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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.najef.2020.101347>

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3 **Spontaneous crossmodal correspondences grounded in contexts**

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6 Forthcoming at *Food Quality and Preference*

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## **Abstract**

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Thoughts and associations are spontaneously generated and situated. A growing

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body of research on crossmodal correspondences has revealed that individuals tend to

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associate information across sensory modalities. However, most of the findings have

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been based on restricted sensory pairs/items and the role of context remains largely

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unexplored. Relying on crossmodal correspondence studies and the theory of situated

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conceptualization, the present study aimed to study spontaneous crossmodal

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correspondences and the role of context (background situations, culture) in modulating

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them. Japanese and British participants (n = 604) were presented with shape stimuli

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(rounder and more angular) and spontaneously generated words describing the stimuli

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in different contexts (geometric shapes, logo in food packaging, and logo in non-food

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products). The results demonstrated that individuals spontaneously associate shape

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features with different senses, something that is influenced by context (background

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situations, culture). Geometric shapes were associated with visual and auditory

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descriptors, while shapes in the food context were linked with chemosensory

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(olfactory and taste) descriptors. Moreover, Japanese participants were more likely to

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generate touch descriptors, while British participants were more likely to use auditory

42 descriptors. Together, our findings reveal how multisensory associations are  
43 spontaneously generated and how these associations are grounded in context.

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45 *Keywords:* Crossmodal correspondences; Grounded cognition; Sensory linguistics;

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## Introduction

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59       Individuals tend to associate information across different senses in specific ways, a  
60 phenomenon that has been termed crossmodal correspondences (Spence, 2011). A  
61 growing body of evidence has shown that visual, auditory, olfactory, haptic, and  
62 gustatory stimuli are matched (or associated) in nonrandom ways (e.g., Spence, 2011).  
63 Some initial evidence of crossmodal correspondences was reported about a century ago  
64 (Köhler, 1947), with the bouba-kiki effect. This indicates that individuals tend to match  
65 the nonsense words *bouba* and *kiki* with round and spiky shapes, respectively.

66       Most crossmodal correspondence studies have been based on restricted sensory  
67 pairs and items. Typically, participants were asked to match a sensory attribute (e.g.,  
68 sweet taste) with a different single attribute (e.g., color) in a restricted range (e.g., red  
69 and green) (Spence et al., 2015). The findings in crossmodal correspondence studies are  
70 robust when the task involves subjective matching (e.g., Spence, 2011; Velasco et al.,  
71 2016). However, negative or non-straightforward findings have been reported in the  
72 case of downstream consequences of crossmodal correspondences (e.g., Otterbring et  
73 al., 2022; Wang et al., 2017).

74       this does not necessarily mean that individuals spontaneously associate information  
75 across different senses. When participants are given a stimulus (e.g., sweet taste) and

76 are asked to match it to a range of other stimuli (e.g., shapes varying in curvature), they  
77 are primed to think about the first stimulus given to the participants (e.g., sweet taste).  
78 This restricts the associations to those instances in which individuals consider the first  
79 stimulus (e.g., sweet taste) but do not reveal much in terms of what it evokes  
80 spontaneously in terms of other sensory modalities (e.g., other than sweet tastes).

81           It is essential to understand the existence of spontaneous crossmodal  
82 correspondences. In naturalistic settings, individuals are not given options to answer  
83 which sense is matched with a different sense. Rather, they are exposed to a given  
84 sensory stimulus, and then sensory associations may come to mind, something that may  
85 be constrained by context (e.g., food context) or task (e.g., search for something). Given  
86 that few studies have investigated spontaneous crossmodal correspondences (see  
87 Karwoske, Odbert, & Osgood, 1942), we studied how a particular sensory stimulus may  
88 evoke associations with information in other senses. We employed a data-driven  
89 approach using a word-association technique (Collova et al., 2019). This allows us to  
90 obtain participants' unconstrained descriptors (or associations) of a sense without  
91 imposing a priori assumptions on the participants.

92           Relying on the theory of situated conceptualization (Barsalou, 2009), we assume  
93 that spontaneous crossmodal correspondences are grounded in contexts (e.g.,

94 background situations, cultural contexts). According to the theory, the brain is a situated  
95 processing architecture and situations are fundamental to cognition (Barsalou, 2009).  
96 When people perceive a stimulus, they perceived the stimulus along with the  
97 background situations is perceived (Barsalou, 2009). Given the theory of situated  
98 conceptualization, it seems natural that individuals associate a sensory stimulus with  
99 different sensory concepts depending on the context. When individuals see shape  
100 features in a food context (e.g., shapes on food packaging), the relevant sensory imagery  
101 in the food context (e.g., taste, smell) appears to be evoked. In contrast, when seeing the  
102 same shape features without the food context (e.g., shapes on t-shirts), individuals may  
103 not generate words describing taste, smell, and touch.

