. Female pairs were significantly younger (27.82 vs. 30.58 years old, $t(145) = 2.19, p = .030$), shorter (161.59 cm vs. 173.99 cm, $t(151) = 19.63, p < .001$), lighter (53.26 vs. 64.50 kg, $t(151) = 15.91, p < .001$), and had lower AQ (17.45 vs. 20.33, $t(151) = 5.16, p < .001$).

Gender, AQ, and walking tempo (pitch)

We first examined whether walking tempo associates with personal traits by applying a two (gender, between-subject) by two (individual/paired walk, within-subject) mixed designed ANOVA on the duration required per step (i.e. walking pitch, Fig 1A). We found significant interaction effect between two factors, $F(1, 256) = 6.293, p = .013, \eta^2 = .024$. Post-hoc tests revealed that the gender difference occurred only in individual walk ($t(256) = 4.349, p < .001$), but not in paired walk (Female = 1489.8, Male = 1487.7, $p = .780$). A similar 2 by 2 ANOVA was applied on walkers' AQ and the walking conditions (Fig 1B). Low AQ walkers had greater pitch than high AQ ones ($F(1, 256) = 6354, p = .012, \eta^2 = .024$). Similarly, people walk with significantly higher pitches in individual walk ($F(1, 256) = 30.925, p < .001, \eta^2 = .108$). The interaction effect was not significant, $p = .875$.

Gender, AQ, and walking synchrony

To estimate the gender difference of walking synchrony, a one-way between-subject analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted on phase synchronization time ratio (PSTR), controlling for the AQ mean, age mean, height difference, and weight difference of each dyad. Because participants' height and feet size were significantly correlated ($r = .816, n = 57, p < .001$), feet size is not included for analysis to avoid redundancy. Female pairs had significantly higher PSTR (55.09) than male pairs (48.08), $F(1, 141) = 8.246, p = .005, \eta^2 = .055$ (Fig 2). The

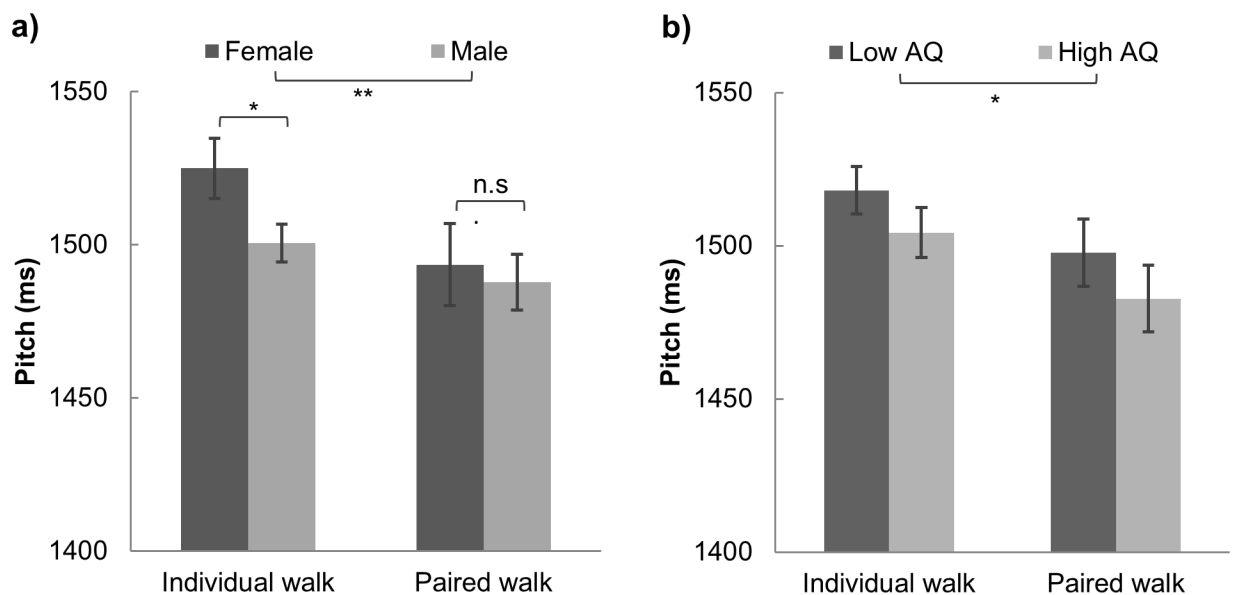


Fig 1. Gender, AQ and participants' walking pitch. Means and 95% confidence interval for walking pitch (duration for a complete footstep) for a) female and male dyads and b) low and high AQ pairs.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083.g001>

