

1 RUNNING HEAD: CROSSMODAL CORRESPONDENCES

2

3 Reflections on crossmodal correspondences:

4 Current understanding and issues for future research

5

6 Kosuke Motoki¹, Lawrence E. Marks^{2,3}, & Carlos Velasco⁴

7 *¹Department of Management, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan*

8 *²Sensory Information Processing, John B. Pierce Laboratory, New Haven, CT, USA*

9 *³School of Public Health and Department of Psychology, Yale University,*

10 *New Haven, CT, USA*

11 *⁴Centre for Multisensory Marketing, Department of Marketing, BI Norwegian Business School,*

12 *Oslo, Norway*

13

14

15 JOURNAL: MULTISENSORY RESEARCH.

16 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Dr. Carlos Velasco, Nydalsveien

17 37, 0484 Oslo. Tel: +47 464 10 000. E-mail: carlos.velasco@bi.no; Dr. Kosuke Motoki,

18 7-3-1, Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan. E-mail: motoki@e.u-tokyo.ac.jp

19

20

Abstract

21 The past two decades have seen an explosion of research on crossmodal correspondences.
22 Broadly speaking, this term has been used to encompass associations between and among
23 features, dimensions, or attributes across the senses. There has been an increasing interest in this
24 topic amongst researchers from multiple fields (psychology, neuroscience, music, art,
25 environmental design, etc.) and, importantly, an increasing breadth of the topic's scope. Here,
26 this narrative review aims to reflect on what crossmodal correspondences are, where they come
27 from, and what underlies them. We suggest that crossmodal correspondences are usefully
28 conceived as relative associations between different actual or imagined sensory stimuli, many of
29 these correspondences being shared by most people. A taxonomy of correspondences with four
30 major kinds of associations (physiological, semantic, statistical, and affective) characterizes
31 crossmodal correspondences. Sensory dimensions (quantity/quality) and sensory features (lower
32 perceptual/higher cognitive) correspond in crossmodal correspondences. Crossmodal
33 correspondences may be understood (or measured) from two complementary perspectives: the
34 phenomenal view (perceptual experiences of subjective matching) and the behavioural response
35 view (observable patterns of behavioural response to multiple sensory stimuli). Importantly, we
36 reflect on remaining questions and standing issues that need to be addressed in order to develop
37 an explanatory framework for crossmodal correspondences. Future research needs (a) to
38 understand better when (and why) phenomenal and behavioural measures are coincidental and
39 when they are not, and, ideally, (b) to determine whether different kinds of crossmodal
40 correspondence (quantity/quality, lower perceptual/higher cognitive) rely on the same or
41 different mechanisms.

42 **Keywords:** Crossmodal correspondences, synaesthetic correspondences

43

44

45 **Reflections on crossmodal correspondences**

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Is a sweet taste associated with a round or an angular shape? Do loud sounds match better
48 with dim or bright colours? Although these questions may at first seem nonsensical, it turns out
49 that people nevertheless have strong intuitions as to how attributes or properties that pertain to
50 perceptual experiences in different sensory modalities correspond to one other. Moreover, these
51 intuitions are not only often strong but, importantly, people often agree about them to a
52 surprising degree. For instance, most people consistently associate round shapes with sweet
53 tastes (Velasco et al., 2016) and louder sounds with brighter objects (Marks, 1978). These and
54 other, analogous phenomena, involving perceptual associations across most or all sense
55 modalities, are broadly named *crossmodal correspondences*. A growing body of research on
56 crossmodal correspondences has for several decades been expanding by the proverbial leaps and
57 bounds (e.g., Marks, 1978; Spence, 2011, 2020a, 2020b; Parise, 2016; for a statistical summary,
58 see Table 1).

59 **Table 1.** Frequency of occurrence in the scientific literature of various terms associated
60 with crossmodal correspondence. The numbers were obtained by searching on Google Scholar for
61 the terms within specific time frames. We chose these specific terms because they are commonly
62 used in the literature to describe crossmodal correspondences.

Search words in ""	1960-1970	1971-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	2011-2023
Crossmodal correspondences	0	0	2	3	29	2770
Crossmodal associations	0	32	16	65	86	787
Cross-sensory correspondences	0	0	2	1	19	298
Synaesthetic correspondences	4	1	9	9	34	105
Synesthetic correspondences	1	5	12	8	43	515

63 *Note:* This table is based on publication details from Google Scholar retrieved on 20 June 2023.

64 In fact, crossmodal correspondences have been studied for a century, albeit without using
65 the term itself. For instance, early empirical and theoretical work was conducted by Hornbostel
66 (1927), who seems to have coined the expression “unity of the senses“. Hornbostel argued, as did
67 Nafe (1927) around the same time, that “brightness “ is an attribute of experience in many,
68 perhaps all, sense modalities. Similar ideas have also appeared in philosophical discourse, for
69 example, in the work of Hartshorne (1934). But what were these early investigators referring to,
70 and what do contemporary researchers refer to, when they talk about crossmodal
71 correspondences?

72 Note that this singular psychological construct, crossmodal correspondence, has been
73 applied to empirical observations of a range of phenomena, from low-level perceptual
74 associations (e.g., between pitch and size: Stevens, 1934; between pitch and spatial elevation:
75 Parise et al., 2014) to higher-level cognitive ones (e.g., between music and paintings: Parise,
76 2016; Spence, 2020a; between complex soundtracks and basic tastes: Wang et al., 2015).
77 Further, the term crossmodal correspondence has been applied to perceptual attributes that vary
78 both qualitatively (*what kind*, e.g., hue and vowels; taste quality and auditory timbre) and
79 quantitatively (*how much*, e.g., magnitudes of loudness and brightness, size, duration, etc.:

80 Stevens, 1957; Marks, 1974). Moreover, different kinds of mechanism have been proposed to
81 explain different kinds of correspondence. For example, pitch-elevation correspondence has been
82 explained in terms of the coding, through associative learning, of statistical regularities between
83 sensory cues in the environment (e.g., Parise, 2016), whereas music-taste correspondences have
84 been explained in terms of common semantic and/or affective responses in different sensory
85 systems (e.g., emotional responses to music and tastes: Palmer et al., 2013; Motoki et al., 2020;
86 Reinoso-Carvalho et al., 2020; Velasco et al., 2015, 2016; Wang et al., 2015).

87 With the aforesaid issues in mind, a more fundamental question lies at the heart of the
88 present article: What *are* crossmodal correspondences? Whatever properties or processes
89 characterize crossmodal correspondences should, ipso facto, also make clear what differentiates
90 them from other forms of perceptual or conceptual association. We deem this question to be
91 central, as answering it is necessary in order to define the boundaries of crossmodal
92 correspondences and to build a comprehensive theory about them – a theory that should, in the
93 long run, also serve to link their origins to their functional properties. Indeed, there has been
94 initial progress in this direction (e.g., Parise et al., 2016; see Deroy & Spence, 2016, for a special
95 issue on the topic; see also Spence, 2019, for recent theoretical accounts of colour-taste/flavour
96 correspondences). However, it is still not clear whether attempts thus far to conceptualize
97 crossmodal correspondence target an ensemble of distinct/different constructs, or whether they
98 target a unique, singular construct, albeit perhaps a multifaceted and more than a matter of
99 semantics one having different aspects or components (e.g., Spence, 2011).

