

**Probing the dual-task structure of a metacontrast-masked priming paradigm with
subjective visibility judgments**

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Abstract

Experiments contrasting conscious and masked stimulus processing have shaped, and continue to shape, cognitive and neurobiological theories of consciousness. However, as shown by Aru et al. (2012) the contrastive approach builds on the untenable assertion that there are no interactions among the stimulus- and response-related components of a task. While no-report paradigms avoid this violation of pure insertion, it seems necessary to understand the cognitive interactions in other paradigms where the removal of response-related components is not an option. Our research will therefore start from the simple observation that report-based paradigms often qualify as dual-tasking situations.

We will investigate the dual-task architecture of the most widely used report-based paradigm in the study of unconscious processing. In masked priming, the prime's visibility is typically assessed with a subjective measure on a trial-by-trial basis. Despite the inverse order of stimuli (prime-target) and responses (target-prime), and although only the target response is speeded, the experimental setup meets the criteria of a dual-task paradigm. Our aims are twofold: to estimate the influence of response-related parameters on the masked priming effects, and to study the neural underpinnings of our dual-tasking manipulations.

In a metacontrast masking experiment using event-related potentials (ERPs), participants will discriminate a target stimulus by quickly pressing one of two keys, and then indicate the subjective visibility of the prime stimulus, either by vocal response or by key-press (factor "modality"). The visibility measure will be a variant of the perceptual awareness scale (PAS) with either two or four items (factor "complexity"). We will investigate in what way response modality and task complexity influence the masked priming effect (i.e., incongruent trials – congruent trials). With regards to the ERPs, we expect that both experimental manipulations are related to the amplitude and latency of the P3b component.

1 **Introduction**

2 Whether and to what extent unconscious processing is possible has been sparking research
3 interest for decades. One very commonly used paradigm is the masked priming paradigm, the
4 idea being that the prime facilitates a speeded reaction to the target when both stimuli are
5 congruent, e.g. arrows point in the same direction, or inhibits it when stimuli are incongruent,
6 e.g. arrows point in different directions. This so-called priming effect can be observed even
7 when the prime is not consciously perceived.

8 Various aspects of the masked priming experiment have been looked at. Among these were the
9 type of priming: semantic (e.g. Dehaene et al., 1998; Kiefer et al., 2023) vs. response priming
10 (e.g. Mattler, 2003; Vorberg et al., 2003), the masking technique used: metacontrast masking
11 (e.g. Mattler, 2003; Vorberg et al., 2003), continuous flash suppression (Benthien &
12 Hesselmann, 2021; Handschack et al., 2022) and backwards masking (e.g. Balsdon & Clifford,
13 2018; Stein et al., 2020) to only name a few, the type of the direct, prime-related task: objective
14 or subjective measures of prime visibility (e.g. Biafora & Schmidt, 2022; Kiefer et al., 2023),
15 and the analysis approach: standard dissociation, sensitivity dissociation or double dissociation
16 (for an overview, see Schmidt & Vorberg, 2006).

17 In a typical masked priming experiment, the masked prime is followed by the target, to which
18 the participant has to react first in a speeded forced-choice identification task, the indirect task.
19 The direct task then follows and typically requires a non-speeded reaction of some sort to the
20 prime. The masked priming effect is then calculated by quantifying the difference in reaction
21 times (RTs) between congruent and incongruent trials.

22 Indirect and direct task have been presented together (e.g. Stein et al., 2021) as well as in
23 separate trials (e.g. Biafora & Schmidt, 2019). However, a relatively new aspect is the
24 consideration of the experiments' inherent dual-tasking character, which arises when both tasks
25 occur in the same trial. In the study of dual-tasking, it was shown that trials without a prime-
26 related response, i.e. single-task, lead to shorter target-related RTs than trials with an online

27 prime-related response, i.e. dual-task (Hesselmann et al., 2018; Lamy et al., 2017). Lamy and
28 colleagues (2017) found RTs up to 150 ms slower than RTs in comparable single-task response
29 priming experiments, like that of Vorberg et al. (2003). This increase in RT is also called dual-
30 task costs, a term describing the result that people tend to perform worse in dual-task as
31 compared to single-task (Janczyk et al., 2015).

32 The potential implications of this phenomenon for the masked priming paradigm remain an
33 open question, specifically, to what extent and in what direction dual-tasking may influence the
34 masked priming effect (Hesselmann et al., 2018). Research findings could demonstrate a greater
35 priming effect in single-task conditions when compared to dual-task scenarios, as reported by
36 Ansorge (2004) and Avneon & Lamy (2018), as well as an increased priming effect in dual-
37 task settings when compared to single-task situations, as observed by Peremen & Lamy (2014)
38 and Biafora & Schmidt (2022).

39 Kiefer and colleagues (2023) tested participants in a semantic priming experiment, in which
40 they had to assess the prime's visibility via a perceptual awareness scale (PAS) on a trial-by-
41 trial basis or in a separate session. This study found that semantic priming effects vanished in
42 the trial-by-trial PAS condition. Similarly, Fischer and colleagues (2011) observed a reduction
43 of semantic priming to a non-significant level in the presence of a dual-tasking context.

44 In our study, we are therefore interested in further exploring the influence of the dual-tasking
45 structure of report-based paradigms on the masked priming effect. The unconscious priming
46 experiment acquires the characteristics of a dual-task situation by presenting both tasks in the
47 same trial. Lamy et al. (2019) argue for doing so, as it ascertains that "the measures of conscious
48 perception and of prime processing are collected under the same stimulus, attention, and
49 motivational conditions" (p.123). Otherwise, the problem of task comparability may arise. One
50 could also argue that, while no-report paradigms avoid this violation of pure insertion, only
51 products of cognitive functions (i.e. verbal report, key press) allow for consciousness to be
52 studied empirically (Cohen & Dennett, 2011), and that no-report paradigms may be considered

53 as problematic, since subjects may be engaging in post-perceptual cognitive processing even in
54 the absence of reports (Block, 2019).