104         The theory of situated conceptualization also suggests that culture can modulate  
105 spontaneous sensory associations. Culture can be regarded as a factor of situated  
106 cognition (Oyserman, 2016). Studies on sensory linguistics have suggested that  
107 different culture has distinct accessibilities to sensory concepts (Levinson & Majid,  
108 2014; Lynott et al., 2020; Majid et al., 2018; Strik Lievers & Winter, 2018; Uchida et  
109 al., 2021). Vision and audition are overrepresented, and chemical senses (smell and  
110 tastes) appear to be underrepresented in English and related languages (Levinson &  
111 Majid, 2014; Lynott et al., 2020; Strik Lievers & Winter, 2018). In contrast, in Japan,

112 touch-related words are predominantly represented in the form of ideophones (Uchida et  
113 al., 2021). This indicates that sensory descriptors are also grounded in culture, and  
114 different spontaneous sensory associations may be observed depending on the culture.

115         The present study aimed to reveal spontaneous crossmodal correspondences and  
116 how contexts modulate sensory associations. Japanese and British participants saw  
117 visual stimuli (rounder and angular shapes) and spontaneously generated words  
118 describing them in different contexts (geometric shapes, a logo in food packaging, and a  
119 logo in non-food products). We used shape stimuli (rounder and more angular) for the  
120 participants to perceive. From the classic work on the bouba-kiki effect (Köhler, 1947),  
121 studies on crossmodal correspondences have demonstrated that shape features (round  
122 and angular) are associated with various senses (e.g., Spence et al., 2013; Velasco et al.,  
123 2016). Moreover, shape features have been used in different contexts, such as food (e.g.,  
124 food packaging) and non-food products (e.g., logo design).

125

126

## Method

127

### 128 Design and Participants

129         The study followed a one-way between-participants design with three levels:

130 geometric, food, and non-food stimulus categories. Data were collected from 306

131 Japanese participants (130 women, 169 men, seven prefer not to say; mean age = 41.68



132 years; SD = 10.14) and 298 British participants (215 women, 81 men, two prefer not to  
133 say; mean age = 34.30 years; SD = 12.59). The participants were randomly allocated to  
134 one of three conditions in Japan (geometric: n = 107; food: n = 96; and non-food: n =  
135 103) and the UK (geometric: n = 106; food: n = 87; and non-food: n = 105). The sample  
136 size was based on recent studies using word association techniques (Collova et al.,  
137 2019). A priori sample size calculation was not formally conducted because there was  
138 no prior data on estimating the likelihood of spontaneous association of visual stimuli  
139 with other sensory descriptors. We determined a sample size of 300 participants for  
140 each country and obtained a relatively larger size of data for analyses (the number of  
141 sensory descriptors in Japanese and British participants was 1,155 and 609,  
142 respectively). Japanese participants were recruited from Lancers, and British  
143 participants were recruited from Prolific. All participants completed the survey on  
144 Qualtrics and received monetary compensation for their time. All the studies described  
145 herein were approved by the ethics committee of Miyagi University.

146

## 147 **Procedures**

148         The participants saw a set of stimuli consisting of geometric shapes, shapes on  
149 food packaging, or shapes on t-shirts. The participants were instructed as follows:

150 “Please write down four words, descriptors, associations, thoughts, or feelings that  
151 come to mind after having seen this image” (Collova et al., 2019). In total, the  
152 participants saw four stimuli (two round shapes, two angular shapes; Figure 1) and  
153 provided descriptors for each stimulus. The order of shape stimuli was randomized.

154

### 155 **Data Categorizations**

156 In total, Japanese and British participants provided 1,712 and 1,969 descriptors  
157 for geometric shapes, 1,536 and 1,392 for food products, and 1,648 and 1,680 for non-  
158 food products, respectively.

159 First, the descriptors were categorized into sensory (e.g., angular and soft), and  
160 the other two categories (emotions/feelings; e.g., relaxed and intense, and others; e.g.,  
161 cloud and flower) for each context (geometry, food, non-food), although we specifically  
162 focus on sensory terms. For the data of Japanese participants, two raters independently  
163 classified the descriptors into each category, with a later mutual discussion resolving  
164 any disagreement. For the data of British participants, two raters independently  
165 classified the descriptors into each category, and the third rater resolved any  
166 disagreement. When the third rater could not resolve the disagreements, the researcher  
167 solved it.

168           The results of the inter-rater reliability showed that Cohen’s  $\kappa$  revealed  
169   substantial agreement between the two raters in all categories in Japan (geometric;  $\kappa$   
170   = .747,  $p < .001$ ; food product:  $\kappa = .657$ ,  $p < .001$ ; non-food product;  $\kappa = .649$ ,  $p < .001$ )  
171   and the UK (geometric;  $\kappa = .515$ ,  $p < .001$ ; food product:  $\kappa = .628$ ,  $p < .001$ ; non-food  
172   product:  $\kappa = .679$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Based on this classification, descriptors were classified by  
173   sensory ( $n = 1155$  for Japan;  $n = 609$  for the UK), emotion/feelings ( $n = 1243$  for Japan;  
174    $n = 1648$  for UK), and others ( $n = 2498$  for Japan;  $n = 2511$  for UK). Since we focused  
175   on spontaneous crossmodal correspondences, only data in the “sensory” category  
176   applied to our research. The data in other categories were used only for the data  
177   categorization process to discriminate variables of interest (*sensory*) and irrelevant ones  
178   (*emotions, others*). Therefore, the data in the other two categories will not be used  
179   elsewhere.