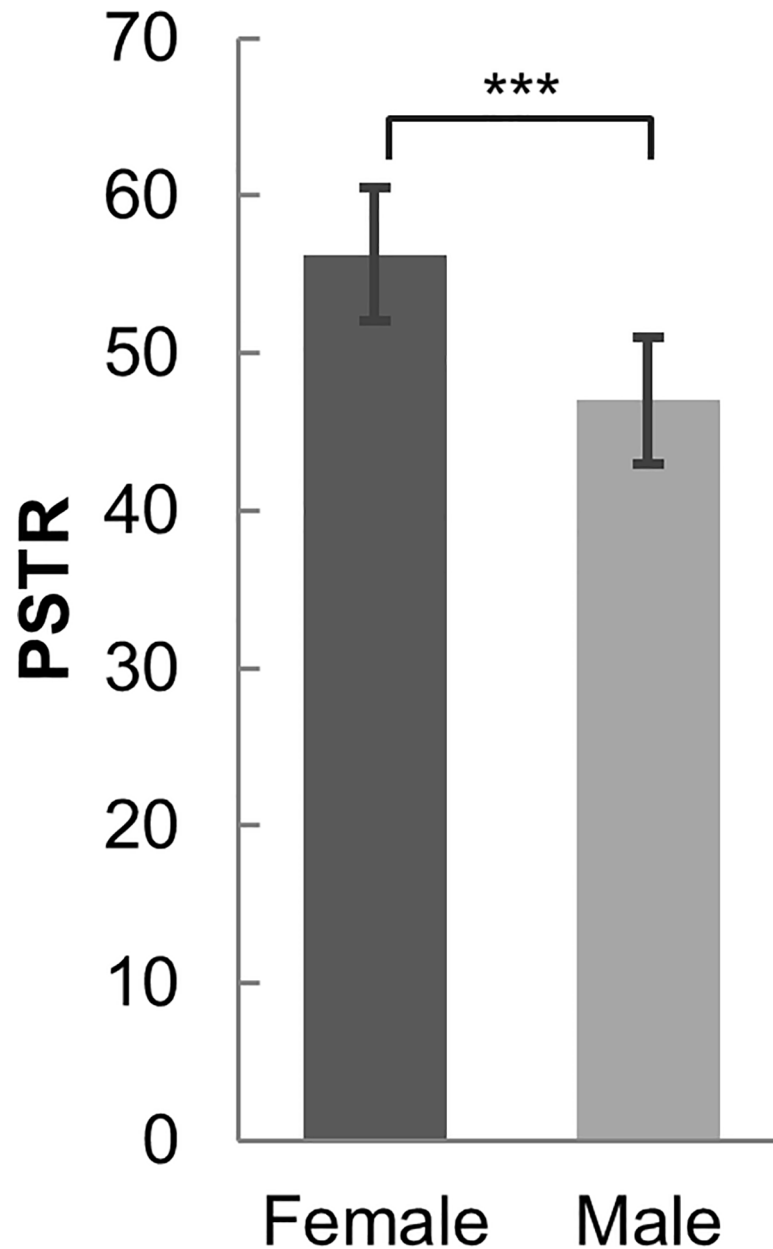


Fig 2. Gender difference in walking synchrony. Means and 95% confidence intervals for phase synchronization time ratio (PSTR) of female and male dyads (***, $p < .001$).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083.g002>

covariate, AQ mean of a dyad, was significantly related to PSTR ($F(1, 141) = 4.928, p = .028, \eta^2 = .034$).

To understand how each individual's AQ influenced walking synchrony, we classified all participants as either high or low AQ individuals with the average AQ (F: 17.45, M: 20.33). All pairs belonged to one of the three possibilities: low AQ with low AQ (lolo), high AQ with low AQ (hilo), and high AQ with high AQ (hihi). A two-way between-subject ANCOVA considering gender and AQ groups (lolo, hilo, and hihi) was conducted on PSTR, controlling for the age mean, height difference, and weight difference of the pairs. The main effect of AQ group, $F(2, 138) = 4.977, p = .008, \eta^2 = .067$ was significant, as was gender, $F(1, 138) = 20.44, p < .001$,

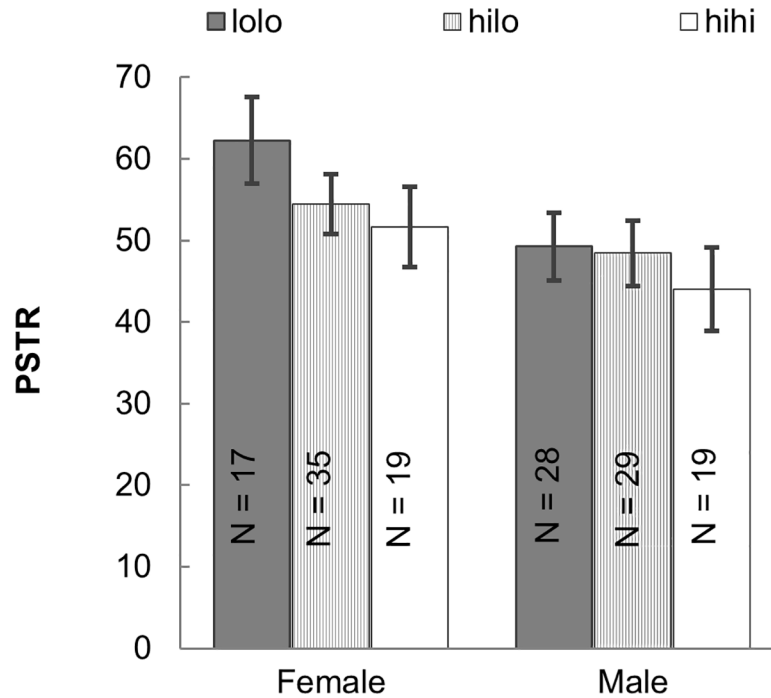


Fig 3. Walking synchrony in different AQ groups of each gender. Means and 95% confidence intervals for PSTR of female and male pairs in different AQ combination groups: high AQ with high AQ participant (hihi), high AQ with low AQ participant (hilo), and low AQ with low AQ participant (lolo). The AQ average of each gender group was used to classify all participants as either high or low AQ.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083.g003>

$\eta^2 = .129$. Planned contrasts revealed that lolo pairs (PSTR mean = 55.74 56.50) synced better than hihi pairs (hihi group: PSTR mean = 47.85, $p = .002$). The interaction between gender and AQ group was not significant, $p = .253$ (Fig 3).

Furthermore, we applied a multiple linear regression model to investigate which AQ subscales had the greatest effect on body coordination. Five AQ subscales (*social skills*, *attentional switching*, *attention to details*, *communication skills*, and *imagination*) were used to predict PSTR. The model explained a significant amount of variance in PSTR: $F(5, 147) = 4.734$, $R^2 = .139$, $p < .001$. Attentional switching ($Beta = -.195$, $p = .028$) and imagination ($Beta = -.240$, $p = .005$) significantly contributed to predict PSTR. The results imply that participants who received low scores in attentional switching and imagination synchronized less in walking than those who scored high.

Gender, AQ, and tempo adjustment during paired walking

Because footsteps tempo adjustment is required when two people walk side by side, we examined whether the flexibility of adjustment relates to one’s gender or AQ. For every walker, the tempo adjustment was defined as the difference between pitches in paired walk and in individual walk. The final analysis included 129 pairs after excluding 18 pairs data loss and additional 6 pairs with equal AQ scores.