100 The core scientific issue here also speaks directly to an even broader question, alluded to
101 above: How do we create or construct scientific categories (Dienes, 2008). When we observe the
102 world, we commonly make a tacit or implicit assumption that there is a “something” out there

103 that underlies our categories or concepts. When there are many exemplars of a particular
104 category or concept, we typically assume that there is something common to all of them, maybe
105 a single property, maybe a conjunction of properties (or at least we assume that the exemplars lie
106 proximal to a singular or conjunctive prototype or category: Bruner et al., 1956). Especially
107 difficult to categorize are those sets of objects having independent, disjunctive properties (e.g.,
108 when objects belong to “Y” if they contain “a” or “b” or “c”: e.g., Antony, 2003; Bruner et al.,
109 1956), and this may be the case with crossmodal correspondences. In this sense, we start with
110 three key questions: (1) What are sensory attributes and why may correspondences be considered
111 in terms of attributes? (2) What does it mean to say that two attributes correspond or are
112 associated? (3) How does a correspondence differ from other kinds of (unimodal and
113 multimodal) associations?

114 In a nutshell, our aim here is to characterize what it is, if anything, that different
115 examples of crossmodal correspondence share. A related question asks: How do these
116 associations differ from other kinds of associations, for example, other sensory associations (e.g.,
117 synaesthesia)? In the present article, we first discuss the different definitions that have been
118 given to crossmodal correspondences, summarizing different views of them and evaluating how
119 different theories approach them. Second, we discuss how crossmodal correspondences differ
120 from other kinds of multisensory associations (and associations at large). Finally, we set out
121 those challenges that need to be considered and conclude by briefly discussing future directions
122 of research.

123 **2. Definitions and kinds of crossmodal correspondence**

124 Table 2 provides some representative definitions that have been given to crossmodal
 125 correspondences. Note that these definitions tend to be relatively broad, with different
 126 researchers even using a variety of similar albeit not-identical terms, such as “synaesthetic
 127 correspondences”, “cross-sensory correspondences”, and “crossmodal associations” (e.g.,
 128 Martino & Marks, 2000; Spence, 2011; Walker & Walker, 2016). Implicit to the multiple
 129 definitions is the notion that correspondences entail equivalences between values, either absolute
 130 or relative, of attributes in different senses, e.g., between high loudness and high brightness, and
 131 between high pitch and high visuo-spatial elevation.

132 **Table 2.** Definitions of crossmodal correspondences.

Definitions of crossmodal correspondences	
Marks (1978)	"...analogies, equivalences, translations of sensory qualities" (p. 102)
Melara & O'Brien (1987)	"Such correspondences are called synesthetic (literally, joining of the senses) meaning that they reflect a presumed connection among attributes from different sensory modalities." (p. 323)
Spence (2011)	"... crossmodal correspondence is used in this review to refer to a compatibility effect between attributes or dimensions of a stimulus ¹ (i.e., an object or event) in different sensory modalities (be they redundant or not)." (p. 973)
Martino & Marks (2000)	"... describes milder forms of cross-sensory connections revealed through language and perception." (p. 62)
Walker et al., (2012)	"Cross-sensory correspondences occur when two or more sensory channels provide analogous information about basic stimulus dimensions." (p. 1186)
Deroy et al., (2013)	"Crossmodal correspondences are defined as tendencies for a certain sensory feature (or dimension) to be associated or matched with another feature (or dimension) in a distinct sensory modality..." (p. 879)
Parise & Spence (2013)	"Cross-modal correspondences can be defined as the mapping that observers expect to exist between two or more features or dimensions from different sensory modalities (such as lightness and loudness), that induce congruency effects in performance and often, but not always, also a phenomenological experience of similarity between such features." (p. 792)

Parise (2016)	"Crossmodal correspondences refer to the systematic associations often found across seemingly unrelated sensory features from different sensory modalities." (p. 7)
Walker et al., (2016)	"The resulting systematicity in the cross-sensory associations (i.e., progressively more extreme values on one dimension are linked to progressively more extreme values on the other dimension) is what the term cross-sensory correspondence is intended to capture." (p. 773).
Jonas et al., (2017)	"Crossmodal correspondences are a feature of human perception in which two or more sensory dimensions are linked together." (p. 1104)
Dreksler & Spence (2019)	"... crossmodal correspondences research: that is, the bidirectional (i.e., transitive), nonarbitrary mappings between the attributes (or dimensions) of two sensory modalities." (p. 4)
Spence (2019)	"Crossmodal correspondences have been defined as the often-surprising crossmodal associations that people experience between features, attributes, or dimensions of experience in different sensory modalities, when either physically present, or else merely imagined." (pp. 235-236)
Spence (2020a)	"... defined as the surprising connections that the majority of people share between seemingly-unrelated stimuli presented in different sensory modalities." (p. 6)
Spence (2020b)	"Crossmodal correspondences are the sometimes-surprising associations that people experience between stimuli, attributes or perceptual dimensions... " (p. 2)
Spence & Sathian (2020)	"Crossmodal correspondences have been defined as tendency for a feature attribute, dimension, or stimulus in on sensory modality, either physically present or merely imagined, to be matched (or associated) with a feature attribute, dimension, or stimulus in another modality." (p. 239)

133

134 *Note:* Not all references used the term "crossmodal correspondences"; instead, some studies used
 135 similar terms (e.g., cross-sensory associations) to describe the same phenomena.

136 **2.1. A taxonomy of correspondences**

137 Table 3 summarizes four main types of crossmodal correspondence: structural, statistical,
 138 semantic, and affective. Where, we ask, do the four types come from? After reviewing much of
 139 the literature on audiovisual correspondences, Spence (2011) suggested a trifold classification of

140 the sources of correspondences, namely, as physiological (or structural), statistical, or semantic
 141 (or linguistic or lexical; see Walker, 2012). As Spence and Parise (2013) later argued, their three-
 142 fold classification is not necessarily exhaustive, and the different classes of correspondences may
 143 not be mutually exclusive. Here, we add a fourth correspondence, “affective”, to Spence’s triad.

144 **Table 3.** Summary of four principal types of crossmodal correspondences. This four-fold version
 145 comes from adding “affective correspondence” to Spence’s (2011) trifold scheme.

Crossmodal Correspondence	Example	Source / Explanation	Consequences
Physiological	Loudness–brightness	Possibly innate, but may also depend on maturation of neural structures for stimulus coding	Perceptual & decisional
Statistical	Pitch–elevation Pitch–size Loudness–size	Learned: Coupling priors established on the basis of experience with regularities of the environment	Perceptual & decisional
Semantic (also called linguistic and lexical) correspondence	Pitch–elevation Pitch–spatial frequency	Learned: Emerge following language development as certain terms come to be associated with more than one perceptual continuum	Primarily decisional
Affective	Taste–shape curvature	Learned: Based on common affective properties of attributes	Perceptual & decisional