55 Our study is conceptually close to that of Biafora and Schmidt, as they employed metacontrast
56 masking and a prime-related second task, and we therefore expect priming effects to be likewise
57 larger in the dual-task as compared to the single-task situation.

58 In the following paragraphs, we will describe our choice of the metacontrast-masked response
59 priming paradigm for the purpose of exploring dual-tasking in the study of unconscious
60 processing, the rationale behind our experimental manipulations of response modality and
61 response complexity, as well as the concurrent recording of event-related potentials (ERPs).

62

63 *Metacontrast-masked response priming and Dual-tasking*

64 We aim to utilize an unconscious priming paradigm that would promise relatively robust
65 priming effects. In response priming experiments, the crucial variation is whether the prime
66 (e.g., left or right pointing arrow) is either compatible or incompatible with the response the
67 target requires (e.g. left or right, Kiefer et al., 2023). That is, in case of compatibility, or
68 congruency, the prime facilitates the response to the target, and in return inhibits it in case of
69 incompatibility, or incongruency. One commonly used experimental design in the line of
70 masked (unconscious) priming research is metacontrast masking (e.g. Mattler, 2003; Vorberg
71 et al., 2003). In metacontrast masking, the prime's visibility is reduced by an ensuing visual
72 masking stimulus, and is therefore said to be a special form of visual backward masking (Kraut
73 & Albrecht, 2022). Crucially, the target simultaneously functions as the mask and fits snugly
74 around the prime contours without overlapping it. The prime's visibility is assessed to ensure
75 that the masked prime was in fact not consciously perceived. As outlined above, if both tasks
76 are presented together on a trial-by-trial basis, the masked response priming paradigm acquires
77 the structure of a dual-task.

78 A prototypical example of a dual-task situation is the psychological refractory period paradigm
79 (PRP), where response times (RTs) for task 2 slow down with decreasing SOA when compared
80 to single task (Telford, 1931; Tombu & Jolicœur, 2003). However, studies have also found
81 increasing RTs for task 1 when performed in a PRP paradigm instead of in isolation (Jiang et
82 al., 2004; Reinert & Brüning, 2022; Scerra & Brill, 2012; Sigman & Dehaene, 2006). The
83 Backward Crosstalk Effect (BCE), i.e. “the observation that task 2 characteristics can even
84 influence task 1 processing” (Janczyk et al., 2018, p. 1) provides an explanation for this
85 phenomenon. According to Janczyk and colleagues, the task 2 stimulus might unintentionally
86 and simultaneously activate (features of) the task 1 response if the two responses share
87 characteristics. We are therefore interested in how manipulations of the task 2 characteristics
88 might influence RTs and consequently priming effects for task 1¹.

89 Studies in the research of dual-tasking have focused on different aspects of the paradigm like
90 individual preferences for task coordination strategies (e.g. Brüning, Mückstein, et al., 2020;
91 Brüning, Reissland, et al., 2020), order and temporal sequence of tasks (e.g. Strobach et al.,
92 2018; Tombu & Jolicœur, 2002) or the kind of task (e.g. Goh et al., 2021; Hazeltine et al.,
93 2006). We chose to focus on the two aspects task modality and task complexity, which are
94 described in the following.

95

96 *Response Modality*

97 Scerra and Brill (2012) tested participants in several multitasking experiments, in which the
98 input of both tasks was either presented in the same modality (unimodal dual-task condition) or
99 via different modalities (tactile and visual or tactile and auditory, cross modal dual-task
100 condition). The authors observed a decrement in performance in all dual-task conditions

¹Please note that we will use the following nomenclature in our manuscript: stimulus 1 denotes the prime, stimulus 2 the target/mask, while task 1 is the speeded response to the target, and task 2 is the unspeeded response to the prime (i.e., in chronological order, as instructed).

101 compared to the single-task condition, which was especially pronounced in the unimodal dual-
102 task condition. We argue that this might be of relevance for an unconscious priming paradigm,
103 since the input of both tasks, i.e. the prime and the target, are typically presented in the same
104 modality (visual). If the two responses also share features, it could be that the stimulus of task
105 2 simultaneously activates (features of) the task 1 response, which may then lead to between-
106 task crosstalk (Janczyk et al., 2018).

107 Since the input modalities of both tasks cannot be changed in the case of masked response
108 priming, the question arises what may happen when the output, i.e. the response modalities, are
109 manipulated. Göthe et al. (2016) tested multiple variations of input-output modality pairings
110 and observed higher dual-task costs for non-standard modality pairings (e.g. visual stimulus
111 mapped to vocal response and auditory stimulus mapped to manual response) as compared to
112 respective standard pairing (e.g. visual stimulus mapped to manual response and auditory
113 stimulus mapped to vocal response). The authors conclude that for non-standard pairings
114 crosstalk was present, but for standard feature pairings it was absent. These findings were
115 replicated by Stelzel et al. (2006).

116 Since dual-task costs arise in the form of prolonged RTs in task 2, but as was shown, in task 1
117 as well, this may have considerable consequences for the observed priming effects. Following
118 this line of arguments, it seems advisable to keep the input/output modality pairings for both
119 indirect and direct task concordant, as otherwise dual-task costs due to crosstalk may arise.