We found significantly more drastic tempo adjustment in female walkers (31.443) than male ones (-12.642, $t(256) = 2.509$, $p = .013$), which implied that female walkers were more likely to adjust their walking tempo to their partners (Fig 4A). Tempo adjustment from high AQ group (average = -4.308) is not significantly different from the low AQ group (average = -4.072,

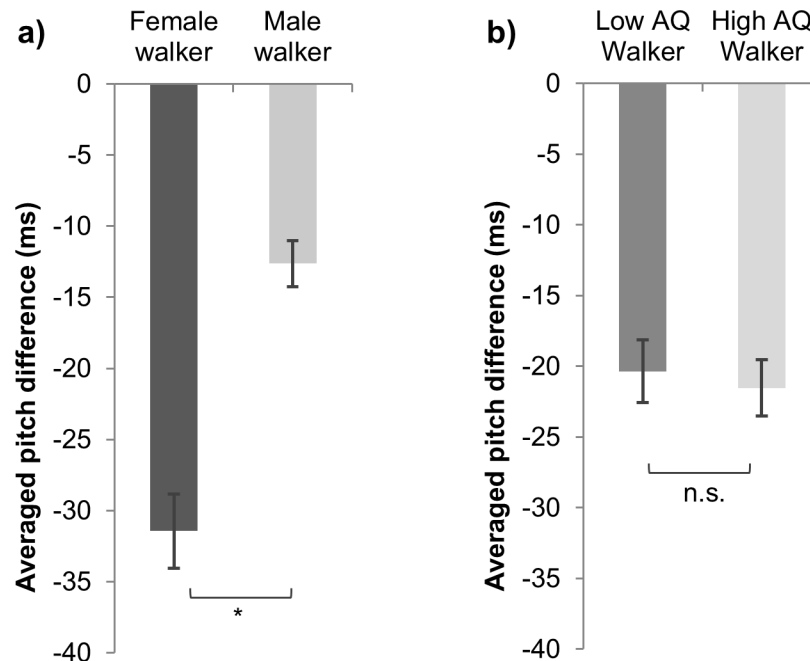


Fig 4. Gender, AQ, and tempo adjustment. Tempo adjustment (i.e. the difference of an individual's pitch when s/he walks alone and when s/he walks with a partner ($\text{pitch}_{\text{paired walk}} - \text{pitch}_{\text{individual walk}}$) means and 95% confidence intervals between a) walkers of two genders, and of b) different AQ groups (*, $p < .05$).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083.g004>

$t(256) = 0.157, p = .875$), which suggests that autistic trait didn't modulate how much one would adjust oneself to other's walking tempo (Fig 4B).

Walking synchronization and social consequence

In general, participants had better impressions of their partners after walking and chatting (Fig 5A). As evidence, a paired t -test showed that two walkers' average rating scores in interpersonal judgment scale (IJS) obtained after they were paired to walk (3.085) were significantly higher than the average pre-IJS scores (0.948), $t(152) = 19.185, p < .001$. In particular, female dyads' positive interpersonal impressions were significantly more enhanced than those of the male dyads ($t(151) = 2.312, p = .022, 95\% \text{ CI}[0.148, 1.884]$). The improvements in participants' impression changes during a paired walk was positively correlated with their motor synchrony with their partners ($r = .190, n = 153, p = .019, \text{ Fig 5B}$), which indicated that better-synced pairs showed greater increases in interpersonal impressions.

Because gender and AQ modulate PSTR, the correlation between PSTR and IJS differences might actually be affected by gender and AQ. We examined the association between PSTR and IJS while controlling gender and AQ. With respect to AQ, a significant partial correlation ($r(150) = .167, p = .040$) between PSTR and IJS difference was still observed. After gender effect was controlled, we found a marginally significant partial correlation ($r(150) = .140, p = .086$) between PSTR and IJS difference, implying that the effect was weaker than previously thought. To further explore the gender effect, we correlated PSTR with IJS differences separately for each gender. Female dyads showed a marginal positive correlation ($r(77) = .193, p = .092$), which suggested a promising interplay between walking synchrony and affection in female dyads. Male dyads showed no tendency of correlation ($r(76) = .075, p = .521$) between PSTR and IJS.

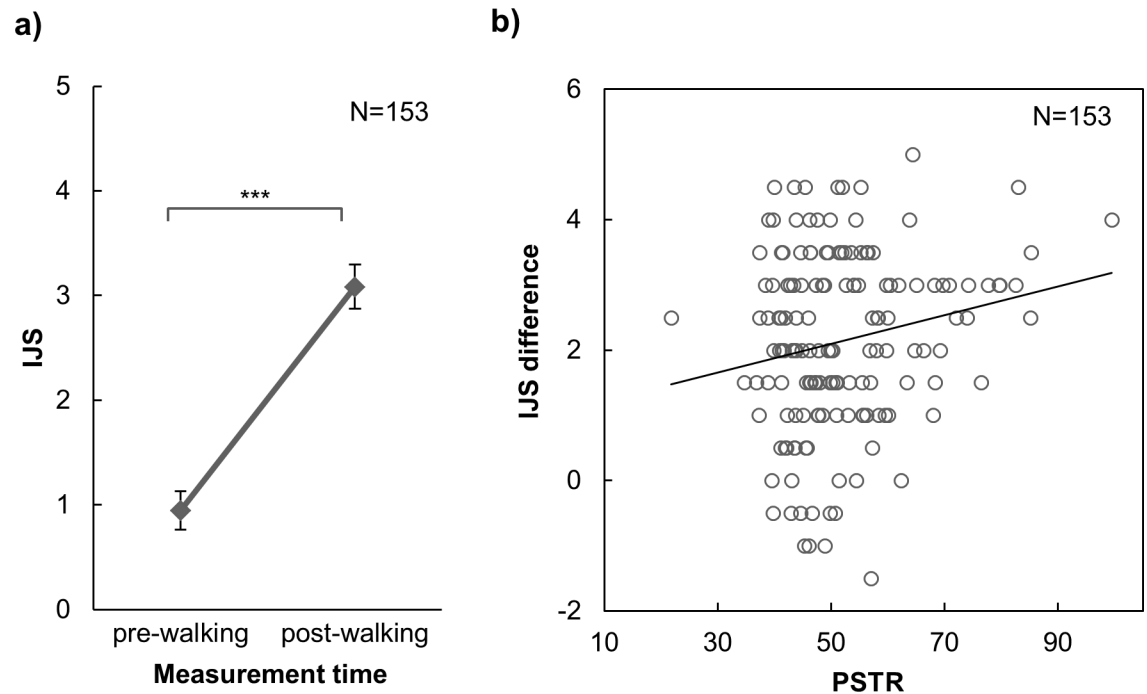


Fig 5. Results of walking synchrony and impression. a) Means and 95% confidence intervals for two walkers' total pre- and post-IJS scores. b) IJS difference and PSTR of each pair. IJS difference was obtained by subtracting the mean of two walkers' pre-IJS scores from the mean of their post-IJS scores (***, $p < .001$).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0184083.g005>