146

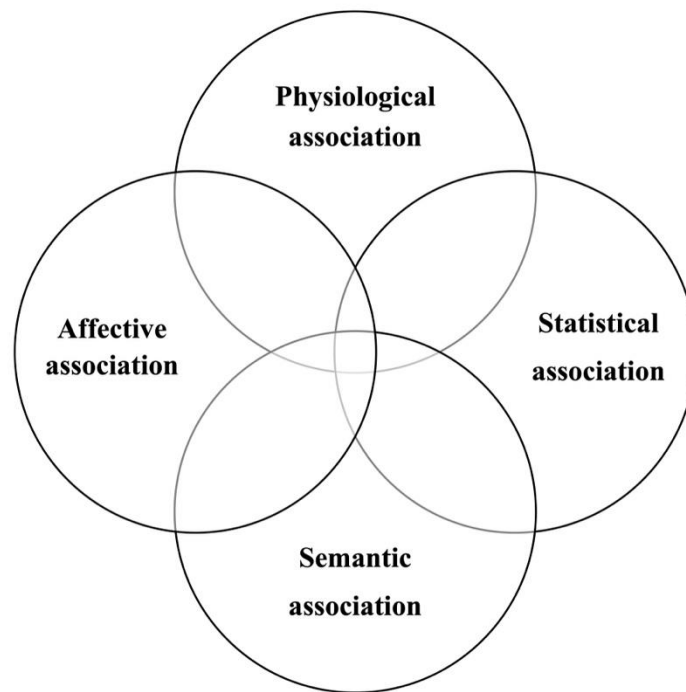
147 Physiological correspondences may derive from similarities in the neural codes
 148 underlying the representations of sensory stimuli (e.g., between loudness and brightness; see
 149 Marks, 1989). Earlier work used “structural correspondences” to refer to these similarities
 150 (Spence, 2011), but “physiological correspondences” may be more appropriate. The term
 151 "structural correspondences" was used based on such putative neural similarities (see Spence,
 152 2011; Spence & Di Stefano, 2022). Statistically mediated correspondences may result from

153 internalizing the statistical regularities in the environment (e.g., pitch and spatial elevation of
154 sound sources, see Parise et al., 2014). And, semantically mediated, or linguistic,
155 correspondences may be metaphoric, that is, may derive from the application, explicit or
156 implicit, of similar descriptors to sensory percepts of different modalities, as expressed in and
157 through language (e.g., a high musical note and a high aroma description; see Deroy et al., 2013).
158 Presumably, the metaphoric uses are in some ways not arbitrary. Importantly, some
159 correspondences may be based on the overlap of the affective properties of different stimuli² (as
160 in the case of the correspondence between taste and attributes of shape such as curvature,
161 Velasco et al., 2016; see also Collier, 1996; Kenneth, 1923; Marks, 1996).

162 Figure 1 illustrates our taxonomic system of crossmodal correspondences, as based on
163 Spence's taxonomy (Spence, 2011; Spence, 2020b; Spence & Parise, 2013; but see also the
164 recent system of Spence & Di Stefano, 2023). This system hypothesizes that any of four major
165 kinds of associations (physiological, semantic, statistical, and affective) may characterize
166 crossmodal correspondences. Specifically, it assumes that crossmodal correspondences emerge if
167 at least one kind of association (physiological/statistical/semantic/affective) is present. It should
168 be noted, however, that the categories of correspondences need not be restricted to these four.
169 Others may also exist such as those embodied, which refer to the concept that the body's
170 involvement enhances the linkage between sensory information from distinct modalities
171 (Salgado-Montejo et al., 2016).

172 In other words, our physical bodies can exert a profound influence on the way we perceive
173 and comprehend our surroundings (a concept known as embodied cognition, Glenberg, Witt, &
174 Metcalfe, 2013). This notion highlights the close interconnection between our sensory
175 encounters, thoughts, and cognition with our bodily sensations and actions. For example,

176 according to Parise et al. (2014), the association between auditory pitch and elevation appears to
177 be accounted for, at least in part, by a representation of sound that is grounded in the body. Here,
178 it is suggested that pitch's spatial connotation is influenced by the statistics of natural auditory
179 scenes, indicating that various related phenomena, such as the outer ear's shape, have adapted to
180 these statistics. It should be also noted, though, that a taxonomy is only a summary of
181 observations and not itself a theory. The taxonomy does not explain correspondences, although
182 descriptions do or can entail constraints on theoretical explanations.



183
184 **Figure 1.** Taxonomy of crossmodal correspondences following Spence (2011, 2020b). This
185 figure illustrates four major kinds of associations (physiological, semantic, statistical, and
186 affective) that may characterize crossmodal correspondences. It assumes that crossmodal
187 correspondences emerge if at least one kind of association
188 (physiological/statistical/semantic/affective) is present.

189 A given form of crossmodal correspondence is, of course, itself a category, and need not
190 always derive from only one kind of associations, but may, in different instantiations, reflect
191 more than one. Different crossmodal correspondences (e.g., pitch-elevation and taste-shape) may
192 be based on qualitatively different and various sources. For example, pitch-elevation
193 correspondences may be based on semantic, statistical, and/or affective similarities, and possibly
194 others too. Pitch and elevation share linguistic labels in certain languages. Pitch can have “high”
195 quality and space “high” location. Pitch and spatial elevation can also share affective properties.
196 Higher pitch and higher spatial location are associated with greater positive valence compared to
197 lower pitch and lower location (Belyk & Brown, 2014; Meier & Robinson, 2004).

198 **3. What key elements are needed to characterize and explain crossmodal correspondences?**

199 **3.1. On the meaning of “correspondence”**

200 Do correspondences reside in people’s subjective feelings of similarity (e.g., individuals’
201 personal judgments of how two things are alike) or analogy? And/or are correspondences better
202 considered to reside wholly in the measures of observable patterns of behaviours?

203 Here, we see two complementary perspectives on crossmodal correspondences. One, the
204 phenomenal view, defines crossmodal correspondences in terms of perceptual experiences, as
205 properties of the conscious mind, of which people are, or can be, generally aware. We take the
206 subjective reports directly as evidence of crossmodal correspondences. Consider, for instance,
207 the way that high pitch is (more) similar to white than to black (e.g., Melara, 1989). One
208 inference from such phenomenal reports is that there is a conscious, crossmodal correspondence
209 between auditory pitch and visual brightness. Early studies by Nafe (1927), and Hornbostel
210 (1927) suggested that there are fundamental perceptual qualities that are common to experiences

211 across different senses, such as brightness, which these investigators thought to constitute a
212 universal attribute of sensory perception, a property of experiences in all sense modalities.

213 In another complementary view, crossmodal correspondences refer to observable patterns
214 of behavioural response that do not necessarily require phenomenal awareness of the
215 correspondences themselves, or in any case do not require any attempt to assess phenomenal
216 awareness (Marks, 2004). By this view, a crossmodal correspondence may refer, for example, to
217 a pattern of behavioural responses to multiple sensory stimuli. Noteworthy are “congruency
218 effects,” which arise from manipulating different (congruent vs. incongruent) components of
219 multiple sensory stimuli and are measured in terms of speed and/or accuracy of behavioural
220 responses (Parise & Spence, 2013). In this view, crossmodal correspondences may be defined as
221 the congruency effects themselves, rather than (or in addition to) being expressions of, say,
222 mental equivalences between experiences of different sensory modalities.

223 There is a substantial difference, however, between saying that congruency effects *are*
224 crossmodal correspondences and saying that they *are expressions of* crossmodal
225 correspondences. The former is simply a definition, the latter an assumption bearing deeper
226 theoretical implications but requiring correspondingly greater justification: What’s added by the
227 assumption that crossmodal correspondences underlie crossmodal congruence effects? The
228 answer, presumably, comes with a theoretical account of correspondence(s). In this sense, one
229 may think of crossmodal correspondences as a theoretical construct (see Hyland, 1981) that
230 underlies the patterns of responses.

231 **3.2. What corresponds in “crossmodal correspondences”?**

232 When researchers study correspondences, they describe and analyse a number of different
 233 potentially corresponding attributes, whose characteristics we summarize in Table 4. We
 234 acknowledge the other fined grained kinds of dimensions (e.g., Polar, Circular; see Spence & Di
 235 Stefano, 2022), but our table provides only a descriptive account of the major different types.