180           The sensory descriptors were further classified into five major sensory  
181   modalities (vision, audition, smell, touch, and taste) in the same way (i.e., the same  
182   raters classified). We also calculated the inter-rater reliability of the sensory descriptors  
183   for Japanese and British participants. Cohen’s  $\kappa$  revealed almost perfect agreement  
184   between the two raters for sensory descriptors of all conditions in Japan (geometric:  $\kappa$   
185   = .809,  $p < .001$ ; food product:  $\kappa = .854$ ,  $p < .001$ ; non-food product:  $\kappa = .855$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

186 Likewise, Cohen's  $\kappa$  revealed almost perfect agreement between the two coders for all  
187 conditions in the UK (geometric:  $\kappa = 1.000, p < .001$ ; food product:  $\kappa = .891, p < .001$ ;  
188 non-food product:  $\kappa = 1.000, p < .001$ ).

189

## 190 **Results of Spontaneous Sensory Associations in Japan and the UK**

191 To determine how people in Japan and the UK spontaneously associated visual  
192 stimuli with other senses, chi-squared tests were conducted for Japan and the UK data.  
193 The data of the conditions (geometry, food, and non-food) and shapes (round and  
194 angular) were collapsed. The sensory associations for Japanese ( $\chi^2_{24} = 972.87, p < .001$ ,  
195 *Cramer's V* = 0.459) and the UK ( $\chi^2_{24} = 438.71, p < .001$ , *Cramer's V* = 0.424) were not  
196 uniformly distributed (Table 1; Figure 2). For the Japanese data, the analysis of  
197 standardized residuals (SR) revealed that vision (SR = 24.05) and touch (SR = 9.78)  
198 were over-overrepresented, while audition (SR = -16.77) and smell (SR = -16.11) were  
199 underrepresented (all *ps* < .001). No significant difference was found in taste (SR = -  
200 0.96, *p* = .33). For the UK data, vision (SR = 18.96) was overrepresented, while smell  
201 (SR = -11.93), touch (SR = -5.55), and taste (SR = -3.42) were underrepresented (all *ps*  
202 < .001). No significant difference was found in audition (SR = 1.95, *p* = .052).

203

204 **Results of Contextual Differences in Spontaneous Sensory Associations in Japan**  
205 **and the UK**

206 To determine whether the proportions of selection for sensory descriptors  
207 differed among the conditions (Table 2), Fisher's exact test for count data was  
208 conducted with post-hoc pairwise comparisons using the Holm procedure. The results  
209 from the combined sample (Japan + the UK) and frequently mentioned words are shown  
210 in Appendices B to D.

211

212 *Geometry versus Food*

213 The results demonstrated significant differences in the proportions of sensory  
214 descriptors between geometric shapes and food products (Japan:  $p < .001$ ; the UK:  $p$   
215  $< .001$ ). For the Japanese data, post-hoc comparisons revealed significant differences in  
216 smell [ $adj.p < .001$ , odds ratio (OR) = 0], touch ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 1.97), taste ( $adj.p$   
217  $< .001$ , OR = 0.03), and vision ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 4.56) but not in audition ( $adj.p$   
218 = .499, OR = Inf). Japanese participants were more likely to spontaneously associate  
219 shapes with visual and touch descriptors for geometry (vs. food), while they were more  
220 likely to spontaneously generate smell and taste descriptors for food (vs. geometry). For  
221 the UK data, post-hoc comparisons revealed significant differences in audition ( $adj.p$   
222  $< .001$ , OR = 6.15), touch ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.13), taste, ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.02),

223 and vision (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 2.37) but not in smell (*adj.p* = 1.00, OR = 0.57). British  
224 participants were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with visual and auditory  
225 descriptors for geometry (vs. food products), while they were more likely to  
226 spontaneously generate touch and taste descriptors for food (vs. geometry).

227

### 228 *Food versus Non-food*

229         The results demonstrated significant differences in the proportions of sensory  
230 descriptors between geometric shapes and food products (Japan: *p* < .001; UK: *p*  
231 < .001). For the Japanese data, post-hoc comparisons showed significant differences in  
232 touch (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 0.47), taste (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 151.00), smell (*adj.p* = .003,  
233 OR = Inf), and vision (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 0.22) but not in audition (*adj.p* = .431, OR =  
234 0). Japanese participants were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with taste  
235 and smell descriptors for food (vs. non-food), while they were more likely to  
236 spontaneously generate visual and touch descriptors for non-food (vs. food). For the UK  
237 data, post-hoc comparisons showed significant differences in touch (*adj.p* = .006, OR =  
238 2.52), taste (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 106.00), and vision (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 0.14) but not in  
239 audition (*adj.p* = .746, OR = 0.76) and smell (*adj.p* = 1.00, OR = 1.58). British  
240 participants were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with touch and taste

241 descriptors for food (vs. non-food), while they were more likely to spontaneously  
242 generate visual descriptors for non-food (vs. food).

