

On the Nature and Composition of Abstract (Theoretical) Concepts: The X-Ception Theory and Methods for Its Assessment

Luigi Pastore, Sara Dellantonio, Claudio Mulatti and Remo Job

1 **Abstract** The ‘standard picture of meaning’ suggests that natural languages are
 2 composed of two different kinds of words: concrete words whose meaning rely on
 3 observable properties of external objects and abstract words which are essentially
 4 linguistic constructs. In this study, we challenge this picture and support a new
 5 view of the nature and composition of abstract concepts suggesting that they also
 6 rely to a greater or lesser degree on body-related information. Specifically, we sup-
 7 port a version of this new view which we call “x-ception theory” maintaining that
 8 abstract concepts are based on internal information of a proprioceptive, interocep-
 9 tive and affective kind. Secondly, we address a methodological issue concerning the
 10 so-called concreteness and imageability measures, two tools that are widely used in
 11 (mainly psycholinguistic) empirical research to assess the degree of concreteness of
 12 specific words. On the basis of this analysis we argue that—even though the classical
 13 concreteness and imageability measures were developed in relation to the standard
 14 picture of meaning—they can also be used in the new framework of x-ception theory.
 15 In particular, we suggest that the discrepancy between these two measures provides a
 16 clue as to whether a word relies on internal information. By contrast, we argue that a
 17 new measure for concreteness recently proposed in order to address some problems
 18 with the old measure is completely inappropriate for this aim.

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19 1 Introduction

20 The ‘standard picture of meaning’ suggests that natural languages are composed of
 21 two different kinds of words: concrete words “whose meaning are fixed by their
 22 relations with observable properties of the environment” and abstract words whose
 23 meanings are “fixed by a network of inferential or other relations to the meanings of
 24 other words, including those belonging to the observation vocabulary.” (Cruse 2000,
 25 p. 52). According to this picture, these two word classes are structurally different from
 26 each other since abstract words are linguistic (i.e. purely definitional) constructs,
 27 while concrete words are based on perceptual information driven by the external
 28 world. Words that do not rely on perceptual information are organized in a structure of
 29 growing abstraction, in which terms based more directly on observational vocabulary
 30 are considered more concrete than those which rely on other linguistic constructs.

31 However, recent studies carried out mainly in the field of the so-called embodied
 32 cognition challenge this view and suggest that abstract words are not just linguistic
 33 constructs, and that at least some of them do rely on sensory information that is
 34 not driven by external perception, but rather concerns internal states of the body. As
 35 e.g. Barsalou states: “Recent embodiment theorists propose that knowledge acquired
 36 from introspection is central to the representation of abstract concepts.” (Barsalou
 37 2008, p. 620; for an overview see also e.g., Barsalou 1999; Barsalou et al. 2003;
 38 Barsalou and Wiemer-Hastings 2005). The view that abstract words rely (at least to
 39 some extent) on introspective information challenges this standard picture of meaning
 40 and reshuffles the cards of the classical architecture of concrete and abstract words.

41 In fact, some authors suggest that there is no strict opposition between concrete
 42 and abstract words, and that apparent differences result from the fact that words
 43 refer to concepts that are composed in different proportions of external sensory
 44 information, internal experience and linguistic information. For example Vigliocco
 45 and collaborators maintain:

46 The apparent dichotomy between concrete and abstract word meanings arises because of a
 47 statistical preponderance for sensory-motor information to underlie concrete word meanings
 48 and a preponderance for affective and linguistic information to underlie abstract word mean-
 49 ings. While sensory-motor information is statistically more preponderant for concrete word
 50 meanings, affective and linguistic information is statistically more important for abstract
 51 word meanings both for their acquisition and their subsequent representation in the adult
 52 system. (Vigliocco et al. 2009, p. 223; see also Kousta et al. 2011).

53 Not only has the standard picture of meaning been challenged by this view,
 54 but also the two measures psycholinguistics operationalized in order to distinguish
 55 between concrete and abstract words—the so-called ‘concreteness’ and ‘imageabil-
 56 ity’ constructs—seem to have become obsolete with respect to this debate, since
 57 they rely on the classical notion of concreteness as something based only on external
 58 perception.

59 In this paper we address both the theoretical and the methodological aspects of
 60 this issue. First of all, we discuss this new idea of ‘abstractness’ in comparison to the
 61 old one and we argue that word meanings reflect different degrees of involvement of

62 different kinds of external and internal sensory information as well as of linguistic
63 information, positioning words in different parts of a multidimensional space that
64 allows clusters of words to be closer together on any of these dimensions. Specifically,
65 we support a version of this new idea of ‘abstractness’ which we call ‘x-ception
66 theory’ (Dellantonio et al. 2014) according to which abstract concepts rely to a
67 greater or lesser extent on internal information of a proprioceptive, interoceptive and
68 affective kind. This theory allows us—among other things—to give a more precise
69 idea of what kind of abstract concepts might be based more heavily on internal
70 information or might, on the contrary, rely on this information only to a minimal
71 extent.

72 Secondly, we address a methodological issue concerning the so-called ‘concreteness’
73 and ‘imageability’ constructs, i.e. the main scales that have been defined to
74 measure concreteness versus abstractness. Specifically, we will shed light on the
75 definition of concreteness versus abstractness they are implicitly built on and illustrate
76 what they really measure. On the basis of this analysis we argue that—even
77 though the classical concreteness and imageability measures have been developed in
78 relation to the standard picture of meaning—they can also be used in the new framework
79 of x-ception theory. Specifically, we suggest that the discrepancy between the
80 two offers a clue to assess whether a word relies on internal information. By contrast,
81 we argue that a new measure for concreteness recently proposed in order to address
82 some problems with the old measure, is completely inappropriate for this aim.

83 2 The Standard Picture of Abstractness

84 The classical view of abstraction proposed by both the philosophical and the psycho-
85 logical research defines abstract concepts (or words)¹ in opposition to concrete ones:
86 a concept (or word) is considered as concrete if it denotes observable things in the
87 external world, while it qualifies as abstract when it does not refer to something per-
88 ceivable. This differentiation between concrete and abstract words/concepts is at the
89 basis of the ‘standard picture of meaning’ according to which natural languages are
90 composed of two structurally different classes of words, i.e. concrete words based on
91 perceptual information “whose meaning are fixed by their relations with observable
92 properties of the environment” and abstract words whose meanings are “fixed by a
93 network of inferential or other relations to the meanings of other words, including
94 those belonging to the observation vocabulary” which are therefore purely linguistic
95 constructs (Cruse 2000, p. 52). Words that do not rely on perceptual information are
96 organized in a structure of growing abstraction, in which those based more directly

¹In our view, ‘concepts’ and ‘words’ are equivalent notions since concepts are considered to be the internal representations that support the semantic competence a person has with respect to the corresponding words. To know a word (i.e. to apply it correctly), one must have a corresponding concept that allows her/him to group together the class of objects denoted by the word. In this sense, concepts and words can be considered as equivalent at least in the sense that they must rely on corresponding inclusion/exclusion criteria (on this see also Dellantonio and Pastore 2006).