236 **Table 4. Sensory dimensions and sensory features that may correspond.**

Sensory dimension	Definition	Examples
Quantity	How much (from not at all to very much)	brightness, temperature, size
Quality	What kind (qualitative differences of sensory stimuli)	taste qualities (e.g., sweet, bitter, sour), colour hue (e.g., red, green), consonants (e.g., voiced, voiceless)
Sensory feature		
Lower-level	Single sensory attributes that cannot be separated	pitch, loudness, temperature
Higher-level	Multiple sensory elements and/or attributes	music, painting, flavour, foods, drinks

237

238 *Note:* What corresponds in “crossmodal correspondences” can be described in terms of sensory
 239 dimensions and sensory features. Sensory dimensions include quantity (e.g., brightness,
 240 temperature) and quality (e.g., taste qualities, hue). For example, in temperature-hue
 241 correspondences, a quantitative dimension (temperature) and a qualitative dimension (hue)
 242 correspond. Sensory features refer to lower-level (e.g., pitch, loudness) and higher-level (e.g.,
 243 musical piece) properties. For example, in colour saturation - music correspondences, a lower-
 244 level dimension (saturation) and a higher-level dimension (musical piece) correspond (Palmer et
 245 al., 2013).

246 The broad definition of crossmodal correspondence given at the beginning of this article
247 (i.e., people’s associations between attributes or properties that pertain to perceptual experiences
248 in different sensory modalities) may take on multiple meanings (Table 2), reflected, in turn, in
249 the different elements of correspondence (Table 3). As suggested by Turoman et al. (2018), a
250 theory of crossmodal correspondences should apply to both metathetic and prothetic
251 attributes/dimensions. Both terms typically refer to low-level attributes of sense perception, in
252 particular, to those which vary, respectively, in quality (metathetic = “what kind”, as in taste
253 qualities, sweet, bitter, sour) and intensity (prothetic = “how much”, as in loudness) (see also
254 Marks, 1974; Stevens, 1957).

255 As suggested by Parise (2016), the term crossmodal correspondence has been applied to
256 everything from associations between simple sensory dimensions (e.g., brightness and loudness,
257 with attributes “bright”, vs “dark” or “dim”, and “soft” vs. “loud”) to more complex perceptual
258 ones (e.g., major/minor mode and colour hue, Palmer et al. 2013); note, however, that in the
259 latter example, a crossmodal correspondence between music and colour might reflect a relation
260 between relatively “lower-level” attributes, such as the relation between dark vs. light and, say,
261 minor vs. major mode or music played in low vs. high register. In any case, it is worth reflecting
262 on whether all of these examples exemplify a singular phenomenon. Indeed, if one follows
263 strictly the definitions of crossmodal correspondence (see Table 2), one would not speak of
264 correspondence between music and colour in general, but instead about correspondences
265 between, say, specific dimensions or features of colours (e.g., hue) and specific dimensions or
266 features of musical sounds (e.g., tempo, pitch).

267 In addition, relevant here is the distinction between lower- and higher-level attributes.
268 Lower-level attributes (e.g., brightness) are likely to be closely related to effects of stimulating

269 sensory receptors (e.g., in the retina or olfactory bulb), whilst higher-level attributes are likely to
270 depend on the of integration of lower-level attributes into more meaningful, experiential, aspects
271 of our mental life (music, visual scenes) (see Rouw et al., 1997; Spence, 2020a). It should be
272 noted that the distinction between lower- and higher-level attributes can sometimes be
273 ambiguous. A sensory attribute (e.g., brightness) can be treated as both lower- and higher-level.
274 Brightness is sometimes appropriately treated as lower-level by manipulating the luminance of
275 the visual stimuli (e.g., Marks, 1987); but brightness can also depend on higher-level processes,
276 for example, when the word “bright” serves as a stimulus (e.g., Marks, 1982). Acknowledging
277 that the claim may be reductionistic, Parise (2016) nevertheless suggests that crossmodal
278 correspondences may have, at their core, lower-level attributes. Parise (also notes that most
279 previous research on crossmodal correspondences focused on low-level stimulus properties but
280 could be also applied to higher-level stimulus properties (i.e., cognitive associations between
281 concepts and complex stimuli).

282 **3.3. How do attributes correspond in crossmodal correspondences?**

283 Some kinds of crossmodal correspondences presumably depend on *inferential* processes,
284 as, presumably, does multisensory perception itself (Parise, 2015). Multisensory perception can
285 be described as the result of a process akin to logical inference (e.g., Helmholtz, 1909; Parise,
286 2015). Humans, and presumably some other species, infer the state of the world (e.g., weight of
287 an object) from multisensory cues (e.g., visual and haptic information). In this case, sensory cues
288 from different modalities provide redundant (or complementary) information (e.g., colour, shape,
289 roughness, hardness) about the inferred stimulus property (e.g., weight). By analogy, crossmodal
290 correspondences may also rely on implicit inferential processes (e.g., inferences about physical
291 properties, identities, etc.).

292 In order to understand what it means to say that two or more sensory attributes
293 correspond, it may be worthwhile thinking of associations in terms of a continuum of associative
294 redundancy³ that indicates the extent to which signals from different senses provide the same or
295 overlapping information about objects or events in our environment (Parise, 2016). Parise
296 situated crossmodal correspondences within the broader framework of sensory cue integration.
297 Sensory perception can be described as the outcome of a process of inferencing (Helmholtz,
298 1909). The brain can infer the most likely state of the world by combining noisy sensory cues
299 and prior knowledge (see Parise, 2016). For example, people integrate information from different
300 sensory modalities (i.e., vision and touch) to estimate the width of a grasped object by implicitly
301 considering the relative reliability of the sensory cues (e.g., Ernst & Banks, 2002).

302 **3.4. How are crossmodal correspondences measured?**

303 Crossmodal correspondences have been assessed through several measures, including
304 subjective matches and response times. Subjective matches can be obtained by various
305 psychophysical methods, including direct matching or stimulus-adjustments, as well as by forced
306 choice methods, Likert-scales, visual analogue scales, etc: e.g., Ngo et al., 2013; Motoki et al.,
307 2020; Turoman et al., 2018; Velasco et al., 2014). The so-called “Bouba–Kiki”/“Maluma–
308 Takete” effects, well-known examples of shape-sound correspondences, have typically been
309 measured using a binary forced-choice task, where participants select the appropriate name that
310 “matches” each of two possible shapes (e.g., Bremmer et al., 2013; Köhler 1947; Ramachandran
311 & Hubbard, 2001). Participants tend to match “Bouba” and “Maluma” to rounded shapes and
312 “Kiki” and “Takete” to angular shapes.

313 Moreover, by using response times as a measure, numerous studies have shown congruency
314 effects in a variety of tasks involving both perceptual and “cognitive” (e.g., linguistic) stimuli.
315 Following earlier research using speeded classification tasks, the domain of congruency effects
316 has been expanded to include enhanced perception of a given attribute (e.g., sweetness: Velasco
317 et al., 2018). Similar procedures have been used to investigate various types of correspondences,
318 including pitch-brightness (e.g., Marks, 1974), loudness-brightness (e.g., Root & Ross, 1965),
319 pitch-hue (e.g., Simpson et al., 1956), sound-taste (e.g., Crisinel & Spence, 2010; Wang et al.,
320 2016) and shape-taste (e.g., Velasco et al., 2014).