120 However, as early as in the 1970s it was observed that the decrement in performance (measured
121 via error scores), that is typically observed in dual-task situations, was affected by the modality
122 of the second, added task: the error rates were larger when both tasks had to be responded to
123 manually as compared to a cross-modal condition of manual and vocal responses (McLeod,
124 1977). The author explained this with response interference, which is to be expected when the
125 two tasks share one common processing requirement. Liu and Wickens (1987) found a similar
126 effect: they observed a greater performance decrement (measured via reaction time and

127 weighted workload ratings) in a tracking task when the second task required a manual response
128 than when it required a vocal response. The authors argue that the multiple resource model is
129 capable of predicting the interference of the tracking task, which is greater for a manual than a
130 vocal response to the second task.

131 According to resource theories, the performance of two tasks suffers when both draw from the
132 same resources (Schacherer & Hazeltine, 2021). When tasks on the other hand require distinct
133 resources, dual-task costs are reduced. In line with this is the observation that manual and vocal
134 responses can be timeshared to a relatively high degree of efficiency, which has been explained
135 by the separation of spatial and verbal resources (Wickens, 2002).

136 Arnell and Duncan (2002) observed a drop in accuracy for auditory and visual identification
137 tasks when moving from single to dual-task, and the “performance was very much worse,
138 however, when both streams were in the same modality, either both auditory or both visual”
139 (p.110). Since responding to two tasks with the same response modality (key press) requires
140 drawing from the same resource, resource theories predict higher interference for both tasks.

141 It will therefore be the first main purpose of the proposed study to test whether a unimodal
142 response condition, i.e., manual response in both tasks, leads to prolonged RTs ~~and error rates~~,
143 i.e., dual-task costs, and consequently larger priming effects, as compared to a crossmodal
144 response condition, i.e., manual and vocal response. Since Biafora and Schmidt (2022)
145 observed larger priming effects for the dual-task were likewise RTs were slower than compared
146 to the single-task, we expect slower RTs to be accompanied by larger priming effects.

147 Since the first task, the speeded two-choice identification of the shown target, is crucial to
148 calculate a priming effect, we decided against changing any aspect of it for a block-wise
149 manipulation and therefore varied the response modality for the second, direct task. Following
150 the study by Göthe and colleagues (2016) we will instruct participants to provide their response
151 to the direct task either via key press or via vocal response into a microphone.

152

153 *Task Complexity*

154 For the observation of increasing RTs for both task 1 and task 2 (e.g. Tombu & Joliceur, 2002,
155 2003), Wickens (1981) offers an explanation, arguing that tasks require resources for their
156 performance, which are limited in their availability. When more resources are needed than
157 ~~are being~~ available the efficiency with which both tasks are shared decreases, and this will be
158 more likely so with increased difficulty of either tasks.

159 In line with this argument are observations from Sigman and Dehaene (2005), who tested
160 participants in a dual-task experiment and found increased subject's mean RTs in the more
161 complex condition (two key presses as compared to one), as well as from Vaportzis and
162 colleagues (2013), who found greater dual-task costs in their complex choice RT condition, in
163 which they had manipulated the amount of stimuli being presented as well as the amount of
164 choices participants could choose from for their response. The authors measured dual-task costs
165 by means of RTs and error rates.

166 Fischer et al. (2007) manipulated difficulty of task 2, in which participants had to judge numbers
167 as smaller or larger than 5, by varying the numerical distance of target numbers, and interpreted
168 their findings "as an overall effect of task 2 difficulty on RT1" (p.1694). The authors argue that
169 a greater distance (i.e. 2 is farther away from 5 than 4) makes for low resource demands in task
170 2 processing and leads to faster responses in task 1, whereas increased resource demands in task
171 2 predict larger RT1.

172 The literature offers no consensus as to what 'task difficulty' and 'task complexity' specifically
173 are. Important to note is that both terms are used interchangeably in the literature (Peng Liu,
174 2012). In a study by Tombu and Joliceur, *difficulty* refers to different manipulations, like visual
175 contrast or difficulty of stimulus-response mapping. Vaportzis and colleagues (2013)
176 manipulated *complexity* by different amounts of presented stimuli and options to choose from,
177 as did McDowd and Craik (1988), who defined the increase in complexity as "associated with
178 a greater degree of choice" (p.276). In our study, we will follow the definition by McDowd &

179 Craik (1988) and will therefore vary the ~~amount-number~~ of options participants will need to
180 choose from for their response. We will call this manipulation *task complexity*. It will be the
181 second main purpose of the proposed study to test whether a high task complexity leads to
182 prolonged RTs ~~and error rates~~, i.e., dual-task costs, and consequently larger priming effects, as
183 compared to a low task complexity.

184 Many debates as to whether objective or subjective measures are more suited for prime visibility
185 assessment, i.e. the direct task can be found in the literature. An objective task generally exists
186 in form of a forced-choice detection or discrimination of the prime, and performance above
187 chance level is taken as an indicator for awareness of the stimulus, whereas performance at
188 chance level indicates the absence of awareness (Hesselmann, 2013). Subjective tasks, on the
189 other hand, adopt participants' reports as to whether or not they have seen anything (Lin &
190 Murray, 2014). One frequently used report is the perceptual awareness scale (PAS, Ramsøy &
191 Overgaard, 2004), which requires participants to directly rate the visibility of the stimulus using
192 a rating scale with qualitative labels.

193 Peremen and Lamy (2014) compared an objective with a subjective measure in their study
194 (experiments 1- 3) and concluded that both approaches measured the same mechanism. It might
195 therefore be argued that the choice of direct task is merely a matter of preference. However,
196 subjective ratings are argued to be better suited to accurately grasp the content of phenomenal
197 consciousness as compared to the standard objective measure (Kiefer et al., 2023).