Conversation content

Although we did not conduct a systematic analysis on the conversation contents due to resource limitation, every pair was able to conduct a continuous conversation in our experiment. We listened to partial recorded files during organization, and the content usually were ice-breaking topics related to college student life, such as major, grade, course, life in dormitory, student associations, and etc.

Discussion

In this study, we found two factors that predispose individuals to joint movement with partners (i.e., motor synchrony) in a naturally social situation: (a) female pairs exhibited greater motor synchrony than male pairs; and (b) pairs with lower degrees of autistic traits synchronized better than those with higher degrees.

Interestingly, we found that females, in spite of their lower levels of physical activity[29,30] and worse motor performance than males[23–28], exhibited greater implicit motor synchrony in our experiment. Compared to other motion tasks, walking is almost effortless and automatic for all participants of both genders. Therefore, we speculate that motor skills are not the main force driving the gender difference here. Instead, additional social-cognitive factors in which females are known to be superior (e.g., empathy and social communication) might explain this advantage in walking synchrony. It is well known that females present higher levels of empathy than males, and empathy plays an important role in understanding other people's intention, which is also crucial for social motor coordination[67,68]. And motor coordination tasks also strengthen empathy[68,69]. Together with previous study showing gender difference in non-verbal communication, it is likely that gender differences in motor coordination may be a

characteristic of distinct social cognition and communication styles between females and males. Females' superiority in non-verbal communication reflect from decoding non-verbal cues[36–44], emotional expression[41,45–47], and emotion regulation[33,48]. Our study further shows that females are also more responsive than men to other's body movements, especially in terms of synchronizing their bodies to others'.

This study provides evidence showing that high autistic tendencies impede interpersonal motor synchronization in normal population, however the underlying mechanism needs further exploration. It's noteworthy that a study with a large sample ($N = 243$) reported that autistic traits failed to predict automatic hand gesture imitation[70]. This may indicate difference between non-conscious mimicry and implicit motor synchrony, which remains a topic for further investigation. One may feel the separation investigation of "autistic trait" and "gender" redundant because statistics show that more males than females are diagnosed with autism [63,71,72]. In this study, our male participants possess significantly higher autistic traits (measured by AQ) than female participants. However, it is noteworthy that the result of gender difference on synchronization was based on ANCOVA, where we controlled AQ over the gender difference. This means that the gender difference we found was free from AQ score. In addition, the gender difference in autistic trait among non-clinical population is less conclusive. Except the first study that reported significant lower AQ in healthy male participants than female participants[63], subsequent studies showed no statistical difference between healthy males and females[73–78]. The only exception study that reported higher AQ in female population[79] was based on a much bigger sample size (723 male and 1038 female), and authors reported that the effect size was small (partial eta squared (η^2) values was 0.03). Therefore, although ASD seems to be a gender defiant related disorder, the AQ score distribution between two genders among TD adults is not well established yet. From available research, gender and AQ in healthy population remain two factors worth separate investigation.

We observed a weak positive association between walking synchrony and interpersonal impressions. The demonstrated association was weak, possibly because of the implicit nature of the walking task ensured by a delicately designed cover story, while in other studies participants were explicitly instructed or cued to intentionally sync or not sync with partners and fully aware that the motor synchrony was being observed[34,80–82]. Explicit synchrony could boost perceptions of similarity[34,82], which was a known predictor for attraction[83]. In current study, implicit synchrony might be too subtle to create perceived similarity, which led to a weak effect on affection. Moreover, observers perceive, memorize, process information, and form decisions differently in conscious and unconscious states[84]. The effects of implicit and explicit movements in joint action warrant further investigation. The weak association may also be due to the in-group atmosphere in our test. Kato et al.[65] reported that in-group participants who conversed for an hour, unlike out-group participants, showed no correspondence between enhanced affection and footstep synchronization. Our design did not emphasize out-group labeling, which may attenuate the bodily synchrony effect on affection.

Our findings, along with several others, converged to a functional perspective that interpersonal motor synchronization is a form of social communication. Motor synchrony promotes emotion inference[85], empathy[68,69] and theory of mind[86]. It also cultivates positive impression[34,80–82], cooperation[87], affection[12], trust[81], and pro-social behavior in both adults[88,89] and infants[90,91]. Conversely, social factors related to others such as social attitude and competence[6,92], partners' character[93], the psychosocial difference between two agents[9,10], and the level of two agents' agreement[11,12] all modulate motor synchrony. We suggest that motor synchronization between two partners may carry social information for exchange and promotes social consequences, similar to other forms of non-verbal communication such as facial expressions, postures, and gestures that we use to express emotion,

convey intention, and establish impression. This view is supported by electrophysiological studies which showed that implicit motor synchrony involves the social brain[94,95] (e.g., frontoparietal and centroparietal networks), which is also crucial for other social functions such as empathy[67,68]. Along this line of thinking, the gender difference in motor synchrony may simply reflect different communication styles between gender groups. Females are better at applying interpersonal motor synchrony than males, similar to how females excel in applying other nonverbal signals such as facial expressions[41,45,46], voice[47], and infant emotional self-regulation[33,48].