321 The study by Simpson et al. (1956) is a noteworthy early investigation into crossmodal
322 correspondences in children. The children tested in that study were in grades 3-6 (although the
323 ages are not given, in typical American schools in the 1950s, the ages would range from 9-12
324 years). A later developmental study (Marks, Hammeal, & Bornstein, 1987) investigated three
325 crossmodal correspondences (pitch-brightness, loudness-brightness, and pitch-size) in a
326 population of nearly 500 school-aged children (3.5-13.5 years) and more than 100 adults.
327 Children of all ages and adults showed reliable pitch-brightness and loudness-brightness
328 correspondences in tests using both sensory and verbal stimuli; but only the oldest children
329 (11.5-13.5 years) and adults showed the normative (inverse) pitch-size correspondence. That
330 study also found evidence of visual-auditory correspondence using verbal stimuli when
331 participants rated the implied denotations of an ensemble of words, e.g., the implied loudness
332 (literal) and brightness (crossmodal/metaphorical) of “whisper” and “shout”.

333 **3.5. Differences between crossmodal correspondence and related terms**

334 There are several phenomena that appear similar on the surface to, but differ from,
 335 crossmodal correspondences. These phenomena include synaesthesia and semantic congruency.
 336 We provide some characteristics of phenomena that border on crossmodal correspondences. The
 337 characteristics of crossmodal correspondences differ in terms of incidence, time, space,
 338 instantiations, and/or relative/absolute aspects from those of several similar but distinct
 339 phenomena (Table 5; see also Marks & Mulvenna, 2013). Although crossmodal correspondences
 340 are often shared by most people, synaesthesia is not. Nevertheless, note that synesthetes appear
 341 to share and experience the culture-based, learned crossmodal associations of the world around
 342 them. Semantic congruency refers to similar responses made to different sensory signals having a
 343 common *identity* or *meaning* (Chen & Spence, 2017), whereas crossmodal correspondences need
 344 not derive from a common identity or meaning. Although synaesthesia and semantic congruency
 345 both lie at the conceptual borders of crossmodal correspondences, the three phenomena differ in
 346 several ways, as summarized in Table 5.

347 **Table 5.** Differences among crossmodal correspondence, synaesthesia, and semantic
 348 congruence.

	Crossmodal correspondence	Synaesthesia	Semantic congruence
Incidence	Shared by most people	Uncommon	Shared by most people
Time and space	Not confined	Not confined	Not confined
Instantiations	Subjective matching (forced choice, rating) Facilitation in information processing (e.g.,	Concurrent experiences (stimulation to one sensory stimulus gives rise to an experience of another sensory	Subjective matching of meanings/identity (forced choice, rating), Facilitation in information processing (e.g., speeded

	speeded classification, visual search)	stimulus: e.g., alphabetical letters induce colour)*.	classification, visual search)
Relative or absolute	Relative	Absolute	Absolute?

349 *Note: * Synaesthesia does not entail the substitution of one sensory experience for another.*
350 *Instead, the stimulation of one sense leads to involuntary experiences in another, hence*
351 *concurrent experiences (stimulation by one sensory stimulus gives rise to an additional*
352 *experience typically produced by another sensory stimulus). It should be noted that the most*
353 *common form of synaesthesia appears to be intramodal rather than crossmodal.*

354 **Relativity of crossmodal correspondences**

355 In general, crossmodal correspondences seem to depend more on relative than absolute
356 values (see Spence, 2020a, for a review). Evidence for the relativity of crossmodal
357 correspondences appears in many findings, for example those of Brunetti et al. (2017), who
358 showed the relativity of pitch-size correspondences using a sequential speeded-classification
359 task. Participants classified the size of visual stimuli (large, small) while hearing concurrent,
360 task-irrelevant sounds (high, low, intermediate). The intermediate sounds were interpreted as
361 “lower” in pitch following a high-pitched tone, but “higher” in pitch following a low-pitched
362 tone. The results showed faster classification responses on sequence-congruent trials (e.g., a
363 small visual stimulus paired with the intermediate-pitched tone preceded by a low-pitched tone)
364 than on sequence-incongruent trials (e.g., a small visual stimulus paired with the intermediate-
365 pitched tone preceded by a high-pitched tone). Walker and Walker (2016) found size-brightness
366 correspondences to be relative rather than absolute: In a speeded-classification task, participants
367 were faster at classifying a visual stimulus as brighter or darker when incidental stimuli were

368 relatively smaller or larger, respectively. That is, regardless of the absolute values of pitch or
369 size, the larger of two objects is matched with the lower-pitched of two sounds. Note that it is
370 also worth considering whether the relativity of crossmodal correspondences is confined to
371 stimuli that can be organized along quantitative dimensions such as temperature. For example,
372 relativity might not appear to characterize crossmodal correspondences between stimuli
373 producing different sensory qualities (e.g., taste qualities).

374 **Physically present and imagined stimuli**

375 Crossmodal correspondences can emerge both when sensory stimuli are physically present and
376 when they are just imagined (Spence, 2020a). Earlier findings have revealed evidence of
377 crossmodal correspondences with imagined stimuli (e.g., linguistic stimuli or words, though
378 described in other terms (e.g., “synesthetic tendencies”, “synesthetic metaphors”: Karwoski,
379 Odbert, & Osgood, 1942; Marks, 1982; Osgood, 1960). For example, non-synesthetic
380 participants matched words describing visual attributes (e.g., large) to words denoting auditory
381 attributes (e.g., loud) and emotional experiences (e.g., bad; Karwoski et al., 1942). More
382 recently, Woods et al. (2013) reported a range of crossmodal correspondences (e.g., colour-
383 weight, shape-taste) when participants imagined sensory stimuli after seeing just their names. In
384 an online word-matching task, participants saw descriptors (e.g., “heavier”, “boulder”) and had
385 choose the better match between two response options (e.g., “red” or “yellow”, “sour” or
386 “sweet”). In this example, the participants reliably matched “heavier” with “red” and “boulder”
387 with “sour”. Recent evidence has also shown that early blind people, who had some early visual
388 experience (but did not recall colours), showed colour-weight correspondences (Barilari et al.,
389 2018). When early blind people were asked whether “red” or “yellow” is heavier, “red” was
390 chosen more frequently than “yellow” (Barilari et al., 2018)⁴. And physically present and

391 imagined stimuli show similar crossmodal correspondences. A sweet tastant, like the word
392 “sweet”, is associated with round versus angular shapes (Velasco et al., 2015, 2016).
393 Furthermore, both imagining drinking cold water and actually drinking cold water are associated
394 with higher pitch and faster tempo of auditory stimuli (i.e., short melody; Wang & Spence,
395 2017). Together, these findings suggest, perhaps not surprisingly, that crossmodal
396 correspondences do not require the physical presence of sensory stimuli; the mere imagining of
397 sensory stimuli triggered by linguistic signals can be matched with attributes in different senses¹.

398 **4. Issues for future research**

399 Crossmodal correspondences refer to the equivalence of values on perceptual dimensions in
400 different senses, such as brightness and loudness or pitch and visuo-spatial elevation. These
401 correspondences can be classified into four main types: physiological, statistical, semantic, and
402 affective, and can arise from various sources such as similarities in neural codes, statistical
403 regularities in the environment, and metaphoric uses of language. The concept of crossmodal
404 correspondence has been used in the context of both lower-level (i.e., single sensory attributes
405 that cannot be separated) and higher-level attributes (i.e., multiple sensory elements and/or
406 attributes) of sense perception. Crossmodal correspondences can be understood from two
407 complementary perspectives: the phenomenal view and the behavioural response view. The
408 former defines crossmodal correspondences in terms of perceptual experiences, while the latter
409 refers to observable patterns of behavioural response to multiple sensory stimuli. The distinction
410 between these views highlights the need for a theoretical account of correspondences as a
411 construct that underlies the patterns of responses. Crossmodal correspondences appear to be
412 relative rather than absolute. Moreover, crossmodal correspondences can also emerge both when
413 sensory stimuli are physically present and when they are just imagined, suggesting that the mere

414 imagining of sensory stimuli triggered by linguistic signals can be matched with attributes in
415 different senses.