198 Kiefer and colleagues compared different subjective measures (PAS, confidence ratings, post-
199 decisional wagering) and concluded that PAS ratings are more exhaustive as compared to other
200 subjective measures, and are also more exclusive as compared to objective measures. In our
201 study, we decided to use the subjective PAS as well, as it is one widely used measure for
202 subjective reports of prime visibility. In order to manipulate task complexity, our PAS will
203 either comprise four or two items. For the high-complexity condition, we adapted the original
204 labels ('No experience', 'brief glimpse', 'almost clear image' and 'absolutely clear image') to

205 mirror more accurately our experimental setup. We decided on a scale ranging from 0 to 3
206 comprising the elements: “I did not see the arrow at all.” (German translation: “Ich habe den
207 Pfeil überhaupt nicht gesehen.”), “I had a brief glimpse of the arrow but cannot say in which
208 direction it pointed.” (“Ich hatte einen flüchtigen Eindruck vom Pfeil, kann aber nicht sagen, in
209 welche Richtung er gezeigt hat”), “I saw the arrow almost clearly.” (“Ich sah den Pfeil nahezu
210 deutlich.”), and “I saw the arrow clearly.” (“Ich habe den Pfeil deutlich gesehen.”). For the low-
211 complexity condition, the PAS will comprise only two items: 0 – “I have not seen the arrow.”
212 (“Ich habe den Pfeil nicht gesehen.”) and 1 – “I have seen the arrow.” (“Ich habe den Pfeil
213 gesehen.”).

214

215 *ERPs*

216 A number of previous ERP studies investigating the PRP effect have targeted the amplitude and
217 latency of the P3b component, which is characterized by a positive deflection broadly
218 distributed over the scalp, with a focus over parietal electrodes (Picton, 1992). The P3b has
219 been associated with post-perceptual processes such as the context-updating of working
220 memory (Donchin, 1981; Donchin & Coles, 1988), decision-related processing (Verleger et al.,
221 2005), and the access of a target stimulus to a global neuronal workspace necessary for
222 conscious report (Del Cul et al., 2007; Sergent et al., 2005). Previous dual-task investigations
223 have provided evidence for a sensitivity of P3b amplitude to dual-task interference (Kok, 2001).
224 Based on the observation that P3b latencies showed significant postponement directly
225 proportional to the PRP effect, some studies have proposed that the P3b component primarily
226 indexes the central cognitive processes mediating the PRP effect (Dell’Acqua et al., 2005;
227 Hesselmann et al., 2011; Sigman & Dehaene, 2008).

228 Previous studies also examined effects on the P3b amplitude and found a significant reduction
229 in dual-task as compared to single-task conditions (Kida et al., 2012a, 2012b), which has been
230 interpreted as the P3b amplitude being affected by allocated attentional resources (Thurlings et

231 al., 2013). Other studies, on the other hand, observed no difference in P3b amplitude under
232 single- and dual-task conditions (e.g. Kasper et al., 2014).

233 The latencies of earlier sensory ERP components, such as the P1 and N1, have been consistently
234 reported to remain stimulus-locked to both targets and show no postponement related to
235 (Brisson & Jolicœur, 2007; Sigman & Dehaene, 2008). In this context, the main question of our
236 study was whether the target-related P3b responses would show a differential and amplitude
237 depending on the different dual-task manipulations.

238 The literature offers suggestions as to what effects might be expected from our manipulations.

239 While, to our knowledge, effects of task difficulty on P3b latency were not observed, task
240 difficulty was found to lead to a decrease in the P3 amplitude in dual-task situations (Isreal et

241 al., 1980; Liebherr et al., 2018). ~~Isreal~~ and colleagues observed a monotonically decline in
242 P3 amplitude with the increase in task difficulty, which was defined as display load from zero

243 to four to eight elements, while Liebherr and colleagues observed a reduction in the positivity
244 between 350 and 500 ms after stimulus onset when participants had to differentiate between

245 odd and even numbers as well as between consonants and vowels, instead of just between
246 numbers and letters. We therefore expect P3b amplitude to decrease with increasing task

247 complexity.

248 To our knowledge, the influence of response modality on the P3b has not been studied so far,
249 therefore no leads are available within the literature as to which effects may be reasonably

250 expected. Previous studies have only looked at the effects of input modality on the P3b, and
251 found, for example, larger P3b amplitudes for the visual as compared to the auditory input

252 modality in single tasks (Kasper et al., 2014; Knott et al., 2003) as well as in dual-task situations
253 (Sangal & Sangal, 1996). We are therefore agnostic to the way in which a manipulation of

254 response modality of the task 2 might influence the target-related P3b in a dual-tasking
255 paradigm.

256

257 **Methods**

258 We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions, all manipulations, and all
259 measures in the study (Simmons et al., 2012). The procedures of the priming experiment were
260 approved by the local ethics committee (approval number PHB10032019), and an addendum
261 for the ERPs will be provided once the EEG recording details have been clarified in the review
262 process.

263

264 *Participants*

265 Participants will be recruited via advertisement on our department's homepage. We expect to
266 recruit mainly students of the Psychologische Hochschule Berlin (PHB), who will be able to
267 attain course credit as a reward for participation. To be included in the study, participants will
268 be required to have normal or corrected-normal vision, which will be assessed via self-report.
269 Criteria for exclusion from the study will be a history of any neurological illness and general
270 feelings of ill-being like headaches or colds at the time of the experiment. Participants will have
271 the freedom to stop the experiment at any time and to withdraw their consent to the use of their
272 data. Participants will be excluded from data analysis if they fail to complete the experiment as
273 intended by protocol. Reason may be an erroneous answering to the tasks or interruption of the
274 experimental session due to failures of apparatus or software. All participants will provide
275 informed written consent.