97 on observational vocabulary are considered more concrete than those which rely on
98 other abstract linguistic constructs positioned higher in the structure.

99 As far as philosophical investigation is concerned, the standard picture of mean-
100 ing originates in the field of philosophy of science and specifically from research on
101 the relationship between the observable and unobservable entities in a theory and the
102 nature of the terms describing those entities: the so-called *observational terms* denot-
103 ing observable objects and so-called *theoretical terms* denoting unobservable entities
104 (Carnap 1956; Achinstein 1965; Papineau 1996). There is no clear-cut distinction
105 between theoretical and observational terms, but they are organized in a continuum
106 from the perceptual (i.e. observational) periphery to the highest theoretical level.
107 The more a term is distanced from the observational level the more reference fix-
108 ing becomes problematic and dependent on the theory, i.e. on the place the term
109 occupies in the corpus of the theory. Thus, theoretical terms depend heavily if not
110 entirely on the definitional and mathematical apparatus of a theory and are related
111 to the observational periphery only through the mediation of other terms. While the
112 observational vocabulary can be considered quite stable intersubjectively, the theo-
113 retical vocabulary varies and changes in time together with (i.e. depending on) the
114 theory that defines it.

115 These considerations regarding the observational and the theoretical vocabulary
116 of a scientific theory apply in the same way to natural languages and to the dif-
117 ferentiation between concrete and abstract words. In fact, the issue of theoretical
118 terms addressed in the field of the philosophy of science is actually one and the
119 same as the issue of abstract terms discussed in the field of psychology and, more
120 recently, of philosophy of psychology. Concrete words are conceived as those that
121 refer to perceptible, material entities that can be directly observed. As e.g. Jesse Prinz
122 maintains, ‘democracy’ is an abstract concept because its referent cannot be directly
123 experienced in perception; because it cannot be seen, heard, smelled, or tasted (Prinz
124 2002, p. 167). On the contrary, abstract words are analogous to theoretical terms in
125 the sense that they do not have a referent that can be directly perceived, but they
126 depend on a specific definition given by (some kind of) ‘theory’, which does not
127 need to be a scientific theory, but can also consist in a commonsensical view. Think
128 e.g. of words like ‘democracy’, ‘truth’ or ‘belief’ that are often presented as proto-
129 typical examples of abstract terms (see also e.g. Barsalou 1999; Connell and Lynott
130 2012): people have commonsensical views on the (definitions of) these things which
131 determines the knowledge they have of the corresponding terms. Thus, what we iden-
132 tify as ‘truth’ or ‘democracy’ or ‘beliefs’ and the properties we associate with them
133 depend (implicitly or explicitly) on the definition we acquired. As pointed out also by
134 Alan Paivio—one of the most important authors in psychology who tried to account
135 for the difference between abstract and concrete terms from the point of view of
136 the psychological mechanisms that are supposed to underlie their processing—the
137 philosophical discussion on theoretical terms is closely related to the psycholog-
138 ical discussion on abstract words: “My perspective on the issue is pragmatic and
139 psychological. The basic assumption is that the observational-theoretical distinction
140 becomes psychologically real when interpreted in terms of the correlated difference
141 between concrete and abstract terms.” (Paivio 1986, p. 11).

142 When Paivio says that the distinction between abstract and concrete terms is
143 “psychologically real” he is not just speaking metaphorically to imply that this is
144 psychologically relevant. In fact, he is rather referring to a specific hypothesis he
145 puts forward on the way abstract terms are mentally represented which is called
146 *Dual Coding Theory*. At its core, Paivio’s Dual Coding Theory suggests that the
147 cognitive system is composed of two different symbolic subsystems connected to
148 each other: a verbal one, specialized for the processing of language, and a nonver-
149 bal one, also called the imagery system, whose function is mainly to perceptually
150 analyze the external world and generate mental images of it. The word ‘imagery’
151 describes both this system and the capacity this system enables to dynamically form
152 and recall mental images. Mental images are not meant as visual pictures only, but
153 basically describe traces stored in memory of all kind of sensations—acoustic, olfacy-
154 tory, haptic and gustatory. In this sense, an ‘acoustic image’ would be the nonverbal
155 representation of a sound, an olfactory image would be the nonverbal representation
156 of a smell, etc. As Paivio specifies: “Our minds ‘contain’ memory isomorphs of how
157 entities and events look, sound, feel.” (Paivio 2007, p. 25).

158 According to the Dual Coding Theory, the main difference between concrete and
159 abstract words is that, while concrete words are represented in both the verbal and
160 the nonverbal systems, abstract words are represented in the verbal system only: they
161 depend largely on linguistic information and have only weak referential relationships.

162 Both classes of words (abstract and concrete) have interconnections with the representations
163 of other words in the verbal system. The specific nature and structure of the verbal-associative
164 networks for concrete and abstract words presumably differ in systematic ways that reflect
165 differences in the contexts in which they have been acquired and used, but in general it can
166 be said that concrete and abstract words are semantically differentiated by the degree of
167 availability of referential interconnections. Concrete words have both referential and verbal-
168 associative meaning, whereas abstract words depend relatively more on verbal-associative
169 interconnections for their meaning. (Paivio 1986, p. 123).

170 For this reason “comprehension is more dependent on imagery in the case of
171 concrete than abstract sentences.” (Paivio 1986, p. 219).

172 Paivio’s hypothesis is part of a more general line of research on the so-called men-
173 tal imagery which investigates the processes and the mechanisms through which we
174 can mentally recall any kind of sensation and that support capacities that are usually
175 described as ‘visualizing’, ‘seeing in the mind’s eye’, ‘hearing in the head’ or ‘imag-
176 ining the feel of something’. Paivio’s proposal was—as in general most theories sup-
177 porting the existence of mental imagery developed in the same years (for an overview
178 see e.g. Nigel 2013)—a reaction against the classical computational view according
179 to which linguistic representations need to be conceived uniquely as abstract, amodal
180 and language-like symbolic structures unrelated with the physical and functional fea-
181 tures of the referents and not bound to the perceptual system. Computational views
182 explain conceptual thought and linguistic capacities on the basis of internal relations
183 between symbols, without adequately accounting for the problem of how these are
184 connected to the external world. Imagery is introduced to explain how such amodal
185 symbols are anchored to nonlinguistic perception so that people can understand in
186 a referentially salient sense the meaning of words. In this sense, the main point of

187 Paivio's Dual Code might be seen in the problem of understanding how reference
188 works: how people identify what things in the world correspond to a certain word. The
189 implicit idea of a Dual Code is that—even though language understanding is partially
190 due to verbal-associative interconnections and among verbal representations—these
191 verbal-associative interconnections are not enough to account for the human capac-
192 ity of using words to denote things. Thus, the problem Paivio faces on the basis of
193 his theory is to account for both aspects of language understanding, the capacity to
194 define words through other words and the capacity to connect words with things in
195 the external world.