Our walking paradigm has the following advantages compared to other joint tasks. Firstly, we minimized observers' awareness of the joint motion and offered a novel way to quantify the communication effects of implicit joint motion. We can further examine whether the characteristics of implicit communication resemble other forms of explicit joint actions observed in rituals (e.g. dancing and marching). Secondly, our paradigm ensured ecological validity, which has received increasing emphasis for both behavioral [96] and neural [97] studies on interpersonal interaction. We simulated a natural scenario of real social interaction, in contrast to past studies that involved participants performing repetitive movements jointly with partners, which is not common in daily life [2,3,93,98]. Moreover, evidence has shown that kinematics of actions vary across social contexts[96] and are modulated by social factors such as social intention[99,100] and group membership[101]. Therefore, implicit body coordination might function differently between real social interaction and repetitive action task in laboratory.

There are several directions for future research. Firstly, it will be desirable to have participants' athletic and motor skills and levels of physical activity into consideration. Although walking is a daily activity for almost everyone, and all our participants seemed equally competent and comfortable in this task, additional motor skills measurements can offer information about individual differences. This is particularly useful for comparison across different gender or age groups with distinct physical activity levels[29,30] and motor abilities differences[23–28]. Secondly, the conversation effect on motor synchrony between a pair could be further included in the complete understanding of this form of implicit communication. Some studies explore the effect in terms of conversation content but the results were not consistent. Paxton and Dale[11] discovered that arguments inhibited the interpersonal convergence of body movements compared to less competitive conversations, while Tschacher et al.[12] found that a debate promoted greater levels of body synchrony than a cooperative conversation. One reason of the inconsistency might be that the degree of interests towards conversation topics varies among participants depending on the prior knowledge about the topics or preference. In such cases the involvement of conversation between pairs varies, which might also affect the motor synchrony. The involvement has been measured in terms of utterance overlap[102]. An endeavor for the control of conversation content as well as involvement of conversation might be required for further investigation for our complete understanding of this form of joint movement.

In sum, our study revealed that permanent traits predispose individuals to implicit bodily synchrony. Specifically, females synced better than males, and high autistic traits hindered interpersonal motor synchrony. Moreover, we provided evidence that implicit walking synchrony was positively associated with affection in an environment simulating a daily encounter.

Supporting information

S1 File. Autism-spectrum quotient (AQ) questionnaire (Chinese translation).
(PDF)

S2 File. Interpersonal judgment scale (IJS) (Chinese translation).
(PDF)

Acknowledgments

We thank the helpful comments and administrative support from Dr. Makio Kashino.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Masaharu Kato, Chia-huei Tseng.

Data curation: Miao Cheng, Chia-huei Tseng.

Formal analysis: Miao Cheng, Masaharu Kato.

Funding acquisition: Masaharu Kato, Chia-huei Tseng.

Methodology: Miao Cheng, Masaharu Kato, Chia-huei Tseng.

Project administration: Chia-huei Tseng.

Supervision: Masaharu Kato, Chia-huei Tseng.

Writing – original draft: Miao Cheng, Chia-huei Tseng.

Writing – review & editing: Miao Cheng, Masaharu Kato, Chia-huei Tseng.

References

1. Néda Z, Ravasz E, Brechet Y, Vicsek T, Barabási A-L (2000) Self-organizing processes: The sound of many hands clapping. *Nature* 403: 849–850. <https://doi.org/10.1038/35002660> PMID: 10706271
2. Nessler JA, Gilliland SJ (2009) Interpersonal synchronization during side by side treadmill walking is influenced by leg length differential and altered sensory feedback. *Hum Mov Sci* 28: 772–785. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2009.04.007> PMID: 19796834
3. Richardson MJ, Marsh KL, Isenhour RW, Goodman JR, Schmidt RC (2007) Rocking together: dynamics of intentional and unintentional interpersonal coordination. *Hum Mov Sci* 26: 867–891. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2007.07.002> PMID: 17765345
4. Schmidt RC, Fitzpatrick P, Caron R, Mergeche J (2011) Understanding social motor coordination. *Hum Mov Sci* 30: 834–845. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2010.05.014> PMID: 20817320
5. Schmidt RC, O'Brien B (1997) Evaluating the dynamics of unintended interpersonal coordination. *Ecol Psychol* 9: 189–206.
6. Lumsden J, Miles LK, Richardson MJ, Smith CA, Macrae CN (2012) Who syncs? Social motives and interpersonal coordination. *J Exp Soc Psychol* 48: 746–751.
7. Zhao Z, Salesse RN, Gueugnon M, Schmidt RC, Marin L, et al. (2015) Moving attractive virtual agent improves interpersonal coordination stability. *Hum Mov Sci* 41: 240–254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2015.03.012> PMID: 25854798
8. Miles LK, Griffiths JL, Richardson MJ, Macrae CN (2009) Too late to coordinate: Contextual influences on behavioral synchrony. *Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry*: 52–60.
9. Schmidt RC, Christianson N, Carello C, Baron R (1994) Effects of social and physical variables on between-person visual coordination. *Ecol Psychol* 6: 159–183.
10. Miles LK, Lumsden J, Richardson MJ, Neil Macrae C (2011) Do birds of a feather move together? Group membership and behavioral synchrony. *Exp Brain Res* 211: 495–503. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-011-2641-z> PMID: 21448575
11. Paxton A, Dale R (2013) Argument disrupts interpersonal synchrony. *Q J Exp Psychol* 66: 2092–2102.
12. Tschacher W, Rees GM, Ramseyer F (2014) Nonverbal synchrony and affect in dyadic interactions. *Front Psychol* 5: 1323. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.01323> PMID: 25505435
13. Chartrand TL, Bargh JA (1999) The chameleon effect: the perception–behavior link and social interaction. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 76: 893. PMID: 10402679