276 We used G*Power 3.1.9.7 (Faul et al., 2007) to determine our sample size. We assumed a
277 moderate effect size of $d_z=0.5$, thus a smaller effect size than reported by Biafora & Schmidt
278 (2022) for the comparison dual task versus single task. For a moderate effect size ($d_z=0.5$),
279 alpha level = 0.05, and a power of .80 for a one-tailed paired t-test comparing priming effects
280 between experimental conditions (i.e., vocal vs. manual response and high complexity vs. low
281 complexity) a sample size of $N = 27$ is required.

282

283

284

285 *Apparatus and Stimuli*

286 The participants will be seated in a dimly lit room in front of a Samsung Samtron 98PDF CRT-
287 Monitor (1280 x 1024 pixels, refresh rate 85 Hz, grey: 31 cd/m²) at a viewing distance of
288 approximately 60 cm. They will be asked to rest their chin on an adjustable chin rest, to assure
289 that they will be as still as possible so as not to introduce noise in form of muscle artefacts to
290 the EEG data, and to assure a consistent distance to both microphone and monitor.

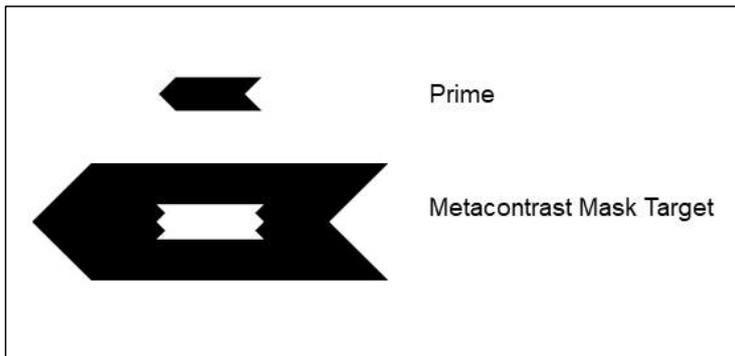
291 The experiment will be created in the PsychoPy (v2022.2.4) Builder interface of Python and
292 will be aided by Code components to implement the microphone. The prime and mask stimuli
293 we will use are provided in Figure 1. All stimuli are black arrows. Primes will have an edge
294 length of 0.8 cm, (0.76° x 0.29° of visual angle), and targets/mask will have an edge length of
295 2.8 cm (2.67° x 0.86°). Both appear in the centre of the screen. Targets, which simultaneously
296 function as masks, have an additional cut-out corresponding to the superposition of both left
297 and right prime-arrow, so that prime and mask share adjacent but nonoverlapping contours and
298 both prime shapes can be masked by metacontrast (Haase & Fisk, 2015). Each trial will start
299 with a black fixation cross in the centre of a grey background (edge length 0.3 cm).

300 In blocks A to D, the experiment consists of two different tasks that have to be performed within
301 the same trial (dual-tasking condition). Participants will perform a speeded target/mask
302 identification task (speeded two-choice identification task) and a non-speeded visibility rating
303 of the prime using a PAS.

304 Block E will contain the single-task condition and will only require participants to perform in
305 the speeded two-choice identification task. Block F, finally, will hold a non-speeded two-choice
306 prime identification task, which will be assessed in a separate session without an EEG
307 recording, to attain an objective measure for prime visibility. With the two-choice identification
308 of the target we will be measuring response priming as an indirect measure of prime processing

309 in congruent and incongruent trials. The PAS will serve as the direct measure of prime
310 processing and is designed to be a subjective measure of general prime visibility.

311



312

313 **Figure 1** Sample stimuli: congruent prime (top) and mask/target (bottom) stimuli. Note that the
314 prime stimulus fits inside the empty middle space of the mask/target stimulus, thereby
315 producing metacontrast masking of the prime.

316

317 *Design*

318 Our experiment will follow a 2 (congruency: congruent vs. incongruent) x 1 (SOA: 8 frames =
319 approx. 94 ms) design per block (A, B, C, D, E), making up a total of 10 conditions. Please note
320 that we will use only a single SOA due to time constraints. Following a recommendation of
321 Schmidt et al. (2011) there will be 60 trials per condition, so that each participant will test in
322 600 trials. Bartholow and colleagues (2009) advise the utilization of around 30% of prime-only
323 trials, in order to be able to calculate corrected target ERPs that are not confounded by prime-
324 related activity. However, since we are interested in only the target-related ERPs, which will
325 be assessed during task 1, and all blocks will contain the same confounding because the
326 experimental manipulations will only affect task 2, our design will not include prime-only
327 trials.

328

329 *EEG acquisition*

330 Continuous EEG recordings will be acquired from 32 channels using an actiCHamp EEG
331 amplifier with one 32-channel module and the actiCAP electrode cap with 32 active electrodes
332 (BrainProducts, Germany); the EEG electrodes will be placed on the scalp according to a
333 customized 10-20 system. The reference electrode will be positioned between Fz and Cz in
334 correspondence of the FCz electrode. The ground electrode will be placed 1 cm inferior of Oz.
335 Four additional electrodes will be dedicated to the horizontal and vertical electrooculogram
336 (EOG). Electrode impedances will be kept close to 25k Ω by means of a mildly abrasive
337 electrolyte paste, as recommended by the manufacturer (Abralyt 2000, BrainProducts,
338 Germany). EEG will be sampled at 1kHz and bandpass-filtered online between 0.016 and
339 250Hz.