243

#### 244 *Geometry versus Non-food*

245         The results demonstrated significant differences in the proportions of sensory  
246 descriptors between geometric shapes and non-food products for British participants ( $p$   
247  $< .001$ ) but not for Japanese participants ( $p = .240$ ). For the UK data, post-hoc  
248 comparisons revealed significant differences in audition ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 4.69),  
249 touch ( $adj.p = .047$ , OR = 0.32), and vision ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.34), but not in smell  
250 ( $adj.p = 1.00$ , OR = 0.90) and taste ( $adj.p = 1.00$ , OR = 1.80). British participants were  
251 more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with auditory descriptors for geometry  
252 (vs. non-food products), while they were more likely to spontaneously generate visual  
253 and touch descriptors for non-food products (vs. geometry).

254

#### 255 **Results of Cross-cultural Differences in Spontaneous Sensory Associations**

256

257         We investigated cultural differences in spontaneous sensory descriptors in terms  
258 of geometric shapes, food, and non-food products. These methods are similar to those  
259 explained above.

260

261 *Geometry Shapes*

262           In the geometry shape conditions, the results revealed a significant difference  
263 between Japan and the UK ( $p < .001$ ). Pairwise comparisons showed significant  
264 differences in audition ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.01) and touch ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 18.2)  
265 but not in vision ( $adj.p = .073$ , OR = 1.49), smell ( $adj.p = .484$ , OR = 0), and taste  
266 ( $adj.p = .484$ , OR = 2.63). This means that Japanese (vs. British) participants were more  
267 likely to spontaneously associate geometric shapes with touch descriptors, while British  
268 (vs. Japanese) participants were more likely to spontaneously associate geometric  
269 shapes with auditory descriptors.

270

271 *Food Products*

272           In the food product conditions, the results revealed a significant difference  
273 between Japan and the UK ( $p < .001$ ). The pairwise comparisons showed significant  
274 differences in audition ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0) and taste ( $adj.p = .015$ , OR = 1.64) but  
275 not in vision ( $adj.p = .465$ , OR = 0.78), smell ( $adj.p = .465$ , OR = 3.36), and touch  
276 ( $adj.p = .483$ , OR = 1.64). Specifically, Japanese (vs. British) participants were more  
277 likely to spontaneously associate shapes on food products with taste descriptors, while



278 British (vs. Japanese) participants were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes  
279 on food products with auditory descriptors.

280

### 281 *Non-food Products*

282 In the non-food product conditions, the results revealed a significant difference  
283 between Japan and the UK ( $p < .001$ ). The pairwise comparisons showed significant  
284 differences in audition ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.02), touch ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 6.23), and  
285 vision ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.51). but not in smell ( $adj.p = .728$ , OR = 0) and taste ( $adj.p$   
286 = 1.00, OR = 1.15). Specifically, Japanese (vs. British) participants were more likely to  
287 spontaneously associate shapes on non-food products with touch and visual descriptors,  
288 while British (vs. Japanese) participants were more likely to spontaneously associate  
289 non-food products with auditory descriptors.

290

### 291 **Results of Spontaneous Sensory Associations in Round and Angular Shapes**

#### 292 *Round*

293 To determine how individuals spontaneously associate round shapes with  
294 senses, a chi-squared test was conducted. For the analyses, data for each condition  
295 (geometry, food, and non-food) were collapsed. The sensory associations for Japan ( $\chi^2_4$   
296 = 593.87,  $p < .001$ , *Cramer's V* = 0.487) and the UK ( $\chi^2_4 = 231.03$ ,  $p < .001$ , *Cramer's*

297  $V = 0.439$ ) were not uniformly distributed. For Japanese data, the analysis of  
298 standardized residuals revealed that vision (SR = 8.10,  $adj.p < .001$ ) and touch (SR =  
299 19.20,  $adj.p < .001$ ) were overrepresented, while audition (SR = -12.50,  $adj.p < .001$ ),  
300 smell (SR = -12.00,  $adj.p < .001$ ), and taste (SR = -2.80,  $adj.p = .005$ ) were  
301 underrepresented. For British data, the analysis of standardized residuals revealed that  
302 vision (SR = 14.29,  $adj.p < .001$ ) was overrepresented, while smell (SR = -8.08,  $adj.p$   
303  $< .001$ ), touch (SR = -3.18,  $adj.p < .001$ ), and taste (SR = -3.03,  $adj.p < .001$ ) were  
304 underrepresented. No significant difference was found in audition (SR = 0.00,  $adj.p =$   
305 1.000).  
306  
307 Angular