14. Chartrand TL, Lakin JL (2013) The antecedents and consequences of human behavioral mimicry. *Annual review of psychology* 64: 285–308. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-113011-143754> PMID: 23020640
15. Duffy KA, Chartrand TL (2015) Mimicry: causes and consequences. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences* 3: 112–116.
16. Lakin JL, Chartrand TL (2003) Using nonconscious behavioral mimicry to create affiliation and rapport. *Psychological science* 14: 334–339. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.14481> PMID: 12807406
17. Van Baaren RB, Holland RW, Kawakami K, Van Knippenberg A (2004) Mimicry and prosocial behavior. *Psychological science* 15: 71–74. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.01501012.x> PMID: 14717835
18. Stel M, Van Baaren RB, Vonk R (2008) Effects of mimicking: Acting prosocially by being emotionally moved. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 38: 965–976.
19. Inzlicht M, Gutsell JN, Legault L (2012) Mimicry reduces racial prejudice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 48: 361–365.
20. Bourgeois P, Hess U (2008) The impact of social context on mimicry. *Biological psychology* 77: 343–352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsycho.2007.11.008> PMID: 18164534
21. Farley SD (2014) Nonverbal reactions to an attractive stranger: The role of mimicry in communicating preferred social distance. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior* 38: 195–208.
22. Hall NR, Millings A, Bouças SB (2012) Adult attachment orientation and implicit behavioral mimicry. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior* 36: 235–247.
23. Barnett LM, van Beurden E, Morgan PJ, Brooks LO, Beard JR (2010) Gender differences in motor skill proficiency from childhood to adolescence: A longitudinal study. *Res Q Exerc Sport* 81: 162–170. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2010.10599663> PMID: 20527301
24. Junaid KA, Fellowes S (2006) Gender differences in the attainment of motor skills on the movement assessment battery for children. *Phys Occup Ther Pediatr* 26: 5–11.
25. Thomas JR, French KE (1985) Gender differences across age in motor performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychol Bull* 98: 260. PMID: 3901062
26. Barrett R, Noordegraaf MV, Morrison S (2008) Gender differences in the variability of lower extremity kinematics during treadmill locomotion. *J Mot Behav* 40: 62–70. <https://doi.org/10.3200/JMBR.40.1.62-70> PMID: 18316297
27. Chraif M, Aniței M (2013) Gender Differences in Motor Coordination at Young Students at Psychology. *Int J Soc Sci Human*: 147–150.
28. Hamill J, Heiderscheit BC, Pollard CD (2005) Gender differences in lower extremity coupling variability during an unanticipated cutting maneuver. *J Appl Biomech* 21.
29. Brasholt M, Chawes B, Kreiner-Møller E, Vahlkvist S, Sinding M, et al. (2013) Objective assessment of levels and patterns of physical activity in preschool children. *Pediatr Res* 74: 333–338. <https://doi.org/10.1038/pr.2013.99> PMID: 23770920
30. Jackson DM, Reilly JJ, Kelly LA, Montgomery C, Grant S, et al. (2003) Objectively measured physical activity in a representative sample of 3-to 4-year-old children. *Obesity Research* 11: 420–425. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2003.57> PMID: 12634440
31. Wrotniak BH, Epstein LH, Dorn JM, Jones KE, Kondilis VA (2006) The relationship between motor proficiency and physical activity in children. *Pediatrics* 118: e1758–e1765. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2006-0742> PMID: 17142498
32. Tronick EZ, Cohn JF (1989) Infant-mother face-to-face interaction: Age and gender differences in coordination and the occurrence of miscoordination. *Child Development*: 85–92. PMID: 2702877
33. Weinberg MK, Tronick EZ, Cohn JF, Olson KL (1999) Gender differences in emotional expressivity and self-regulation during early infancy. *Dev Psychol* 35: 175. PMID: 9923473
34. Valdesolo P, Ouyang J, DeSteno D (2010) The rhythm of joint action: Synchrony promotes cooperative ability. *J Exp Soc Psychol* 46: 693–695.
35. Repp BH, Su Y-H (2013) Sensorimotor synchronization: a review of recent research (2006–2012). *Psychonomic bulletin & review* 20: 403–452.
36. Golan O, Baron-Cohen S, Hill J (2006) The Cambridge mindreading (CAM) face-voice battery: Testing complex emotion recognition in adults with and without Asperger syndrome. *J Autism Dev Disord* 36: 169–183. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-005-0057-y> PMID: 16477515
37. Hall JA (2006) Women's and Men's Nonverbal Communication: Similarities, Differences, Stereotypes, and Origins.
38. Hall JA, Matsumoto D (2004) Gender differences in judgments of multiple emotions from facial expressions. *Emotion* 4: 201. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1528-3542.4.2.201> PMID: 15222856