340

341 *EEG pre-processing*

342 EEG data will be preprocessed and analysed using EEGLAB 2023.1 (Delorme & Makeig,
343 2004) running on Matlab R2019b (The Mathworks, USA) for all further pre-processing and
344 analysis. EEG data will bandpass-filtered offline (.5-40 Hz), and epoched (.2-1.2 sec, time-
345 locked to target onset). After dimensionality reduction to 64 dimensions based on principle
346 component analysis (PCA), independent-component analysis (ICA) will be performed on the
347 concatenated single-trial EEG data, using the extended INFOMAX algorithm as implemented
348 in EEGLAB (Bell & Sejnowski, 1995). The resulting 64 ICs will be automatically classified
349 using the ADJUST toolbox (Mognon et al., 2011) and rejected if classified as artifact (i.e., eye
350 blink, eye movement, and generic discontinuity).

351

352 *Procedure*

353 ~~After the application of the EEG cap, p~~Participants will be asked for written informed consent,
354 and will then be instructed regarding the procedure of the experiment. These instructions
355 involve the blocks, for which the participants will be tested, because tasks are slightly different

356 in each block, and the used PAS ratings, for it is important that participants memorise these
357 before the start of the experiment. ~~The EEG cap will then be applied and p~~Participants will ~~then~~
358 be required to sit on a chair in front of the experimental screen, rest their chin on the chin rest
359 to ensure a constant viewing distant of approximately 60 cm, and to position their hands, so that
360 their right hand can reach the number pad and their left hand the spacebar and the number row
361 alike.

362 Each trial starts with the black fixation cross, that will appear after one of six onset times
363 (approx. 1000, 1165, 1330, 1495 and 1824 ms), which were chosen to let trial durations vary.
364 The fixation cross is followed by a prime stimulus after approx. 500 ms, a black arrow pointing
365 either left or right. The prime is presented for 24 ms (2 frames). After a fixed SOA (8 frames =
366 approx. 94 ms) the target/mask follows, which is presented for 106 ms and points in either the
367 same direction as the prime (congruent trial) or the opposite direction (incongruent trial).
368 Participants will have to react as fast and accurately as possible to the direction of the
369 target/mask by pressing '1' for left and '3' for right on the number pad of the keyboard with their
370 right hand. See Figure 2 for a schematic depiction of the experimental paradigm.

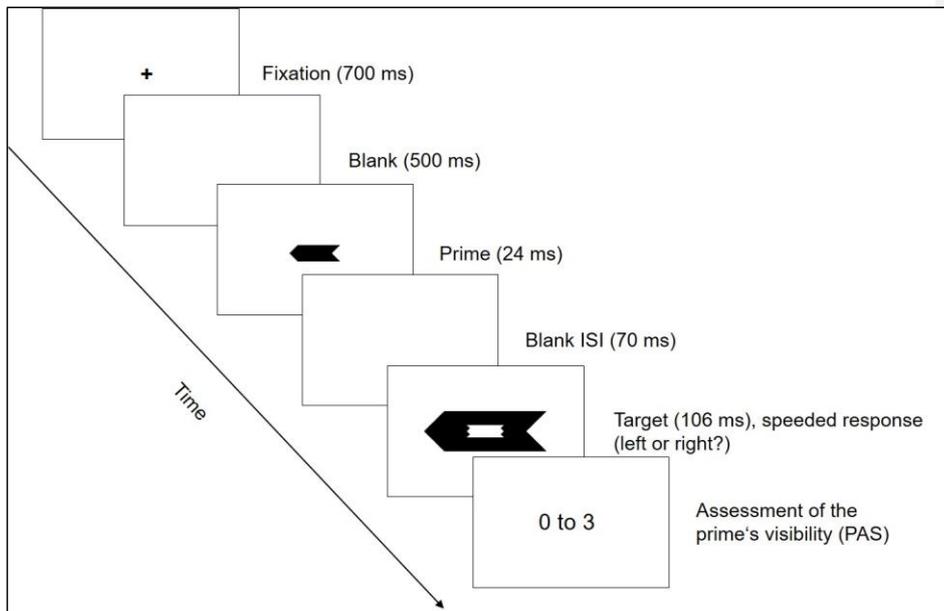
371 In blocks A and B, the speeded two-choice target identification task will be followed by a PAS.
372 The response modality will be a vocal response into a microphone that is positioned in front of
373 the chin rest. Participants will be required to assess how well they perceived the prime by
374 speaking the associated number of the chosen label.

375 In block A, the high complexity condition, there will be four PAS items to choose from (0, 1, 2
376 and 3), and in block B, the low complexity condition, there will be two (0 and 1). In block C
377 and D, the main task is the same, but participants will be asked to respond to the prime's
378 visibility assessment by pressing the digit keys from 1 to 4, which are covered by stickers,
379 showing the numbers 0 to 3. In block C, the high complexity condition, there will be again four
380 PAS items the participant can chose from, and in block D, the low complexity condition, there
381 will be two items.

382 Block E is the single-task condition and participants will be required to complete only the
 383 speeded two-choice identification task. The order of blocks will be randomized for each
 384 participant as to avoid order effects.

385 Block F will serve as a control block to measure objective prime visibility, and it will require
 386 participants to react to the direction of the prime in a non-speeded prime-identification task.
 387 Again, they will be asked to press '1' for left and '3' for right on the number pad of the keyboard.
 388 Block F will consist of 60 trials, while blocks A-E will consist of 120 trials and will be preceded
 389 by 20 practice trials. Each block (A-E) will last for approximately 10 minutes, bringing the
 390 estimated total duration of the session to an hour. Participants will be advised to take small
 391 breaks between the blocks, to avoid fatigue.