196 In this respect, Paivio's theory complies with the standard picture of meaning in
197 suggesting that language is characterized by a dichotomy between terms that do have
198 an observable reference in the external world which can be perceived through the
199 senses and terms that are based on definitions. Thus, both the classical philosophical
200 and psychological views on language and specifically on semantics rely on the idea
201 that the ingredients needed to fix the meaning of terms and to understand them are
202 sensory information and linguistic knowledge only. No other ingredient seemed to be
203 needed. Abstractness and concreteness were defined on the basis of these two kinds
204 of information only and their degree was supposed to depend on their reciprocal
205 weights. This is the 'transdisciplinary mainstream' in opposition to which a new
206 perspective has recently begun to be developed. This new perspective—which we
207 are going to present in the next section—challenges this two-dimensional picture
208 of language and frames a three-dimensional model, which does not only include
209 external sensory information, and verbal-associative information, but also internal
210 bodily experience.

211 **3 Abstractness in a New Perspective: The X-ception Theory**

212 The idea that the referential component of meaning can be explained solely in terms
213 of the relationship between words and something observable in the external world
214 is a classical principle not only in psychological but also in philosophical research.
215 As for the latter, there is an influential research tradition arguing that—in order
216 to ensure the intersubjectivity of meaning—reference must consist of something
217 that everybody can observe. If the reference were 'private' and perceivable by a
218 person only, we would never be sure that different people use the same words to
219 indicate the same things (Wittgenstein 1953, 1967, §256ff; Kripke 1982; for an
220 overview on the so-called 'private language argument' see e.g. Cook 1965; Schroeder
221 1998; Knorrp 2003; Candlish and Wrisley 2012). For this reason, according to this
222 tradition the reference of words cannot be identified using internal sensory experience
223 since this would be accessible only by the first person and stability of meaning
224 couldn't be granted: i.e. it could neither be granted that words have univocal meanings
225 independently of the specific person that uses them, nor that everybody uses them to
226 denote one and the same thing.

227 However, the first attempts to assess Paivio's theory indicated that taking the
228 position that reference can be understood uniquely as a relationship between a word
229 and some observable object or property in the external world might not hold. The
230 element in Paivio's theory that immediately presented difficulties was the emotions
231 (specifically, emotion words). In fact, since emotions do not have any observable
232 reference in the external world, they should not be represented in the imagery system,
233 and the meaning of emotion words should be understood uniquely on the basis of
234 verbal-associative interconnections among words. However, in Paivio's study of 1968
235 he had already pointed out that the situation seems to be more complex than this.

236 According to Paivio's theory, words that easily evoke sensory information have
237 a direct representation in the imagery system, while words that evoke sensory infor-
238 mation only with difficulty are represented solely in the verbal system. Since Paivio
239 hypothesized that only concrete words have a direct representation in the imagery
240 system, he predicted that only this word class should easily arouse sensory informa-
241 tion. To confirm this hypothesis, Paivio developed an imageability scale that mea-
242 sures the image-evoking capacity of words meant as their capacity to arouse sensory
243 (i.e. perceptual) experience stored in memory (Paivio 1965; Paivio et al. 1968) and
244 then confronted the ratings obtained using this scale with the concreteness ratings
245 previously collected for the same words by Spreen and Schulz (1966). If Paivio's
246 model made the right prediction, imageability should always reflect concreteness
247 and the two ratings should always be strongly correlated. Paivio et al. (1968) found
248 indeed a high correlation (0.83) which was widely confirmed by later studies. In a
249 recent analysis on the ratings of 4260 words included in the MRC database (Coltheart
250 1981; Wilson 1988) we confirmed a positive correlation between imageability and
251 concreteness of 0.835 (Dellantonio et al. 2014; in this paper we also report other
252 literature confirming this result). However, in spite of this strong general correlation,
253 the prediction is not entirely confirmed since there are a number of words mainly
254 referring to emotional states for which imageability and concreteness are uncorre-
255 lated. For those problematic items, imageability ratings are significantly higher than
256 concreteness ratings. As Paivio observed, these items exhibit interesting similarities:

257 Most of these are words with strong emotional and evaluative connotations. The largest group
258 consists of terms referring to affective reactions or affective attitudes: AFFECTION, AGONY,
259 AMAZEMENT, AMOUR, ANGER, ANXIETY, DEVOTION, FUN, GAIETY, GRATITUDE, GRIEF, HAP-
260 PINESS, HATRED, HOPE, HOSTILITY, HUMOR, INSOLENT, JEALOUSY, JOVIALITY, JOY, KIND-
261 NESS, LOVE, LOYALTY, MISERY, MOOD, PANIC, PASSION, PLEASURE, PRIDE, SADNESS, SHAME.
262 Others in this category are labels for attitudes and emotional situations, or are generally eval-
263 uative in meaning: BLESSING, BRAVERY, CHAOS, CHARM, CHRISTMAS, COURTSHIP, DEATH,
264 GLORY, OBEDIENCE, OBSESSION, SAFETY, TRAGEDY and VANITY. (Paivio et al. 1968, p. 7).²

265 Analogous inconsistencies were noted in later studies (see e.g. Altarriba et al.
266 1999; Altarriba and Bauer 2004, p. 397). We were also able to confirm them in a pre-
267 vious study (Dellantonio et al. 2014) conducted on the concreteness and imageability

²The few anomalies in the opposite direction are quite easily explained: they involve like 'antitoxin', 'armadillo', 'encephalon', 'dell' which denote concrete objects that are unusual and therefore most of the raters are not familiar with their appearance.

268 ratings collected in the MRC database which is one of the most important available
269 sources for imageability and concreteness ratings (Coltheart 1981; Wilson 1988). In
270 this work we selected 36 emotion and moods words taken from a number of studies
271 on basic emotions and moods (Tomkins 1962, 1963; Ekman et al. 1969; Plutchik
272 1980; Ekman 1994, 1999; Reizenzein 2009; Kassam et al. 2013; Prinz 2004; Dama-
273 sio 1999) and we compared them with ten randomly chosen control groups. The
274 results showed that imageability ratings were significantly higher than concreteness
275 ratings for emotion/mood words compared to the words in control groups.