39. McClure EB (2000) A meta-analytic review of sex differences in facial expression processing and their development in infants, children, and adolescents. *Psychol Bull* 126: 424. PMID: [10825784](#)
40. Montagne B, Kessels RP, Frigerio E, de Haan EH, Perrett DI (2005) Sex differences in the perception of affective facial expressions: do men really lack emotional sensitivity? *Cogn Process* 6: 136–141. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10339-005-0050-6> PMID: [18219511](#)
41. Sonnby-Borgström M, Jönsson P, Svensson O (2008) Gender differences in facial imitation and verbally reported emotional contagion from spontaneous to emotionally regulated processing levels. *Scand J Psychol* 49: 111–122. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9450.2008.00626.x> PMID: [18352980](#)
42. Sokolov AA, Kruger S, Enck P, Krageloh-Mann I, Pavlova MA (2011) Gender affects body language reading. *Front Psychol* 2: 16. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00016> PMID: [21713180](#)
43. Walk RD, Homan CP (1984) Emotion and dance in dynamic light displays. *Bull Psychon Soc* 22: 437–440.
44. Anderson LC, Bolling DZ, Schelinski S, Coffman MC, Pelphey KA, et al. (2013) Sex differences in the development of brain mechanisms for processing biological motion. *Neuroimage* 83: 751–760. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2013.07.040> PMID: [23876243](#)
45. Kring AM, Gordon AH (1998) Sex differences in emotion: expression, experience, and physiology. *J Pers Soc Psychol* 74: 686. PMID: [9523412](#)
46. LaFrance M, Hecht MA, Paluck EL (2003) The contingent smile: a meta-analysis of sex differences in smiling. *Psychol Bull* 129: 305. PMID: [12696842](#)
47. Bachorowski JA, Owren MJ (2008) Vocal expressions of emotion. *Handbook of Emotions*. pp. 196–210.
48. Chaplin TM, Aldao A (2013) Gender differences in emotion expression in children: a meta-analytic review. *Psychol Bull* 139: 735. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030737> PMID: [23231534](#)
49. Gernsbacher MA, Sauer EA, Geye HM, Schweigert EK, Goldsmith H (2008) Infant and toddler oral- and manual-motor skills predict later speech fluency in autism. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 49: 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2007.01820.x> PMID: [17979963](#)
50. Moran MF, Foley JT, Parker ME, Weiss MJ (2013) Two-legged hopping in autism spectrum disorders. *Front Integr Neurosci* 7.
51. Fabbri-Destro M, Gizzonio V, Avanzini P (2013) Autism, motor dysfunctions and mirror mechanism. *Clin Neuropsychiatry* 10: 177–187.
52. Fournier KA, Hass CJ, Naik SK, Lodha N, Cauraugh JH (2010) Motor coordination in autism spectrum disorders: a synthesis and meta-analysis. *J Autism Dev Disord* 40: 1227–1240. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-010-0981-3> PMID: [20195737](#)
53. Glazebrook CM, Elliott D, Lyons J (2006) A kinematic analysis of how young adults with and without autism plan and control goal-directed movements. *Motor control* 10: 244–264. PMID: [17106133](#)
54. Fitzpatrick P, Diorio R, Richardson MJ, Schmidt RC (2013) Dynamical methods for evaluating the time-dependent unfolding of social coordination in children with autism. *Front Integr Neurosci* 7: 21. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnint.2013.00021> PMID: [23580133](#)
55. Marsh KL, Richardson MJ, Schmidt RC (2009) Social connection through joint action and interpersonal coordination. *Top Cogn Sci* 1: 320–339. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1756-8765.2009.01022.x> PMID: [25164936](#)
56. Marsh KL, Isenhower RW, Richardson MJ, Helt M, Verbalis AD, et al. (2013) Autism and social disconnection in interpersonal rocking. *Front Integr Neurosci* 7: 4. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnint.2013.00004> PMID: [23423608](#)
57. Biscaldi M, Rauh R, Irion L, Jung NH, Mall V, et al. (2014) Deficits in motor abilities and developmental fractionation of imitation performance in high-functioning autism spectrum disorders. *Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 23: 599–610. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-013-0475-x> PMID: [24085467](#)
58. Forbes PA, Pan X, Hamilton AFdC (2016) Reduced Mimicry to Virtual Reality Avatars in Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders* 46: 3788–3797. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-016-2930-2> PMID: [27696183](#)
59. McIntosh DN, Reichmann-Decker A, Winkielman P, Wilbarger JL (2006) When the social mirror breaks: deficits in automatic, but not voluntary, mimicry of emotional facial expressions in autism. *Developmental science* 9: 295–302. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2006.00492.x> PMID: [16669800](#)
60. Gonzalez DA, Glazebrook CM, Studenka B, Lyons J (2013) Motor interactions with another person: do individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder plan ahead? *Frontiers in integrative neuroscience* 7: 23. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnint.2013.00023> PMID: [23616751](#)

61. Salmi J, Roine U, Glerean E, Lahnakoski J, Nieminen-von Wendt T, et al. (2013) The brains of high functioning autistic individuals do not synchronize with those of others. *Neuroimage Clin* 3: 489–497. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nicl.2013.10.011> PMID: 24273731
62. Schmidt RC, Nie L, Franco A, Richardson MJ (2014) Bodily synchronization underlying joke telling. *Front Hum Neurosci* 8: 633. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00633> PMID: 25177287
63. Baron-Cohen S, Wheelwright S, Skinner R, Martin J, Clubley E (2001) The autism-spectrum quotient (AQ): Evidence from asperger syndrome/high-functioning autism, males and females, scientists and mathematicians. *J Autism Dev Disord* 31: 5–17. PMID: 11439754
64. Baron-Cohen S (1997) Hey! It was just a joke! Understanding propositions and propositional attitudes by normally developing children and children with autism. *Isr J Psychiatry Relat Sci* 34: 174–178. PMID: 9334521
65. Kato M, Hirose H, Kashino M (2015) Evidence of dynamic phase-synchronization of steps between paired walkers and its effect on building of interpersonal relationships. The 6th Bi-Annual Joint Action Meeting. Budapest, Hungary.
66. Byrne D (1971) *The attraction paradigm*: Academic Pr.
67. Christov-Moore L, Simpson EA, Coude G, Grigaityte K, Iacoboni M, et al. (2014) Empathy: gender effects in brain and behavior. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 46 Pt 4: 604–627.
68. Sevdalis V, Raab M (2014) Empathy in sports, exercise, and the performing arts. *Psychol Sport Exerc* 15: 173–179.
69. Behrends A, Müller S, Dziobek I (2012) Moving in and out of synchrony: A concept for a new intervention fostering empathy through interactional movement and dance. *The Arts in Psychotherapy* 39: 107–116.
70. Butler EE, Ward R, Ramsey R (2015) Investigating the relationship between stable personality characteristics and automatic imitation. *PloS one* 10: e0129651. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0129651> PMID: 26079137
71. Fombonne E (2003) Epidemiological surveys of autism and other pervasive developmental disorders: an update. *J Autism Dev Disord* 33: 365–382. PMID: 12959416
72. Klin A, Volkmar FR, Sparrow SS, Cicchetti DV, Rourke BP (1995) Validity and neuropsychological characterization of Asperger syndrome: Convergence with nonverbal learning disabilities syndrome. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 36: 1127–1140. PMID: 8847376
73. Bejerot S, Eriksson JM, Bonde S, Carlström K, Humble MB, et al. (2012) The extreme male brain revisited: gender coherence in adults with autism spectrum disorder. *Brit J Psychiat* 201: 116–123. <https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.bp.111.097899> PMID: 22500012
74. Hall JK, Hutton SB, Morgan MJ (2010) Sex differences in scanning faces: does attention to the eyes explain female superiority in facial expression recognition? *Cogn Emot* 24: 629–637.
75. Kadak MT, Demirel ÖF, Yavuz M, Demir T (2014) Recognition of emotional facial expressions and broad autism phenotype in parents of children diagnosed with autistic spectrum disorder. *Compr Psychiatry* 55: 1146–1151. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comppsy.2014.03.004> PMID: 24742718
76. Lai MC, Lombardo MV, Suckling J, Ruigrok ANV, Chakrabarti B, et al. (2013) Biological sex affects the neurobiology of autism. *Brain* 136: 2799–2815. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awt216> PMID: 23935125
77. Schwarzkopf DS, Anderson EJ, de Haas B, White SJ, Rees G (2014) Larger extrastriate population receptive fields in autism spectrum disorders. *J Neurosci* 34: 2713–2724. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4416-13.2014> PMID: 24523560
78. Steeb H, Ramsey JM, Guest PC, Stocki P, Cooper JD, et al. (2014) Serum proteomic analysis identifies sex-specific differences in lipid metabolism and inflammation profiles in adults diagnosed with Asperger syndrome. *Mol Autism* 5: 1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2040-2392-5-1>
79. Wheelwright S, Auyeung B, Allison C, Baron-Cohen S (2010) Defining the broader, medium and narrow autism phenotype among parents using the Autism Spectrum Quotient (AQ). *Mol Autism* 1: 1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2040-2392-1-1>
80. Hove MJ, Risen JL (2009) It's all in the timing: Interpersonal synchrony increases affiliation. *Soc Cogn* 27: 949.
81. Launay J, Dean RT, Bailes F (2013) Synchronization can influence trust following virtual interaction. *Exp Psychol* 60: 53–63. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1618-3169/a000173> PMID: 22935329
82. Valdesolo P, DeSteno D (2011) Synchrony and the social tuning of compassion. *Emotion* 11: 262. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021302> PMID: 21500895
83. Montoya RM, Horton RS, Kirchner J (2008) Is actual similarity necessary for attraction? A meta-analysis of actual and perceived similarity. *J Soc Pers Relatsh* 25: 889–922.