308 To determine how people spontaneously associate angular shapes with senses, a  
309 chi-squared test was conducted. For the analyses, the data for each condition (geometry,  
310 food, and non-food) were collapsed. The sensory associations for Japan ( $\chi^2_{24} = 798.42$ ,  
311  $p < .001$ , *Cramer's V* = 0.614) and the UK ( $\chi^2_{24} = 213.7$ ,  $p < .001$ , *Cramer's V* = 0.416)  
312 were not uniformly distributed. For Japanese data, the analysis of standardized residuals  
313 revealed that vision (SR = 26.71,  $adj.p < .001$ ) was overrepresented, while audition (SR  
314 = -11.19,  $adj.p < .001$ ), smell (SR = -10.75,  $adj.p < .001$ ), and touch (SR = -6.41,  $adj.p$   
315  $< .001$ ) were underrepresented. No significant difference was found in taste (SR = 1.63,

316 *adj.p* = .103). For British data, the analysis of standardized residuals revealed that vision  
317 (SR = 12.54, *adj.p* < .001) and audition (SR = 2.73, *adj.p* = .006) were overrepresented,  
318 while smell (SR = -8.79, *adj.p* < .001) and touch (SR = -4.66, *adj.p* < .001) were  
319 underrepresented. No significant difference was found in taste (SR = -1.82, *adj.p*  
320 = .069).

321

322 **Results of Contextual Differences in Spontaneous Sensory Associations in**  
323 **Combined Sample (Japanese and British participants)**

324

325 *Geometry versus Food*

326 To determine whether the proportions of selection for sensory descriptors could  
327 differ between geometric shapes and food products, Fisher's exact test for count data  
328 was conducted. The results of Fisher's exact test demonstrated significant differences in  
329 the proportions of sensory descriptors between geometric shapes and food products (*p*  
330 < .001). The results of post-hoc pairwise comparisons with the Holm procedure showed  
331 significant differences in audition (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 4.02), smell (*adj.p* = .002, OR =  
332 0.07), tastes (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 0.03), and vision (*adj.p* < .001, OR = 3.64) but not in  
333 touch (*adj.p* = .097, OR = 1.25). This means that participants were more likely to  
334 spontaneously associate shapes with visual and auditory descriptors for geometry (vs.

335 food products), while they were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with  
336 olfactory and taste descriptors for food products (vs. geometry).

337

### 338 *Food versus Non-food*

339 To determine whether the proportions of selection for sensory descriptors could  
340 differ between food and non-food products, Fisher's exact test for count data was  
341 conducted. The results of Fisher's exact test demonstrated significant differences in the  
342 proportions of sensory descriptors between food and non-food products ( $p < .001$ ). The  
343 results of post-hoc pairwise comparisons with the Holm procedure showed significant  
344 differences in touch ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.53), taste ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 15.10), and  
345 vision ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.35) but not in smell ( $adj.p = .059$ , OR = 0.46) and audition  
346 ( $adj.p = .538$ , OR = 0.82). The results indicated that participants were more likely to  
347 spontaneously associate shapes with touch, taste, and smell descriptors for food (vs.  
348 non-food), while they were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with visual  
349 descriptors for non-food (vs. food).

350

### 351 *Geometry versus Non-food*

352 To determine whether the proportions of selection for sensory descriptors could  
353 differ between geometric and non-food products, Fisher's exact test for count data was

354 conducted. The results of Fisher's exact test demonstrated significant differences in the  
355 proportions of sensory descriptors between geometric shapes and non-food products ( $p$   
356  $< .001$ ). The results of post-hoc pairwise comparisons with the Holm procedure showed  
357 significant differences in vision ( $adj.p = .047$ , OR = 1.29), audition ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR =  
358 3.30), smell ( $adj.p < .001$ , OR = 0.03), touch ( $adj.p = .012$ , OR = 0.67), and taste ( $adj.p$   
359 = .023, OR = 0.39). This means that participants were more likely to spontaneously  
360 associate shapes with visual and auditory descriptors for geometry (vs. non-food  
361 products), while they were more likely to spontaneously associate shapes with touch,  
362 taste, and smell descriptors for non-food products (vs. geometry).

363

364

## Discussion

365

366 We studied how individuals spontaneously associate shapes with information  
367 from different senses and how contexts modulate these associations. Consistent with the  
368 theory of situated conceptualization, the results demonstrate that spontaneous sensory  
369 associations are grounded in contexts (background situations, culture). Visual and  
370 auditory descriptors are more frequently used for geometry (vs. food products), whereas  
371 chemosensory (smell and taste) descriptors are more predominantly used for food  
372 products (vs. geometry). For cultural differences, Japanese (vs. British) participants

373 were more likely to spontaneously associate geometric shapes with touch descriptors  
374 and associated shapes on food packaging with taste descriptors. In contrast, British (vs.  
375 Japanese) participants were more likely to spontaneously associate geometric shapes  
376 and shapes on food packaging with auditory and visual descriptors. Our results suggest  
377 that contexts act as top-down influences on the spontaneous associations between shape  
378 curvature and other senses.