392



393

394 **Figure 2.** Sequence of stimulus events in a typical trial in our experiment. Note that the first
 395 task requires a speeded response to the second stimulus (target), and that the second task
 396 requires an unspeeded visibility assessment of the first stimulus (prime).

397 *Hypotheses*

398 We aim to study the influence of the direct task's characteristics on the dual-task costs, i.e. RTs
399 ~~and error rates,~~ and on the priming effect in a metacontrast-masked priming paradigm.
400 Specifically, we will look at the task characteristics of response modality and complexity.

401 As mentioned above, our study is conceptually close to that of Biafora and Schmidt (2022), and
402 we therefore predict that (hypothesis 1, directed) the dual-task condition (indirect task – reaction
403 to target direction; direct task – assessment of prime visibility via PAS) will lead to slower RTs
404 ~~and larger error rates,~~ and larger priming effects as compared to the single-task condition
405 (indirect task only).

406 Resource theories state, that the performance of two tasks suffers when both draw from the
407 same resources (Schacherer & Hazeltine, 2021), while dual-task costs are reduced when tasks
408 require distinct resources. Accordingly, manual and vocal responses can be timeshared
409 relatively efficiently (Wickens, 2002). We therefore predict that (hypothesis 2, directed) the
410 manual response modality condition of task 2 (key press) will lead to slower RTs ~~and larger~~
411 ~~error rates,~~ and larger priming effects as compared to the vocal response modality condition.

412 As stated above, studies found higher RTs for more complex experimental conditions as
413 compared to less complex conditions (e.g. Sigman & Dehaene, 2005; Vaportzis et al., 2013)
414 and even more specifically higher RT1 for a more difficult task 2 due to increased resource
415 demands (Fischer et al., 2007). We predict that (hypothesis 3, directed) the high task complexity
416 condition of task 2 (4 options to choose from for an answer) will lead to slower RTs ~~and larger~~
417 ~~error rates,~~ as well as larger priming effects than the low task complexity condition (2 options
418 to choose from).

419 ~~Regarding the ERPs, we are cautious making any predictions, since, to our knowledge, the~~
420 ~~influence of task modality and task complexity on P3b amplitude and latency has not been~~
421 ~~studied so far. However, we expect that P3b amplitude and latency will be affected by both task~~
422 ~~manipulations in some way. We will test the hypothesis that (hypothesis 4, undirected) the~~
423 ~~manual response modality condition of task 2 will lead to different P3b amplitude and latency~~

424 ~~as compared to the vocal response modality condition. Likewise, we will test the hypothesis~~
425 ~~that (hypothesis 5, directed) the high task complexity condition of task 2 will lead to different~~
426 ~~P3b amplitude and latency when compared to the low task complexity condition.~~

430 Analysis Plan

431 R and RStudio in their current versions will be used for all statistical analyses (R Core Team,
432 2021; RStudio Team, 2021). Only participants, who completed the experiment fully, will be
433 included in the preregistered analysis. We will use the interquartile range (IQR) method (Tukey,
434 1977) to define trials with RTs located 1.5 IQR outside the lower and upper quartiles as RT
435 outliers (per participant, across all conditions). Also, we will only include correct trials in our
436 analyses, that is trials in which participants answered correctly to the direction of the target
437 arrow.

438 The priming effects will be calculated by subtracting the mean RT in congruent trials from the
439 mean RT in incongruent trials per participant and condition. We will conduct paired samples t-
440 ~~test~~two way rm ANOVAs comprising the factors response modality (vocal vs. manual) and
441 ~~response complexity (high vs. low)~~ to test for significant differences in RTs ~~and error rates as~~
442 ~~measures of dual task costs,~~ and in priming effects between the levels of the two factors
443 modality and complexity, as well as between single and dual-task, ~~as well as a one way~~
444 ~~ANOVA comprising the factor task type to test for differences between single and dual task.~~
445 ~~ERPs will be time locked to the onset of the stimulus and then averaged per participant,~~
446 ~~condition and electrode for a time window from 200 to 1200 ms. We will be using the outputs~~
447 ~~from the three midline channels Fz, Cz and Pz to isolate the P3b, as these are typically used in~~
448 ~~dual tasking paradigms probing P3b (Aliakbarhosseinabadi et al., 2017; Isreal et al., 1980;~~
449 ~~Kasper et al., 2014; Knott et al., 2003). Statistical analyses will be calculated over mean~~

450 ~~amplitude and latency values in time windows that will be predefined via visual inspection, by~~
451 ~~means of ANOVAs comprising the factors task modality (vocal vs. manual) and task~~
452 ~~complexity (high vs. low), as well as the factor task type (single vs. dual) in a separate analysis.~~

454 **Exploratory Analyses**

455 ~~Regarding the ERPs, we are cautious making any predictions, since, to our knowledge, the~~
456 ~~influence of task modality and task complexity on P3b amplitude and latency has not been~~
457 ~~studied so far. However, we expect that P3b amplitude and latency will be affected by both task~~
458 ~~manipulations in some way.~~