416 Defining and conceptualizing crossmodal correspondences is not an easy task. Although
417 most researchers would agree that crossmodal correspondences, broadly speaking, refer to
418 associations between attributes across the senses, a number of important points need to be
419 considered in this definition. For example, how does one define “correspondence”? What
420 constitutes an association? What are attributes? Moreover, it is not clear whether all
421 correspondences are of the same kind. Through Spence’s (2011) taxonomy, we can classify a
422 number of observations. But a taxonomy does not tell us much about the mechanisms underlying
423 crossmodal correspondences, nor explain how we access them.

424 We need a more nuanced understanding of the two forms of correspondence:
425 phenomenological similarity and congruence effects. What do these two measures imply for
426 characterizing correspondences? Another alternative is that there are instances where individuals
427 lack conscious awareness of correspondences, yet researchers may establish a correspondence
428 through consensus among respondents, regardless of observable behavioural effects. The
429 question here would be whether this still qualifies as a crossmodal correspondence per se.
430 Merely obtaining statistically reliable responses does not necessarily indicate the presence of a
431 statistically reliable behavioural effect. Instead, it might be considered an association that
432 belongs to a broader association architecture (e.g., Alvarado et al., 2023).

433 With the aforesaid points in mind, it is important to note that there are also other important
434 standing challenges in research on crossmodal correspondences. Are crossmodal
435 correspondences bidirectional or symmetrical? Do various crossmodal correspondences

436 (quantity/quality, lower perceptual/higher cognitive) operate through the same mechanisms?
437 Although we presented Spence's (2011) taxonomy of crossmodal correspondences in Figure 1,
438 above, we note that the strength of several kinds of associations
439 (physiological/semantic/affective/statistical) may vary among the different kinds of crossmodal
440 correspondence (quantity/quality, lower perceptual/higher cognitive).

441 Last but not least, it is worth noting that another question remains: How do crossmodal
442 correspondences differ from other types of associations? Is there a specific architecture
443 associated with these correspondences, or do they belong to a broader sense of connection
444 between dimensions of stimuli? If the latter were the case, it is unclear whether they would differ
445 from other processes, such as semantic knowledge (e.g., Humphreys & Forde, 2001).

446 **Do different kinds of crossmodal correspondence (quantity/quality, lower**
447 **perceptual/higher cognitive) rely on the same or different mechanisms?**

448 Spence (2020) suggests that affect contributes more to correspondences of higher cognitive
449 (complex) stimuli (e.g., music) than of lower perceptual (simple) stimuli (e.g., pure tones).
450 Recently, crossmodal correspondences involving complex (higher cognitive) stimuli have been
451 observed (Albertazzi et al., 2015, 2016; Levitan et al., 2015). Higher cognitive stimuli (e.g., a
452 musical composition and a painting) have multiple elements or attributes (Spence, 2020a). For
453 example, musical pieces contain multiple elements of sounds (e.g., tonal complexes varying in
454 pitch, tempo, timbre, etc.) and paintings contain multiple attributes of visual stimuli (e.g.,
455 elements or forms varying in hue, shape, brightness, etc.). Crossmodal correspondences
456 involving higher cognitive stimuli might be less based than lower cognitive stimuli on perceptual
457 similarity. This would presumably arise because complex sensory attributes in a pair of

458 associated higher cognitive stimuli (e.g., a musical composition and a painting) are less likely
459 than less complex attributes to be integrated into a single multisensory representation (Spence,
460 2020a). Complex crossmodal correspondences involving higher cognitive stimuli might be
461 processed in terms of affective meaning (valence/arousal). Thus, it is imperative in future
462 research to investigate whether various forms of crossmodal correspondence are governed by
463 shared or distinct mechanisms. Neuroimaging techniques, for example, may be useful in
464 examining whether different kinds of crossmodal correspondence (quantity/quality, lower
465 perceptual/higher cognitive) rely on the same or different mechanisms (cf. Bien et al., 2012).

466

467

5. Conclusions

468 Overall, gaining a clear understanding of what correspondences are is an important step in
469 developing a comprehensive theory of crossmodal correspondences. Future research needs to
470 understand better when (and why) phenomenal measures (perceptual experiences of subjective
471 matching) and behavioural measures (e.g., observed congruency effects) coincide and when they
472 do not. Future research also needs to examine whether different kinds of crossmodal
473 correspondence (quantity/quality, lower perceptual/higher cognitive) rely on the same or
474 different psychological mechanisms.

475

476

Notes

477 1. Note that it is not always be clear what the stimulus and the percepts are. In experimental
478 settings, the stimulus and percepts are often manipulated while keeping everything else

479 constant, but this might not always hold true at the perceptual level, especially when proper
480 experimental controls are not in place or when individuals are exposed to natural
481 environments. For instance, consider the flavor of gin – is the stimulus the flavour itself, the
482 taste of alcohol, the aroma, or the mouthfeel? What is more, the perception of these elements
483 can trigger further experiences, effectively acting as internal stimuli.

484 2. Note, however, that affect is often considered to have not only “quality” but also
485 “magnitude”, that is, the extent to which sensory stimuli feel, say, more or less positive or
486 negative. Indeed, affect is treated in many instances as a bipolar dimension, varying in
487 magnitude in two directions from neutral (zero affective magnitude). Considerable research
488 effort has gone into developing valid and accurate quantitative measures of affect (hedonic
489 value), using bipolar rating scales (e.g., Lim, Wood, & Green, 2009).

490 3. It is important to mention, however, that it is not always clear what the basis of redundancy is
491 in all crossmodal correspondences (e.g., redundancy in terms of a sensory attribute or affect),
492 nor is it clear whether redundancy might be specific to a subset of crossmodal
493 correspondences.

494 4. The act of imagining visual attributes (e.g., round shapes) and crossmodal correspondences
495 involving vision seem to differ in sighted individuals and in those who are congenitally blind
496 (Deroy et al., 2016; but see Hamilton-Fletcher et al., 2018). Congenitally blind individuals
497 could conceive of, or understand visual stimuli, based on descriptions provided by others,
498 even though they lack direct prior experience. Semantic knowledge through such indirect
499 experiences may play a role in the development of crossmodal correspondences related to
500 visual stimuli in congenitally blind individuals.

501

502

503

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

504

505 We thank the anonymous reviewers and, especially, the action editor, Charles Spence, for their

506 thoughtful and thorough comments on the manuscript. We also thank Andy T. Woods for his

507 valuable contributions to earlier versions of this manuscript.

REFERENCES

- 508
509
- 510 Albertazzi, L., Bacci, F., Canal, L., & Micciolo, R. (2016). The tactile dimensions of abstract
511 paintings: A cross-modal study. *Perception*, *45*(7), 805-822.
- 512 Albertazzi, L., Canal, L., & Micciolo, R. (2015). Cross-modal associations between materic
513 painting and classical Spanish music. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *6*:424.
- 514 Alvarado, J., Velasco, C., & Salgado, A. (2023). The organization of semantic associations
515 between senses in language. *PsyArXiv*, 27 March. 2023.
516 <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/9jh7k>
- 517 Antony, L. (2003). Who's afraid of disjunctive properties? *Philosophical Issues*, *13*(1), 1-21. doi:
518 10.1111/1533-6077.00001.
- 519 Barilari, M., De Heering, A., Crollen, V., Collignon, O., & Bottini, R. (2018). Is red heavier than
520 yellow even for blind? *i-Perception*, *9*(1):2041669518759123.
- 521 Belyk, M., & Brown, S. (2014). The acoustic correlates of valence depend on emotion family.
522 *Journal of Voice*, *28*(4), 523.e9-523.e18.
- 523 Bien, N., Ten Oever, S., Goebel, R., & Sack, A. T. (2012). The sound of size: crossmodal
524 binding in pitch-size synesthesia: a combined TMS, EEG and psychophysics study.
525 *NeuroImage*, *59*(1), 663-672.
- 526 Bruner, J. S., Goodnow, J. J., & Austin, G. A. (1956). *A study of thinking*. New York: John Wiley.