276 The problem that Paivio already identified with respect to these recalcitrant words
277 is that—even though they surely do not denote anything observable and therefore
278 cannot be qualified as concrete—they still rely on some kind of sensory experience:
279 “These words appear to have the common property of having been associated with
280 sensory experience (usually affective in nature) but not specific things or classes of
281 things”. (Paivio et al. 1968, p. 7). This point raised by Paivio is as crucial as it is
282 controversial since it suggests that word meanings might not be based on external
283 perception and linguistic information only, but they might also *be grounded in another*
284 *kind of sensory experience, i.e. in affective experience.*

285 If this is correct, then the reason why emotion words have a high imageability
286 (i.e. according to Paivio’s definition of imageability: easily arouse sensory experience
287 stored in memory) is that they are represented in the non-verbal, imagery system like
288 concrete words and that they have therefore a referential component, consisting in
289 the affective experience that characterizes their occurrence. In this case it is plausible
290 to assume that the inconsistency between concreteness and imageability ratings in
291 the case of emotion words is not a problem of the theory, but provides a clue to
292 an unexpected situation. Specifically, it may indicate that the understanding of non-
293 concrete words (i.e. words with low concreteness ratings) like emotion words also
294 relies on sensory experience stored in memory, which is however not of an external,
295 but of an internal kind. In this case, imageability should be interpreted as *a measure*
296 *of the ease/difficulty with which a word evokes both external and internal sensory*
297 *experience.*

298 As for concrete words, imageability correlates with concreteness because con-
299 creteness measures the link between a word and some external sensory information
300 while imageability assesses the easiness/difficulty with which a word evokes this
301 external sensory experience stored in memory. In the case of non-concrete words,
302 imageability does not necessarily correlate with concreteness, because it is possi-
303 ble that—as in the case of emotions—even though a word is not linked to exter-
304 nal sensory information, it relies on internal sensory experience. *If so, then a dis-*
305 *crepancy between imageability and concreteness ratings like that shown by emo-*
306 *tion words can be considered an important clue that a word easily evokes internal*
307 *sensory experience* (for a more detailed discussion of this hypothesis see Dellantonio
308 et al. 2014).

309 This conclusion is consistent with many recent theories, mainly those related to
310 the tradition of embodied cognition which maintain that “knowledge acquired from
311 introspection is central to the representation of abstract concepts.” (Barsalou 2008,
312 p. 620; see also e.g., Barsalou 1999; Barsalou et al. 2003; Barsalou and Wiemer-

313 Hastings 2005; Lakoff 1987; Johnson 1987; Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Gibbs and Jr
 314 1994; Lakoff and Turner 1989). As Barsalou specifies elsewhere, introspective states
 315 “include events perceived inside the mind and body that typically lack counterparts
 316 in the external world, such as emotions, affects, appetitive states, cognitive opera-
 317 tions, and beliefs.” (Barsalou et al. 2003, p. 44 nota). As also e.g. Prinz points out,
 318 these states “stem [· · ·] from within the body (as with proprioception, interoception,
 319 hunger, and thirst).” (Prinz 2002, p. 116).

320 One of the most recent attempts made by the psychological (i.e. psycholinguisti-
 321 cal) research to theoretically systematize this conception of abstract terms and their
 322 mental representation is that proposed by authors like Kousta and Vigliocco (see
 323 e.g. Vigliocco et al. 2009; Kousta et al. 2011). According to them, both concrete and
 324 abstract words are made of two different types of information: ‘experiential informa-
 325 tion’ and ‘linguistic information’. The ‘linguistic information’ is of verbal-associative
 326 kind and it corresponds to the one the standard picture relies on. As for ‘experiential
 327 information’, they think that this is of a twofold kind, or more specifically that it
 328 is drawn from two different sources depending on whether we are considering con-
 329 crete or abstract concepts. The experiential information concrete concepts consist in
 330 is described as ‘sensory-motor information’: this notion is meant to indicate percep-
 331 tual information driven by sensory-motor interactions with the outside world. The
 332 experiential information abstract concepts rely on is identified as ‘affective infor-
 333 mation’, i.e. information driven by the experience everyone has of their emotions
 334 and emotional states. (Vigliocco et al. 2009). As e.g. Vigliocco and collaborators
 335 maintain:

336 The apparent dichotomy between concrete and abstract word meanings arises because of a
 337 statistical preponderance for sensory-motor information to underlie concrete word meanings
 338 and a preponderance for *affective* and linguistic information to underlie abstract word mean-
 339 ings. While sensory-motor information is statistically more preponderant for concrete word
 340 meanings, *affective* and linguistic information is statistically more important for abstract
 341 word meanings, both for their acquisition and their subsequent representation in the adult
 342 system. (Vigliocco et al. 2009, p. 223—italics added)

343 And further, in the version of this view proposed by Kousta and collaborators:

344 [...] we propose that both concrete and abstract concepts bind different types of informa-
 345 tion: experiential information (sensory, motor, and *affective*) and also linguistic information.
 346 However, concrete and abstract semantic representations differ in terms of whether sensory,
 347 motor, or *affective* information have the greatest weight, with sensory-motor information
 348 being more preponderant for concrete concepts and *affective* information playing a greater
 349 role for abstract concepts. Thus, a central and novel element of this proposal is the idea
 350 that experiential information contributes to the representation of both concrete and abstract
 351 words. However, whereas sensory-motor information is statistically more important for the
 352 representation of concrete words, *emotional content*, a largely neglected type of experien-
 353 tial information in the literature on semantic representation/processing, contributes to word
 354 representation and processing, particularly for abstract concepts. (Kousta et al. 2011, p.
 355 14—italics added)

356 These quotes show clearly that Vigliocco, Kousta and collaborators use the word
 357 ‘affective’ as a synonym for ‘emotional’,³ thus considering emotional content as
 358 the only kind of internal experience abstract concepts rely on. However, *affective*
 359 experience meant in the sense of emotional experiences is only one of the various
 360 kinds of internal experience subjects perceive ‘introspectively’ (on introspection as a
 361 kind of perception see Goldman 1993). As implied by Barsalou’s and Prinz’s quotes
 362 reported above, there are a variety of other types of internal information we can
 363 introspectively access.