379         Previous studies have shown that different contexts (e.g., surrounding products  
380 and culture) influence the extent to which individuals associate different senses across  
381 modalities (Motoki & Velasco, 2021; Wan et al., 2014). In line with this evidence, our  
382 results demonstrated that spontaneous sensory associations are dependent on contexts.  
383 In the context of geometric shapes, British and Japanese participants tend to associate  
384 shapes with auditory descriptors and touch-related words, respectively. In the context of  
385 food products, participants spontaneously generated taste-related words after seeing the  
386 shape features. In the context of non-food products, participants, specifically Japanese,  
387 tend to associate shape features with touch-related words. Together, these findings  
388 suggest that individuals can spontaneously generate crossmodal correspondences  
389 depending on the contexts.

390           In terms of cultural differences, Japanese participants tended to associate shape  
391 features with touch-related words, regardless of the context. This tendency was not  
392 observed in British participants who rarely used touch-related words to describe shape  
393 features. Instead, British participants tended to use auditory words to associate with  
394 shape features. Cultural differences might be derived from sensory dominance in each  
395 language. English words (verbs) are overrepresented in the sounds (and vision) among  
396 sensory domains, while touch, smell, and taste words are underrepresented (Lynott et  
397 al., 2020; Strik, Lievers, & Winter, 2018). In contrast, in Japan, touch-related words are  
398 predominantly represented in the form of ideophones (Uchida et al., 2021). Taken  
399 together, our findings suggest cultural differences in spontaneous crossmodal  
400 correspondences and sensory dominance when each language may shape the  
401 differences.

402           There are some limitations in our study. First, the stimulus was a black colored,  
403 though the black color was consistent across conditions. The color might influence our  
404 findings, and the other color (e.g., pink) might lead to the different findings. This is  
405 worth considering in future studies. Second, our findings are obtained by only shape  
406 stimuli. Further studies need to confirm the generalizability of our findings by  
407 employing other sensory stimuli. Third, to some extent, our results contradict the

408 proxemics literature (Hall, 1966; Otterbring et al., 2021). In the literature, Japan is  
409 considered a low-contact culture. Individuals from these cultures value considerable  
410 interpersonal distances and avoid personal touch (at least with strangers) to a greater  
411 extent than those from high-contact cultures (e.g., Latin America; Hall, 1966; Otterbring  
412 et al., 2021). The explanation from proxemics literature may apply to social cues (e.g.,  
413 advertising model) but not to non-social cues such as those in our study (e.g., T-shirt).  
414 Further research should test spontaneous associations in different cultures using social  
415 and non-social cues.

416         Our findings demonstrate that context influences spontaneous associations of  
417 shape features with different senses. Therefore, research on crossmodal  
418 correspondences may need to examine top-down effects on spontaneous associations.

419

420

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471

472 **Table 1**

473 *Frequency of Spontaneous Sensory Associations in Japan and the UK*

		Vision		Audition		Smell		Touch		Taste		Total	
<b>JAPAN</b>	Round	206	32.96%	0	0.00%	5	0.80%	317	50.72%	97	15.52%	625	100%
	Angular	352	66.42%	3	0.57%	7	1.32%	47	8.87%	121	22.83%	530	100%
	Total	558	48.31%	3	0.26%	12	1.04%	364	31.52%	218	18.87%	1155	100%
<b>UK</b>	Round	159	53.00%	60	20.00%	4	1.33%	38	12.67%	39	13.00%	300	100%
	Angular	150	48.54%	81	26.21%	0	0.00%	29	9.39%	49	15.86%	309	100%
	Total	309	50.74%	141	23.15%	4	0.66%	67	11.00%	88	14.45%	609	100%

474

475

476 **Table 2**

477 *Frequency of Spontaneous sensory associations as a Function of Conditions (Geometry,*  
 478 *Food, and Non-food) and countries (Japan and the UK)*