84. van Gaal S, De Lange FP, Cohen MX (2012) The role of consciousness in cognitive control and decision making. *Front Hum Neurosci* 6: 121. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2012.00121> PMID: [22586386](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22586386/)
85. Koehne S, Behrends A, Fairhurst MT, Dziobek I (2016) Fostering Social Cognition through an Imitation-and Synchronization-Based Dance/Movement Intervention in Adults with Autism Spectrum Disorder: A Controlled Proof-of-Concept Study. *Psychotherapy and psychosomatics* 85: 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000441111> PMID: [26609704](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26609704/)
86. Koehne S, Hatri A, Cacioppo JT, Dziobek I (2016) Perceived interpersonal synchrony increases empathy: Insights from autism spectrum disorder. *Cognition* 146: 8–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2015.09.007> PMID: [26398860](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26398860/)
87. Reddish P, Fischer R, Bulbulia J (2013) Let's dance together: synchrony, shared intentionality and cooperation. *PLoS One* 8: e71182. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0071182> PMID: [23951106](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23951106/)
88. Kokal I, Engel A, Kirschner S, Keysers C (2011) Synchronized drumming enhances activity in the caudate and facilitates prosocial commitment-if the rhythm comes easily. *PLoS One* 6: e27272. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0027272> PMID: [22110623](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22110623/)
89. Reddish P, Bulbulia J, Fischer R (2014) Does synchrony promote generalized prosociality? *Religion Brain Behav* 4: 3–19.
90. Cirelli LK, Einarson KM, Trainor LJ (2014) Interpersonal synchrony increases prosocial behavior in infants. *Dev Sci* 17: 1003–1011. PMID: [25513669](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25513669/)
91. Cirelli LK, Wan SJ, Trainor LJ (2014) Fourteen-month-old infants use interpersonal synchrony as a cue to direct helpfulness. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 369: 20130400. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2013.0400> PMID: [25385778](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25385778/)
92. Kawase S (2015) Relationships between performers' daily social skills, social behaviors in ensemble practice, and evaluations of ensemble performance. *Musicae Scientiae*: 1029864915590171.
93. Miles LK, Nind LK, Henderson Z, Macrae CN (2010) Moving memories: Behavioral synchrony and memory for self and others. *J Exp Soc Psychol* 46: 457–460.
94. Tognoli E, Lagarde J, DeGuzman GC, Kelso JA (2007) The phi complex as a neuromarker of human social coordination. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104: 8190–8195. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0611453104> PMID: [17470821](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17470821/)
95. Yun K, Watanabe K, Shimojo S (2012) Interpersonal body and neural synchronization as a marker of implicit social interaction. *Sci Rep* 2: 959. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep00959> PMID: [23233878](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23233878/)
96. Krishnan-Barman S, Forbes PA, Hamilton AFdC (2017) How can the study of action kinematics inform our understanding of human social interaction? *Neuropsychologia*.
97. Schilbach L, Timmermans B, Reddy V, Costall A, Bente G, et al. (2013) Toward a second-person neuroscience. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 36: 393–414. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X12000660> PMID: [23883742](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23883742/)
98. Harrison SJ, Richardson MJ (2009) Horsing around: spontaneous four-legged coordination. *J Mot Behav* 41: 519–524. <https://doi.org/10.3200/35-08-014> PMID: [19567365](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19567365/)
99. Becchio C, Sartori L, Bulgheroni M, Castiello U (2008) Both your intention and mine are reflected in the kinematics of my reach-to-grasp movement. *Cognition* 106: 894–912. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2007.05.004> PMID: [17585893](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17585893/)
100. Georgiou I, Becchio C, Glover S, Castiello U (2007) Different action patterns for cooperative and competitive behaviour. *Cognition* 102: 415–433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2006.01.008> PMID: [16516188](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16516188/)
101. van Schaik JE, Endedijk HM, Stapel JC, Hunnius S (2016) Young Children's Motor Interference Is Influenced by Novel Group Membership. *Frontiers in psychology* 7.
102. Tannen D (1985) Relative focus on involvement in oral and written discourse. *Literacy, language, and learning: The nature and consequences of reading and writing*: 124–147.