364 Other types of internal, introspective states very similar to emotions which also
 365 rely on sensory experience are those conveyed by *proprioception* (which provides
 366 information on body position, body movements and the muscular system, see e.g.,
 367 Berthoz 2000) and *interoception*⁴ (which provides information on the internal condi-
 368 tion of the body: monitoring states like heartbeat, respiration, pain, hunger, thirst,
 369 the need for digestion, elimination, etc., see Craig 2003, 2009, 2010 for a more spe-
 370 cific discussion of proprioception and interoception as well as of their relationship to
 371 emotional experience see Dellantonio, Pastore, forthcoming, Chap. 1 §5, §6).⁵ Since
 372 there is no reason to think that affective experience is special with respect to proprio-
 373 ception and interoception and that affective experience is therefore *the only* relevant,

³In the philosophical and in the classical psychological tradition, terms like “affect”, “affective” or “affection” assume a different meaning. In fact, the word “affection” is derived from Latin terms like *affectus* and *afficere* used to translate the Greek term *pathos*” which indicates the experience of any kind of event or modification caused by the interaction with an entity other than myself. The verb “to affect” in English preserves in part this original meaning. The word is used in this way e.g. by Aristotle in his doctrine of categories (Ackrill 1963). However, in his *On the Soul* Aristotle also used the word “affection” in another more restricted and specific sense to indicate only the passive modifications of the psyche that occur without the active and voluntary participation of the subject. In this sense “affections” are identified with and described as *passions*. In the modern era the word “affection” was used in this restricted sense by Descartes (Brown 2006) and Spinoza (Lebuffe 2010). This interpretation of “affection” in the sense of passion is also that inherited by psychological research. Here “affection” indicates not only the passive modifications of the psyche, but also the effects of this alteration (Dixon 2003). Thus, the word implicitly recalls the idea of an effect caused by some modifications. In a non-metaphysical context these modifications must concern primarily the body, thus we should use “affection” to indicate any state which is the effect of some bodily modification. In this sense, interoception and proprioception are univocally particular kinds of affective states while emotions belong to the class of affections and are affective states only insofar as they are caused by bodily modifications. However, this sense of the word has been lost in the contemporary psychological usage of the term in which affective and emotional have become synonyms.

⁴To be more precise, we should distinguish between interoception and nociception, which is the perception of any kind of pain; however, as e.g. Craig (2003, 2009) and Damasio (1999, 2010) maintain, nociception can be considered a form of interoception.

⁵Interoceptive and proprioceptive information might even be essential for the perception of emotional feelings since we experience our emotions also by means or in virtue of specific corresponding bodily changes: for example we experience fear also by virtue/means of bodily changes such as increased heart and respiration rates, muscular tension etc.; we experience shame also by virtue/means of increased blood flow in the face resulting in facial blushing, gastric and visceral contractions, etc.). On the relationship between emotional information and interoceptive/proprioceptive information see Dellantonio, Pastore, forthcoming, Chap. 4).

374 internal source of sensory information for the understanding of word meaning, it is
375 plausible to hypothesize that the view proposed by Kousta, Vigliocco and collab-
376 orators might be extended at least to *interoceptive and proprioceptive experience*.
377 *This would imply that word meanings might rely on all kinds of internal informa-*
378 *tion people consciously perceive on the internal states of their body including (at*
379 *least) affection, interoception and proprioception. We called this x-ception theory*
380 (Dellantonio et al. 2014).

381 The idea that the representations of words denoting proprioceptive or interoceptive
382 states relies on the corresponding internal information was the object of a previous
383 study we carried out, in which we analyzed the imageability and concreteness ratings
384 of a set of words included in the MRC database which denote proprioceptive and
385 interoceptive states (Dellantonio et al. 2014). Our statistical analysis confirmed that
386 this word class exhibits properties analogous to emotion words: i.e. it proved that
387 the difference between imageability and concreteness ratings for interoceptive and
388 proprioceptive words is significantly higher than that for the control groups (randomly
389 chosen from the database). Also in this case, the inconsistency between imageability
390 and concreteness ratings might indicate that—even though these words are not linked
391 to external sensory information—they still arouse internal sensory experience.

392 As a further proof of the hypothesis that the difference between imageability and
393 concreteness can be interpreted as a measure of whether a word representation relies
394 on internal information, another data set analyzed in the previously mentioned study
395 (Dellantonio et al. 2014) is worth reporting. Here we selected a number of theoret-
396 ical terms relying on the definition of theoretical given by the classical philosophical
397 debate (see §2); specifically, we chose abstract terms belonging to the technical jar-
398 gon of a discipline whose meaning is highly dependent on the linguistic definition
399 given them by the framework of that theory like e.g. ‘axiom’ (mathematics); ‘causal-
400 ity’ (physics); ‘conjugation’ (linguistics); ‘legislation’ (politics and law); ‘deduction’
401 (logic); or ‘theory’ (science in general). Our hypothesis suggests that for this par-
402 ticular class of abstract words, no sensible discrepancy between imageability and
403 concreteness should be observed, since this word class should not rely (at least not
404 to a large extent) on internal sensory information. In fact, as in the case of concrete
405 words, their imageability ratings should depend on their concreteness ratings only
406 and the two measures should correlate. In Dellantonio et al. (2014), we found that
407 the differences between imageability and concreteness for the theoretical/technical
408 words are either smaller than, or comparable to, those of the control groups. In addi-
409 tion, we carried out another analysis specifically for this paper confirming that they
410 are also correlated ($r = 0.743$, $p < 0.001$).

411 Since the method we developed to assess the internal grounding of words based
412 on the discrepancy between imageability and concreteness ratings gave encourag-
413 ing results, we used it to provide some new data for this study. Specifically, we
414 tested Barsalou’s hypothesis (Barsalou 1999; Barsalou et al. 2003) that our capacity
415 to understand words denoting what can be termed doxastic mental states such as
416 e.g. ‘to know’, ‘to believe’, ‘to be certain’, ‘truth’, ‘false’ etc. and words denoting
417 states like ‘hope’, ‘desire’, ‘wish’, ‘remember’, etc. which we might more properly
418 call attitudes is due, at least in part, to the availability of internal, introspectively

419 accessible information for these states. To do so, we analyzed a new group of words
 420 included in the MRC database denoting specifically doxastic and epistemic states
 421 (e.g. ‘true’, ‘truth’, ‘right’, ‘wrong’, ‘certain’, ‘uncertain’, ‘falsehood’, ‘unknown’,
 422 etc.). Even though the number of words we were able to include in the analysis is
 423 relatively low (16), the analysis showed that the mean difference between imageabil-
 424 ity and concreteness of doxastic states words (mean difference = 60) is statistically
 425 identical to the mean difference between imageability and concreteness of x-ceptive
 426 words (mean difference = 72), $t < 1$. More specifically, doxastic words behave like
 427 proprioceptive and interoceptive words.⁶