- 527 Brunetti, R., Indraccolo, A., Mastroberardino, S., Spence, C., & Santangelo, V. (2017). The impact
528 of cross-modal correspondences on working memory performance. *Journal of Experimental*
529 *Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 43(4), 819-831.
- 530 Chen, Y.-C., & Spence, C. (2017). Assessing the role of the ‘unity assumption’ on multisensory
531 integration: A review. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8:445.
- 532 Collier, G. L. (1996). Affective synesthesia: Extracting emotion space from simple perceptual
533 stimuli. *Motivation and Emotion*, 20(1), 1-32.
- 534 Crisinel, A.-S., & Spence, C. (2010). As bitter as a trombone: Synesthetic correspondences in
535 nonsynesthetes between tastes/flavors and musical notes. *Attention, Perception, &*
536 *Psychophysics*, 72(7), 1994-2002.
- 537 Deroy, O., Crisinel, A.-S., & Spence, C. (2013). Crossmodal correspondences between odors and
538 contingent attributes: Odors, musical notes, and geometrical shapes. *Psychonomic*
539 *Bulletin & Review*, 20(5), 878-896.
- 540 Deroy, O., Fasiello, I., Hayward, V., & Auvray, M. (2016). Differentiated audio-tactile
541 correspondences in sighted and blind individuals. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:*
542 *Human Perception and Performance*, 42(8), 1204-1214.
- 543 Di Stefano, N., & Spence, C. (2023). Perceptual similarity: Insights from crossmodal
544 correspondences. *Review of Philosophy and Psychology*, 14,
545 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13164-023-00692-y>
- 546 Dienes, Z. (2008). *Understanding psychology as a science: An introduction to scientific and*
547 *statistical inference*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

548 Ernst, M. O., & Banks, M. S. (2002). Humans integrate visual and haptic information in a
549 statistically optimal fashion. *Nature*, 415(6870), 429-433.

550 Glenberg, A. M., Witt, J. K., & Metcalfe, J. (2013). From the revolution to embodiment: 25
551 years of cognitive psychology. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8(5), 573-585.

552 Hamilton-Fletcher, G., Pisanski, K., Reby, D., Stefańczyk, M., Ward, J., & Sorokowska, A.
553 (2018). The role of visual experience in the emergence of cross-modal correspondences.
554 *Cognition*, 175, 114-121.

555 Hartshorne, C. (1934). *The philosophy and psychology of sensation*. Chicago, IL: University of
556 Chicago Press.

557 Helmholtz, H. V. (1909). *Handbuch der Physiologischen Optik (Handbook of Physiological*
558 *Optics)*. Voss, Hamburg, Germany.

559 Hornbostel, E. M. (1927). The unity of the senses. *Psyche*, 7, 83-89.

560 Humphreys, G. W., & Forde, E. M. (2001). Hierarchies, similarity, and interactivity in object
561 recognition: “Category-specific” neuropsychological deficits. *Behavioral and Brain*
562 *Sciences*, 24, 453-476.

563 Hyland, M. (1981). *Introduction to theoretical psychology*. London: Palgrave.

564 Jonas, C., Spiller, M. J., & Hibbard, P. (2017). Summation of visual attributes in auditory–visual
565 crossmodal correspondences. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 24(4), 1104-1112.

566 Karwoski, T. F., Odbert H. S., & Osgood, C. E. (1942). Studies in synesthetic thinking. II. The
567 role of form in visual responses to music. *Journal of General Psychology*., 26, 199-222.

- 568 Kenneth, J. H. (1923). Mental reactions to smell stimuli. *Psychological Review*, 30(1), 77-79.
- 569 Köhler, W. (1947). *Gestalt psychology* (2nd ed.). New York: Liveright.
- 570 Levitan, C. A., Charney, S., Schloss, K. B., & Palmer, S. E. (2015). The smell of jazz:
571 Crossmodal correspondences between music, odor, and emotion. Proceedings of the 37th
572 *Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society*, Pasadena, CA (pp. 1326-1331).
- 573 Lim, J., Wood, A., & Green, B. G. (2009). Derivation and evaluation of a labeled hedonic scale.
574 *Chemical Senses*, 34, 739-751.
- 575 Marks, L. E. (1974). On associations of light and sound: The mediation of brightness, pitch, and
576 loudness. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 87(1/2), 173-188.
- 577 Marks, L. E. (1978). *The unity of the senses: Interrelations among the modalities*. New York:
578 Academic Press.
- 579 Marks, L. E. (1982). Bright sneezes and dark coughs, loud sunlight and soft moonlight. *Journal*
580 *of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 8(2), 177-193.
- 581 Marks, L. E. (1987). On cross-modal similarity: Auditory–visual interactions in speeded
582 discrimination. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and*
583 *Performance*, 13(3), 384-394.
- 584 Marks, L. E. (1989). On cross-modal similarity: The perceptual structure of pitch, loudness, and
585 brightness. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*,
586 15(3), 586-602.
- 587 Marks, L. E. (1996). On perceptual metaphors. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 11, 39-66.

588 Marks, L. E. (2004). Cross-modal interactions in speeded classification. In G. A. Calvert, C.
589 Spence, & B. E. Stein (Eds.). *The Handbook of Multisensory Processes* (pp. 85-105).
590 Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

591 Marks, L. E., Hammeal, R. J., & Bornstein, M. H. (1987). Perceiving similarity and
592 comprehending metaphor. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child*
593 *Development*, 52, No.1 (Serial No. 215).

594 Marks, L. E., & Mulvenna, C. M. (2013). Synesthesia, at and near its borders. *Frontiers in*
595 *Psychology*, 4:651.

596 Martino, G., & Marks, L. E. (2000). Cross-modal interaction between vision and touch: the role
597 of synesthetic correspondence. *Perception*, 29(6), 745-754.

598 Meier, B. P., & Robinson, M. D. (2004). Why the sunny side is up: Associations between affect
599 and vertical position. *Psychological Science*, 15(4), 243-247.

600 Melara, R. D. (1989). Dimensional interaction between color and pitch. *Journal of Experimental*
601 *Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, 15(1), 69-79.

602 Melara, R. D., & O'Brien, T. P. (1987). Interaction between synesthetically corresponding
603 dimensions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 116(4), 323-336.

604 Motoki, K., Saito, T., Park, J., Velasco, C., Spence, C., & Sugiura, M. (2020). Tasting names:
605 Systematic investigations of taste-speech sounds associations. *Food Quality and*
606 *Preference*, 80:103801.

607 Nafe, J. P. (1927). The psychology of felt experience. *American Journal of Psychology*, 39,367-
608 389.

609 Ngo, M. K., Velasco, C., Salgado, A., Boehm, E., O'Neill, D., & Spence, C. (2013). Assessing
610 crossmodal correspondences in exotic fruit juices: The case of shape and sound
611 symbolism. *Food Quality and Preference*, 28(1), 361-369.