		Vision		Auditory		Smell		Haptics		Taste		Total	
<b>JAPAN</b>													
Geometry	Round	89	37.71%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	141	59.75%	6	2.54%	236	100%
	Angular	171	90.00%	2	1.05%	0	0.00%	12	6.32%	5	2.63%	190	100%
	Total	260	61.03%	2	0.47%	0	0.00%	153	35.92%	11	2.58%	426	100%
Food	Round	51	23.29%	0	0.00%	5	2.28%	72	32.88%	91	41.55%	219	100%
	Angular	55	28.06%	0	0.00%	7	3.57%	20	10.20%	114	58.16%	196	100%
	Total	106	25.54%	0	0.00%	12	2.89%	92	22.17%	205	49.40%	415	100%
Non-food	Round	66	38.82%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	104	61.18%	0	0.00%	170	100%
	Angular	126	87.50%	1	0.69%	0	0.00%	15	10.42%	2	1.39%	144	100%
	Total	192	61.15%	1	0.32%	0	0.00%	119	37.90%	2	0.64%	314	100%
<b>The UK</b>													
Geometry	Round	50	48.54%	46	44.66%	1	0.97%	4	3.88%	2	1.94%	103	100%
	Angular	53	54.08%	43	43.88%	0	0.00%	2	2.04%	0	0.00%	98	100%
	Total	103	51.24%	89	44.28%	1	0.50%	6	2.99%	2	1.00%	201	100%
Food	Round	35	33.02%	12	11.32%	2	1.89%	21	19.81%	36	33.96%	106	100%
	Angular	35	26.69%	14	11.48%	0	0.00%	24	19.67%	49	40.16%	122	100%
	Total	70	30.70%	26	11.40%	2	0.88%	45	19.74%	85	37.28%	228	100%
Non-food	Round	74	81.32%	2	2.20%	1	1.10%	13	14.29%	1	1.10%	91	100%
	Angular	62	69.66%	24	26.97%	0	0.00%	3	3.37%	0	0.00%	89	100%
	Total	136	75.56%	26	14.44%	1	0.56%	16	8.89%	1	0.56%	180	100%

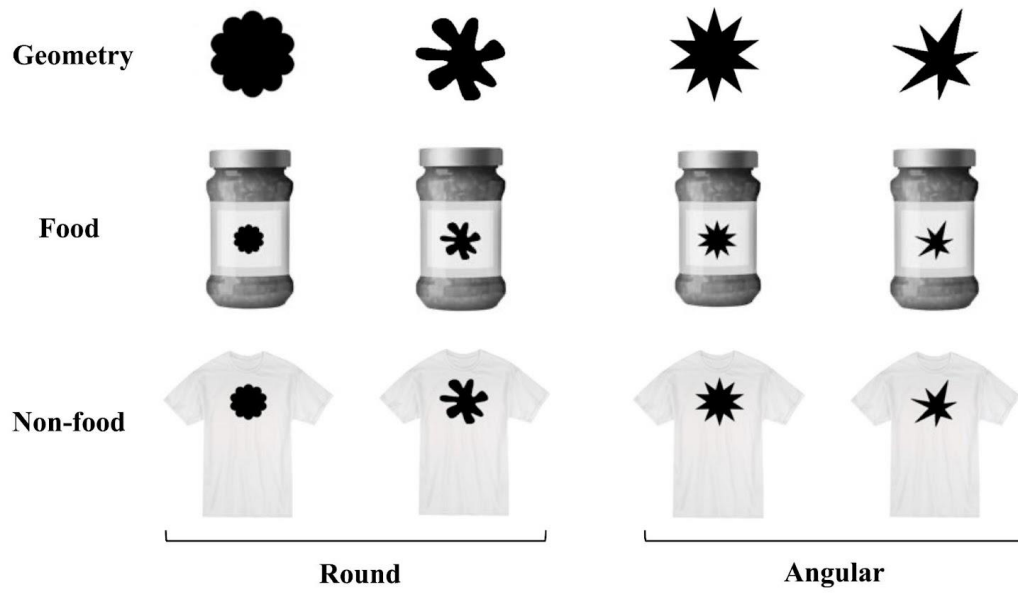
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480

481 **Figure 1**

482

483 *Stimuli used in the experiment*



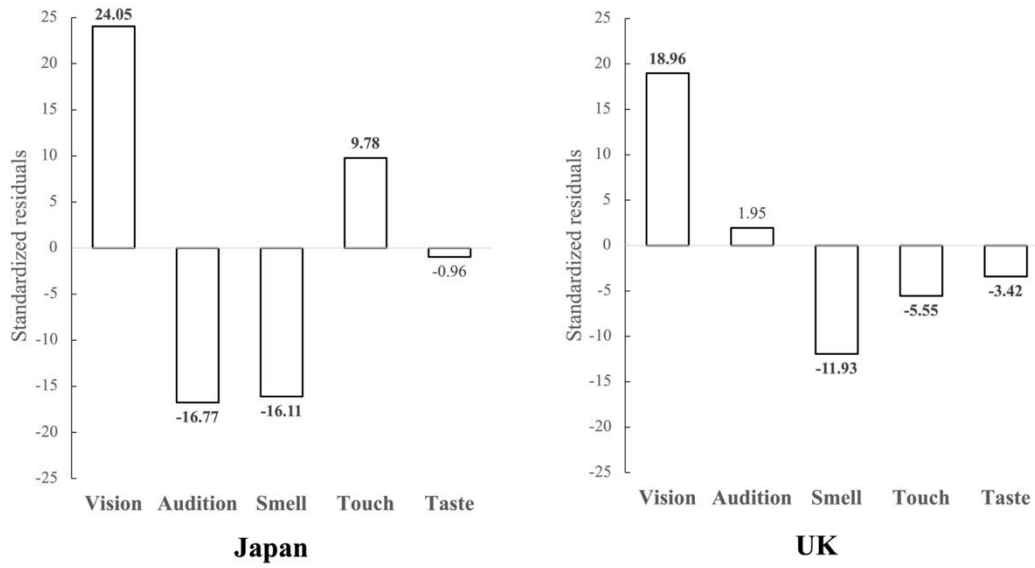
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487 **Figure 2**