428 This result is particularly interesting since it shows that there are also other classes
 429 of non-concrete words beyond proprioceptive, interoceptive and emotional terms that
 430 rely on internal information and this offers some support for the thesis that many if not
 431 all abstract (i.e. non-concrete) concepts include some internal information. As fur-
 432 ther proof of this and to see what kind of concepts are more largely based on internal
 433 information we used this method of identifying the discrepancy between image-
 434 ability and concreteness in the opposite direction. Instead of starting from specific
 435 terminological classes selected a priori on the basis of some criteria, we extracted all
 436 the words that have the highest discrepancy between imageability and concreteness
 437 from the MRC database: for each word in the MRC database provided with image-
 438 ability and concreteness ratings we computed the difference between imageabilty
 439 and concreteness, we then computed the mean and standard deviation of this set and
 440 selected those words for which the difference between imageability and concreteness
 441 was 2 standard deviations above the mean of the database. The words selected on the
 442 basis of this criterion are interestingly varied, confirming that internal information is
 443 crucial not only for the understanding of proprioceptive, interoceptive and emotional
 444 terms, but that many word types largely rely on introspective information.

445 In fact, among the term matching this criterion there are not only the words classes
 446 we expected to find on the basis of our results, i.e. words denoting:

- 447 • *emotions/moods* like ‘joy’, ‘jealousy’, ‘happiness’, ‘love’, ‘unhappiness’, ‘fun’,
 448 ‘optimism’, ‘terror’ etc.;
- 449 • *interoceptive and proprioceptive states* such as ‘relaxation’, ‘warmth’, ‘excitement’,
 450 ‘thrill’ etc.;
- 451 • conditions that can be considered *midway between interoceptive and emotive states*
 452 such as ‘pleasure’, ‘anxiety’, ‘tranquil’, ‘excitement’, ‘unpleasantness’, ‘uneasi-
 453 ness’ etc.;
- 454 • or *states closely related to emotions* such as ‘grief’, ‘hostility’, ‘bravery’,
 455 ‘romance’, ‘intimate’, ‘danger’, ‘humor’, ‘seduction’, ‘beauty’.

456 This group of words also includes other kinds of terms that are usually more univo-
 457 cally considered as abstract like words denoting:

⁶In this regard, it should be specified that the mean difference between imageability and concreteness of proprioceptive and interoceptive terms is significantly smaller than the mean difference between the imageability and concreteness of emotion words (mean difference = 119), $t(47) = 2.8$, $p < 0.01$. We do not have a conclusive explanation for this result, however see in Dellantonio et al. (2014) for some possible hypotheses.

- 458 ● *supernatural/religious phenomena* such as ‘devil’, ‘mystery’, ‘magic’, ‘ghost’,
459 ‘eternal’, ‘devotion’, ‘goddess’, ‘demon’, ‘sin’, ‘hell’, ‘angel’, ‘paradise’;
- 460 ● *significant events or times in life* such as ‘maternity’, ‘marry’, ‘graduation’, ‘mar-
461 riage’, ‘holiday’, ‘adolescence’, ‘maturity’, ‘childhood’, ‘summer’;
- 462 ● *interpersonal behaviors related to values* such as ‘kindness’, ‘insolence’, ‘hos-
463 tility’, ‘obedience’, ‘adultery’, ‘gratitude’, ‘greed’, ‘luxury’, ‘vanity’, ‘independ-
464 ence’, ‘pride’, ‘failure’;
- 465 ● *emotionally connoted social relationships* such as ‘marriage’, ‘freedom’, ‘friend-
466 ship’, ‘poverty’;
- 467 ● *mental states* such as ‘obsession’, ‘delirium’, ‘hope’, ‘reflection’.

468 If our interpretation of the imageability measure and of its relationship with the
469 concreteness measure is correct, then these words are strongly related to internal
470 sensory information of some kind. We neither have a specific explanation for why
471 these words seem to be more linked than other words to internal information, nor
472 do we completely trust the accuracy of the measure we use (about this see the next
473 section). However, this result univocally indicates that many words commonly con-
474 sidered as abstract seem—according to the imageability ratings people assign to
475 them—not to be merely linguistic constructs, but to rely on some kind of internal
476 information. What kind of internal information they rely on must be the object of
477 further investigation.

478 In spite of this open question, the analysis we carried out as well as the data we
479 reported allow us now to draw some conclusions regarding two aspects we con-
480 sidered previously. On the one hand, these findings challenge the classical view of
481 abstract words according to which they must be conceived as theoretical terms, i.e. as
482 purely linguistic constructs. They suggest instead a differentiation of degree between
483 abstract words which are closer to theoretical terms as they are classically defined
484 (those abstract terms whose representations consist almost uniquely of verbal asso-
485 ciative information) and abstract words of a different kind, whose representations
486 rely for a large part also on internal sensory experience.

487 On the other hand, on the basis of our observations there is no reason to maintain
488 that affective experience is the only kind of internal information that plays a role with
489 respect to our understanding of abstract terms, as implicitly suggested by Vigliocco,
490 Kousta and collaborators. On the contrary, our findings lead us to think that all
491 kinds of internal experience introspectively available to the subject might be relevant
492 for understanding (some) non-concrete words. At the very least, proprioceptive and
493 introspective information are surely part of the internal information people rely on
494 to understand some word classes. For this reason we call our view *x-ception theory*.

495 By suggesting that a more accurate classification of the internal information peo-
496 ple have at their disposal is essential to shed light on the debate on the semantic
497 differences among words and words representations, we propose a view according
498 to which word meanings reflect different degrees of involvement of different kinds
499 of external and internal sensory information as well as linguistic information, posi-
500 tioning words in different parts of a multidimensional space that allows clusters of
501 words to be closer together on any of these three dimensions. In consideration of

502 this position, the very notion of reference needs to be revisited, taking into account
503 the possibility that at least some words might have some form of internal reference:
504 i.e. that they might denote in a more or less direct way internal states, which are
505 introspectively perceived by the first person and that the sensory experience of these
506 states is part of the information our semantic representations consists in.