612 Osgood, C. E. (1960). The cross-cultural generality of visual-verbal synesthetic tendencies.
613 *Behavioral Science*, 5(2), 146-169.

614 Palmer, S. E., Schloss, K. B., Xu, Z., & Prado-León, L. R. (2013). Music-color associations are
615 mediated by emotion. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 110(22), 8836-
616 8841.

617 Parise, C. V. (2016). Crossmodal correspondences: Standing issues and experimental guidelines.
618 *Multisensory Research*, 29(1-3), 7-28.

619 Parise, C. V., Knorre, K., & Ernst, M. O. (2014). Natural auditory scene statistics shapes human
620 spatial hearing. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(16), 6104-6108.

621 Parise, C. V., & Spence, C. (2012). Audiovisual crossmodal correspondences and sound
622 symbolism: A study using the implicit association test. *Experimental Brain Research*,
623 220(3-4), 319-333.

624 Parise, C. V., & Spence, C. (2013). Audiovisual cross-modal correspondences in the general
625 population. In J. Simner & E. Hubbard (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of synaesthesia* (pp.
626 790-815). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

627 Parise, C. V., Spence, C., & Deroy, O. (2016). Understanding the correspondences: Introduction
628 to the special issue on crossmodal correspondences. *Multisensory Research*, 29(1-3), 1-6.

629 Reinoso-Carvalho, F., Gunn, L., Molina, G., Narumi, T., Spence, C., Suzuki, Y., ter Horst, E., &
630 Wagemans, J. (2020). A sprinkle of emotions vs a pinch of crossmodality: Towards
631 globally meaningful sonic seasoning strategies for enhanced multisensory tasting
632 experiences. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 389-399.

633 Root, R. T., & Ross, S. (1965). Further validation of subjective scales for loudness and
634 brightness by means of cross-modality matching. *American Journal of Psychology*, 78(2),
635 285-289.

636 Rouw, R., Kosslyn, S. M., & Hamel, R. (1997). Detecting high-level and low-level properties in
637 visual images and visual percepts. *Cognition*, 63(2), 209-226.

638 Salgado-Montejo, A., Marmolejo-Ramos, F., Alvarado, J. A., Arboleda, J. C., Suarez, D. R., &
639 Spence, C. (2016). Drawing sounds: representing tones and chords spatially.
640 *Experimental Brain Research*, 234, 3509-3522.

641 Simpson, R. H., Quinn, M., & Ausubel, D. P. (1956). Synesthesia in children: Association of
642 colors with pure tone frequencies. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 89(1), 95-103.

643 Spence, C. (2011). Crossmodal correspondences: A tutorial review. *Attention, Perception, &*
644 *Psychophysics*, 73(4), 971-995.

645 Spence, C. (2019). On the relationship (s) between color and taste/flavor. *Experimental*
646 *Psychology*, 66(2), 99-111.

647 Spence, C. (2020a). Simple and complex crossmodal correspondences involving
648 audition. *Acoustical Science and Technology*, 41(1), 6-12.

- 649 Spence, C. (2020b). Temperature-based crossmodal correspondences: Causes and consequences.
650 *Multisensory Research*, 33(6), 645-682.
- 651 Spence, C. (2022). Exploring group differences in the crossmodal correspondences. *Multisensory*
652 *Research*, 35, 495-536.
- 653 Spence, C., & Deroy, O. (2013). How automatic are crossmodal correspondences?
654 *Consciousness and Cognition*, 22(1), 245-260.
- 655 Spence, C., & Di Stefano, N. (2022). Coloured hearing, colour music, colour organs, and the
656 search for perceptually meaningful correspondences between colour and sound. *i-*
657 *Perception*, 13(3):20416695221092802.
- 658 Spence, C., & Di Stefano, N. (2023). Sensory translation between audition and vision.
659 *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, doi.org/10.3758/s13423-023-02343-w
- 660 Spence, C., & Sathian, K. (2020). Audiovisual crossmodal correspondences: Behavioral
661 consequences and neural underpinnings. In K. Sathian and V.S. Ramachandran (Eds.),
662 *Multisensory perception from laboratory to clinic* (pp. 239-258). Academic Press.
- 663 Stevens, S. S. (1934). Are tones spatial? *American Journal of Psychology*, 46, 145-147.
- 664 Stevens, S. S. (1957). On the psychophysical law. *Psychological Review*, 64, 153-181.
- 665 Turoman, N., Velasco, C., Chen, Y. C., Huang, P. C., & Spence, C. (2018). Symmetry and its
666 role in the crossmodal correspondence between shape and taste. *Attention, Perception, &*
667 *Psychophysics*, 80(3), 738-751.

668 Velasco, C., Hyndman, S., & Spence, C. (2018). The role of typeface curvilinearity on taste
669 expectations and perception. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*, *11*,
670 63-74.

671 Velasco, C., Salgado-Montejo, A., Marmolejo-Ramos, F., & Spence, C. (2014). Predictive
672 packaging design: Tasting shapes, typefaces, names, and sounds. *Food Quality and*
673 *Preference*, *34*, 88-95.

674 Velasco, C., Woods, A. T., Deroy, O., & Spence, C. (2015). Hedonic mediation of the
675 crossmodal correspondence between taste and shape. *Food Quality and Preference*, *41*,
676 151-158.

677 Velasco, C., Woods, A. T., Petit, O., Cheok, A. D., & Spence, C. (2016). Crossmodal
678 correspondences between taste and shape, and their implications for product packaging:
679 A review. *Food Quality and Preference*, *52*, 17-26.

680 Walker, L., & Walker, P. (2016). Cross-sensory mapping of feature values in the size–brightness
681 correspondence can be more relative than absolute. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:*
682 *Human Perception and Performance*, *42*(1), 138-150.

683 Walker, L., Walker, P., & Francis, B. (2012). A common scheme for cross-sensory
684 correspondences across stimulus domains. *Perception*, *41*(10), 1186-1192.

685 Walker, P. (2012). Cross-sensory correspondences and cross talk between dimensions of
686 connotative meaning: Visual angularity is hard, high-pitched, and bright. *Attention,*
687 *Perception, & Psychophysics*, *74*(8), 1792-1809.

- 688 Walker, P. (2016). Cross-sensory correspondences: A theoretical framework and their relevance
689 to music. *Psychomusicology: Music, Mind, and Brain*, 26(2), 103-116.
- 690 Walker, P., Scallon, G., & Francis, B. (2017). Cross-sensory correspondences: Heaviness is dark
691 and low-pitched. *Perception*, 46(7), 772-792.
- 692 Wang, Q. J., & Spence, C. (2017). The role of pitch and tempo in sound-temperature crossmodal
693 correspondences. *Multisensory Research*, 30(3-5), 307-320.
- 694 Wang, Q. J., Wang, S., & Spence, C. (2016). “Turn up the taste”: assessing the role of taste
695 intensity and emotion in mediating crossmodal correspondences between basic tastes and
696 pitch. *Chemical Senses*, 41(4), 345-356.
- 697 Wang, Q., Woods, A. T., & Spence, C. (2015). “What’s your taste in music?” A comparison of
698 the effectiveness of various soundscapes in evoking specific tastes. *i-Perception*, 6(6):
699 2041669515622001.
- 700 Woods, A. T., Spence, C., Butcher, N., & Deroy, O. (2013). Fast lemons and sour boulders:
701 Testing crossmodal correspondences using an internet-based testing methodology. *i-*
702 *Perception*, 4(6), 365-379.