459 ~~ERPs will be time-locked to the onset of the stimulus and then averaged per participant,~~
460 ~~condition and electrode for a time window from -200 to 1200 ms. We will be using the outputs~~
461 ~~from the three midline channels Fz, Cz and Pz to isolate the P3b, as these are typically used in~~
462 ~~dual-tasking paradigms probing P3b (Aliakbaryhosseinabadi et al., 2017; Isreal et al., 1980;~~
463 ~~Kasper et al., 2014; Knott et al., 2003). Statistical analyses will be calculated over mean~~
464 ~~amplitude and latency values in time windows that will be predefined via visual inspection, by~~
465 ~~means of ANOVAs comprising the factors task modality (vocal vs. manual), task complexity~~
466 ~~(high vs. low) and electrode site (Fz, Cz, Pz), as well as the factor task type (single vs. dual) in~~
467 ~~a separate analysis.~~

468 ~~In addition to RTs, error rates are utilized as measures for dual-task costs (e.g. McLeod, 1977;~~
469 ~~Vaportzis et al., 2013). We did not include error rates in our main hypothesis, but are interested~~
470 ~~nevertheless in the possible affects our manipulations could have on error rates, and will~~
471 ~~therefore conduct paired samples t-tests to test for significant difference between the levels of~~
472 ~~the two factors modality and complexity, as well as between single and dual-task.~~

473 ~~We will also be calculating a 2 (Modality: vocal vs. manual) x2 (Complexity: high vs. low)~~
474 ~~repeated measure ANOVAs with RTs as the dependent variable to check for interactions~~
475 ~~between the factors.~~

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477 **Data and Code Availability**

478 All materials, data and code will be made available at OSF (osf.io/34ydp).

479

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Appendix

Question	Hypothesis	Sampling plan	Analysis Plan	Rationale for deciding the sensitivity of the test for confirming or disconfirming the hypothesis	Interpretation given different outcomes	Theory that could be shown wrong by the outcomes
How does a dual-task situation due to trial-by-trial prime visibility judgments affect masked response priming effects?	We predict that the dual-task condition (indirect task–reaction to target direction; direct task – assessment of prime visibility via PAS) will lead to slower RTs and larger error rates, and larger priming effects as compared to the single-task condition (indirect task only). (H1)	27 subjects will be recruited.	Three-Two different one-way repeated measure ANOVAs with 2 levels (Task Type: single vs. dual-task) paired samples t-tests for RTs, error rates and priming effects as the dependent variable, respectively.	We used G*Power 3.1.9.7 (Faul et al., 2007) to determine our sample size. For a moderate effect size ($d_z = 0.5$), alpha level = 0.05, and a power of .80 for a one-tailed paired t-test comparing priming effects between experimental conditions (i.e., vocal vs. manual response and high complexity vs. low complexity) a sample size of $N = 27$ is required.	This could find that a dual-task situation <i>does</i> lead to decrements in performance and larger priming effects as compared to single task due to higher demands on cognitive resources. The absence of a significant modulation of priming effects would show that trial-by-trial prime visibility judgments do not strongly interfere with the priming effects.	The assumption that masked priming paradigms with and without trial-by-trial judgments of prime visibility lead to identical priming effects could be shown wrong.
Does the choice of response modality for task 2 influence performance and the priming effects in task 1?	We predict that the manual response modality condition of task 2 (key press) will lead to slower RTs and larger error rates, and larger priming effects as compared to the vocal response modality condition. (H2)		Three-Two different 2 (Modality: manual vs. vocal) x 2 (Complexity: high vs. low) repeated measure ANOVA with paired samples t-tests for RTs, error rates and priming effects as the dependent variable, respectively.		This could find that a manual response in task 2 <i>does</i> lead to slower RTs and larger error rates in task 1 for requiring to draw from the same resource, and larger priming effects following the slowing of RTs. Or it could find that it <i>does not</i> . We will interpret such	

					a finding as pointing towards an advantage of concordant input/output modality pairings. It could also find that there are no differences between the conditions, rendering them not essential for task 1 outcomes.	
Does the level of complexity in task 2 influence performance and the priming effects in task 1?	We predict that the high task complexity condition of task 2 (4 options to choose from for an answer) will lead to slower RTs and larger error rates, as well as larger priming effects than the low task complexity condition (2 options to choose from). (H3)				This could find that a higher complexity of task 2 <i>does</i> lead to slower RTs and larger error rates in task 1 because of higher demand of task 2 on limitedly available resources, and to larger priming effects following the slowing of RTs. Or it could find that it <i>does not</i> , because a higher demand of task 2 on resources does not affect performance in task 1, or because our manipulation does not raise demands effectively enough. It could also find that there are no differences between the conditions, rendering them not	

					essential for task 1 outcomes.	
Does the choice of response modality for task 2 influence P3b amplitude and latency observed in task 1?	We will test the hypothesis that the manual response modality condition of task 2 will lead to different P3b amplitude and latency as compared to the vocal response modality condition. (H4)		Two different 2 (Modality: manual vs. vocal) x 2 (Complexity: high vs. low) repeated measure ANOVA with P3b amplitude and latency as the dependent variable, respectively.		This could find that a manual response in task 2 <i>does</i> lead to different P3b amplitude and latency than a vocal response, pointing towards the relevance of the task 2 modality for the stimulus-locked ERPs, or it could find that it <i>does not</i> , pointing towards its irrelevance for the stimulus-locked ERPs.	
Does the level of complexity in task 2 influence P3b amplitude and latency observed in task 1?	We will test the hypothesis that the high task complexity condition of task 2 will lead to different P3b amplitude and latency when compared to the low task complexity condition. (H5)				This could find that a high task 2 complexity <i>does</i> lead to different P3b amplitude and latency than a low task 2 complexity, pointing towards the relevance of the task 2 complexity for the stimulus-locked ERPs, or it could find that it <i>does not</i> , pointing towards its irrelevance for the stimulus-locked ERPs.	