507 This view might have relevant consequences also with respect to our idea of
508 concreteness, because it challenges the classical dichotomy between concrete words
509 that are grounded in external information and abstract words that are understood
510 primarily on the basis of linguistic information and it suggests that some abstract
511 words are also grounded in some sort of sensory information, even though of an
512 internal kind. In fact, by virtue of this ‘grounding’, these abstract words might be in
513 some respects more similar to concrete words than to theoretical words. In particular,
514 it is possible that the so-called concreteness effect (claimed to be responsible for
515 the fact that concrete terms are processed more quickly than abstract terms⁷ and are
516 learned earlier and more easily than abstract terms) does not only apply to words that
517 rely on external sensory information. In fact, this might also take place in the case
518 of words linked to internal sensory information, even though to a lesser extent since
519 internal experience is less specific and less univocal than perceptual information.
520 This is an empirical hypothesis which needs to be further investigated.

521 **4 Methodological Issues: Is There a Way to Assess Internal** 522 **Grounding?**

523 The idea that introspective information is central to the representation of abstract con-
524 cepts reshuffles the cards of the classical architecture of concrete and abstract words,
525 challenging the standard picture of meaning according to which word representations
526 are either grounded in external sensory information or in linguistic constructs, and
527 suggests that words may also rely on internal sensory information.

528 Because of this radical perspective change, the measures psycholinguistics oper-
529 ationalized in order to distinguish between concrete and abstract words—the so-
530 called ‘concreteness’ and ‘imageability’ constructs—could be obsolete since they
531 were developed relying on the standard picture of meaning. However, the analysis
532 we carried out in the previous part shows that this is not the case, at least not entirely.
533 In fact, in §3 we suggested that the discrepancy (i.e. difference) between imageability
534 and concreteness ratings offers an index of whether a word representation relies on
535 internal information. However, this does not mean that these scales are perfectly ade-
536 quate to differentiate between different kinds of non-concrete words and to establish
537 which are mainly linguistic constructs and which are internally grounded. In this
538 section we discuss some issues related to these two measures and their potential

⁷This means that the reaction times in tasks like lexical decision, word naming and recall are shorter for concrete than for abstract terms. For a recent review of the literature on this effect see e.g. Connell and Lynott (2012).

539 with respect to the new view. More specifically, we explain: (i) why the old con-
540 structs defined by Spreen and Schulz (1966) (concreteness) and Paivio et al. (1968)
541 (imageability) that we used in our studies (this one as well as Dellantonio et al.
542 2014) are indeed appropriate for indicating whether words are internally grounded,
543 even though they are not completely reliable and (ii) why on the contrary the new
544 construct of concreteness defined by Brysbaert et al. (2014) is not at all reliable for
545 our purposes.

546 First of all, as we have discussed extensively elsewhere, it is only a “methodolog-
547 ical accident” that the imageability construct defined by Paivio is also a measure
548 of the internal grounding of words. This accident is due to the fact that the instruc-
549 tions given to the participants on how to assign imageability ratings were misleading
550 (Dellantonio et al. 2014):

551 Nouns differ in their capacity to arouse mental images of things or events. Some words arouse
552 a sensory experience, such as a mental picture or sound, very quickly and easily, whereas
553 others may do so only with difficulty (i.e., after a long delay) or not at all. The purpose of
554 this experiment is to rate a list of words as to the ease or difficulty with which they arouse
555 mental images. Any word which, in your estimation, arouses a mental image (i.e., a mental
556 picture, or sound, or other sensory experience) very quickly and easily should be given a
557 high imagery rating: any word that arouses a mental image with difficulty or not at all should
558 be given a low imagery rating. Think of the words ‘apple’ or ‘fact’. Apple would probably
559 arouse an image relatively easily and would be rated as high imagery; fact would probably
560 do so with difficulty and would be rated as low imagery. (Paivio et al. 1968, p. 4)

561 As we mentioned in the previous section, Paivio thought that imageability should
562 closely resemble concreteness in all cases because in his view only concrete words
563 had references that could be represented non-linguistically in the imagery system and
564 were therefore easy to imagine (i.e. have high imageability ratings). For this reason,
565 Paivio designed the instructions for the collection of imageability ratings primarily
566 in terms of the ease or difficulty with which words arouse mental images of *external*
567 *things or events* and the examples he uses are ‘apple’ and ‘fact’.

568 However, in Paivio’s view everything that can be perceived through the senses
569 including e.g. smells, tastes, voices etc. is concrete. Thus, his notion of ‘mental
570 image’ describes traces stored in memory of all types of external sensations (not
571 only visual ones, but also auditory, olfactory, gustatory and haptic sensations should
572 be taken into account). It is for this reason that in the instructions he specifies that
573 all kind of sensory experience (“a sensory experience”; “other sensory experience”)
574 should be considered when making an imageability judgment. However, the request
575 to estimate imageability depending on whether/how much a word arouses sensory
576 experience without further specifications might have lead participants to assign their
577 ratings on the basis of the ease/difficulty with which words aroused any kind of sen-
578 sory experience stored in memory, including internal, body-related sensations. Thus,
579 the fact that imageability appears to indirectly measure also the internal grounding of
580 words (when compared with concreteness) is the side-effect of ambiguous instruc-
581 tions making the instructions instrumental in collecting biased ratings.

582 Even though the instructions of imageability suggested evaluating the ease/
583 difficulty with which a word evoked any kind of sensory information including
584 possibly internal experience, they are certainly biased towards an idea of imageabil-
585 ity that is primarily visual and related to the ease/difficulty with which people can
586 form a mental picture of the referent of a word. In fact, the term ‘image’ recalls
587 quite strongly the idea of a visual picture. Thus, this instruction is certainly biased
588 towards the sense of vision. This bias could represent a problem when we compare
589 imageability with concreteness ratings. However, in the following part we will show
590 that it does not. Specifically, we will argue that the instructions for concreteness also
591 favor the sense of vision and that these two biases ‘balance each other out’.

592 (i) The original instructions for concreteness ratings developed by Spreen and
593 Schulz, (1966, p. 460) were as follows:

594 Nouns may refer to persons, places and things that can be seen, heard, felt, smelled or tasted
595 or to more abstract concepts that cannot be experienced by our senses. The purpose of this
596 experiment is to rate a list of words with respect to ‘concreteness’ in term of sense-experience.
597 Any word that refers to objects, material or persons should receive a high concreteness rating;
598 any word that refers to an abstract concept that cannot be experienced by the senses should
599 receive a low concreteness rating. Think of the words ‘chair’ and ‘independence’. ‘Chair’ can
600 be experienced by our senses and therefore should be rated as high concrete; ‘independence’
601 cannot be experienced by the senses as such and therefore should be rated as low concrete
602 (abstract).