488 *Results of the analysis of standardized residuals*



489

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491

492

## Appendix A

493

### Frequently Mentioned Words in Each Context

494

495

The following are the top 10 frequently mentioned words in each context:

496

#### Geometric Shapes in Japan

497

- Round shapes: yawarakai(39), fuwafuwa(23), mokomoko(14), mokumoku (10),

498

marui(9), mohumohu(9), kunyakunya(8), kurai(8), bechatto(8), nebaneba(8)

499

- Angular shapes: togetoge(44), surudo(22), gizagiza(15), togetogeshii(10),

500

togatteiru(9), chikuchiku(8), kirakira(6), kurai(5), kagayaku(5), tuntun(4)

501

502

#### Food Products in Japan

503

- Round shapes: amai(38), yawarakai(14), kurai(10), maroyaka(9), tsurai(8),

504

fuwafuwa(8), nigai(7), marui(6), katai(6), suppai(5)

505

- Angular shapes: karai(60), suppai(14), kurai(9), nigai(9), akai(8), gekikara(8),

506

siokarai(6), chikuchiku(5), togetoge(4), tuntun(4)

507

508

#### Non-food Products in Japan

509

- Round shapes: fuwafuwa(24), yawarakai(18), mokomoko(11), kurai(10),

510

gunyagunya(9), marui(7), kuroi(6), mokumoku(5), shiroi(5), dorodoro(3)



- 511 • Angular shapes: togetoge(29), togatteiru(9), akarui(9), gizagiza(8), kuroi(7),  
512 surudo(7), shiroi(5), igaiga(5), hukisoku(4), kurai(3)

513

#### 514 **Geometric Shapes in the UK**

- 515 • Round shapes: splat (42), black (34), dark (10), soft (4), quiet (3), colorful (2),  
516 sweet (2), pink (2)

- 517 • Angular shapes: bang (33), black (23), dark (13), bright (8), loud (4), yellow (3),  
518 exclamation (2), colorful (2)

519

#### 520 **Food Products in the UK**

- 521 • Round shapes: grey (22), splat (12), sweet (12), soft (11), taste (9), dark (5),  
522 black (5), tasteless (3), tangent (3), cold (2)

- 523 • Angular shapes: grey (20), spicy (18), bang (13), sharp (11), hot (7), dark (5),  
524 taste (5), sweet (4), flavor (3), salt (3)

525

#### 526 **Non-food Products in the UK**

- 527 • Round shapes: white (35), black (23), dark (9), soft (5), monochrome (5), splat  
528 (2), ky (2), cool (2)

529 • Angular shapes: white (23), bang (21), black (16), bright (7), yellow (3), spark

530 (3), lightening (3), splat (2), monochrome (2)

531

532

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534

535

## Appendix B

536

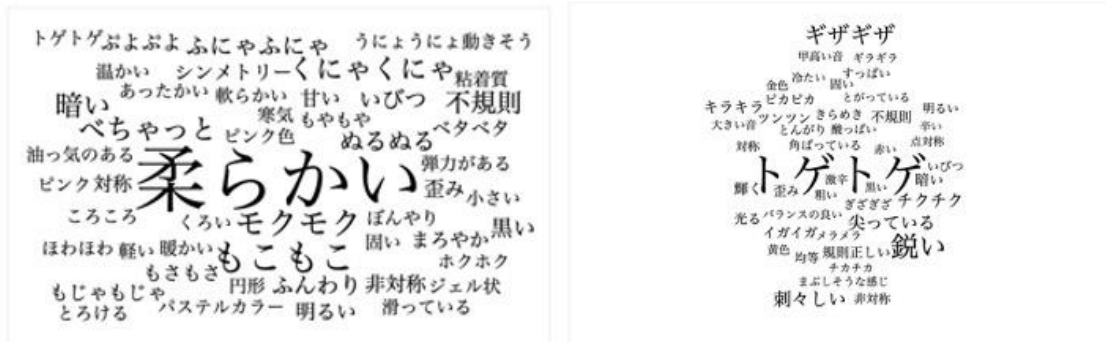
### Visual Illustrations of Spontaneous Sensory Associations Using WordCloud

537

(<https://worditout.com/word-cloud/create>)

538

539 **Geometric Shapes in Japan**



540

541

542 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the

543 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

544

545 **Food Products in Japan**



546

547

548

549 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the  
 550 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

551

552 **Non-food Products in Japan**



553

554

555 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the

556 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

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558 **Geometric Shapes in the UK**



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563 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the

564 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

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566 **Food Products in the UK**



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570 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the

571 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

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573 **Non-food Products in the UK**



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577 Note: The left figure indicates the words derived from round shapes. The figure on the

578 right denotes words derived from angular shapes.

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