603 According to the concreteness instructions something is concrete if it can be per-
604 ceived through (at least one of) the senses. However, as it is has been already pointed
605 out (Connell and Lynott 2012, p. 461), the examples mentioned in the second part
606 of the definition (“objects, material or persons” as well as “chair” versus “indep-
607 endence”) might have been misleading. In particular, they might have biased people
608 to rely for their ratings (also) on a different idea of concreteness which resembles
609 more closely the everyday understanding of the word ‘concrete’ and its dictionary
610 definition, according to which ‘concrete’ means material or physical and an object is
611 concrete only if it has a material composition. Since material objects are perceived
612 mainly or primarily through vision and possibly through touch, people’s ratings prob-
613 ably favored these senses over the others. However, since external material things
614 are the ones people can more easily form a mental picture of, it can be predicted
615 that for these material things there is an overlap between concreteness and image-
616 ability, independently of the sensory channel through which such material things are
617 perceived.

618 We tested the hypotheses derived from the perusal of the instructions by perform-
619 ing two analyses. In the first analysis we checked whether there was a bias toward
620 the sense of vision in Spreen and Schulz (1966) participants’ ratings. We took into
621 consideration the words included in the MRC database that have a concreteness rat-
622 ing ($N = 4260$). We ordered them in descending order from those with the highest
623 concreteness ratings to those with lower rating and determined if they were related
624 to the sense of vision or to some other senses. All the words up to the 705th item, i.e.
625 all words whose concreteness ratings exhibit a standard deviation higher than 1,17,
626 referred to material objects that could be perceived by vision.

627 In the second analysis we checked whether the imageability ratings for words
628 referring to senses other than vision did indeed correlate with the concreteness ratings
629 for the same words. To do so we took into consideration the concreteness ratings of
630 a list of words included in the MRC database denoting sounds, tastes and smells like
631 ‘sound’, ‘voice’, ‘rumor’, ‘salty’, ‘spicy’, ‘bitter’, ‘scent’, ‘odor’, ‘smell’ etc. (words
632 connected to touch like smooth, rough, soft, tender were not considered since they
633 have more ambiguous meanings) and compared them with the mean concreteness
634 ratings of other items in the corpus (purged of words occurring multiple times.)
635 Things that can be perceived through senses other than sight ($N = 20$) received
636 mean concreteness and imageability ratings (432 and 460 respectively) comparable
637 to those of the corpus as a whole ($N = 4239$; 439 and 456 respectively). Moreover
638 the correlation between imageability and concreteness for those words is significant
639 ($r = 0.824$, $p < 0.01$). This comparison confirms that words denoting sounds, tastes
640 and smells received only medium concreteness ratings and were therefore considered
641 as less concrete than words denoting material objects that can be perceived through
642 vision. However, the high correlation between concreteness and imageability ratings
643 also points out that this class doesn’t exhibit anomalies analogous to those observed
644 with regard to emotion words, and it is therefore perfectly consistent with Paivio’s
645 view.

646 The results from our analyses can be summarized as follow. Despite what
647 some studies maintain (e.g. Vigliocco et al. 2009; Connell and Lynott 2012), the
648 ease/difficulty with which a word evokes a mental picture of a visual kind is not
649 the only relevant aspect measured by imageability. Imageability also tracks the
650 ease/difficulty with which a word evokes mental images aroused by senses other
651 than vision. In fact, our analysis of words denoting sounds, tastes, and smells (we
652 couldn’t check touch) shows that—even though these imageability ratings tend to be
653 lower than those for words denoting material objects—they are still highly correlated
654 with concreteness ratings. Our data indicates that words denoting sounds, tastes, and
655 smells are perceived as a bit less concrete and as a bit less imageable than words
656 denoting material objects that can be seen. There is no inconsistency between the
657 perceived concreteness and the perceived imageability in such cases (the correlation
658 is significant); thus, the bias toward vision is not relevant for our conclusions con-
659 cerning the viability of using the difference between imageability and concreteness
660 as a measure of the internal grounding of a word.

661 Even though this bias is not relevant from our point of view, other authors have
662 considered it extremely relevant and argue that many problems found in psycholin-
663 guistic studies in the past can be traced back to this bias. They therefore propose that
664 a new concreteness measure should be defined to overcome this obstacle. One of
665 the most influential studies with this aim is Connell and Lynott (2012). The authors’
666 primary interest concerns the concreteness effect (mentioned at the end of §3), i.e.
667 the behavioral advantages exhibited by words referring to concrete objects that are
668 processed more quickly and accurately than abstract words. They point out that
669 “despite their reputation as a textbook effect, concreteness effects do not always
670 reliably emerge in semantic processing” (p. 453). In their view these problems are
671 not due to the effect itself (which they consider indeed to be absolutely reliable), but

rather to the means that are typically used to select the items for the experiments, i.e. the concreteness and the imageability measures. They think that both the concreteness and imageability ratings (which are often used interchangeably to assess the degree of concreteness versus abstractness of words) do not adequately capture the degree to which terms rely on perceptual experience because both the instructions for concreteness and imageability are affected by the biases we mentioned above. Specifically, while imageability is affected by a visual bias, concreteness is evaluated primarily on the basis of whether the word denotes a material object (thus, primarily on the basis of visual and haptic experience). Connell and Lynott do not consider the possibility that internal information might play a role with respect to the dichotomy abstract versus concrete and therefore suggest developing a new measure of concreteness which can substitute for both the old measure of concreteness and that of imageability. This new measure should rely on instructions in which participants are explicitly asked to consider each of the five perceptual modalities in turn: auditory, gustatory, haptic, olfactory and visual.

Also on the basis of Connell's and Lynott's arguments, a new set of concreteness ratings was recently collected using different instructions which drive the participant to assign concreteness ratings considering all the external senses (Brysbaert et al. 2014). Even though they are quite long, the instructions of this new database need to be reported in full since they determine the specific idea of concreteness participants relied on to assign the ratings:

Some words refer to things or actions in reality, which you can experience directly through one of the five senses. We call these words concrete words. Other words refer to meanings that cannot be experienced directly but which we know because the meanings can be defined by other words. These are abstract words. Still other words fall in-between the two extremes, because we can experience them to some extent and in addition we rely on language to understand them. We want you to indicate how concrete the meaning of each word is for you by using a 5-point rating scale going from abstract to concrete. A concrete word comes with a higher rating and refers to something that exists in reality; you can have immediate experience of it through your senses (smelling, tasting, touching, hearing, seeing) and the actions you do. The easiest way to explain a word is by pointing to it or by demonstrating it (e.g. to explain 'sweet' you could have someone eat sugar; to explain 'jump' you could simply jump up and down or show people a movie clip about someone jumping up and down; to explain 'couch', you could point to a couch or show a picture of a couch). An abstract word comes with a lower rating and refers to something you cannot experience directly through your senses or actions. Its meaning depends on language. The easiest way to explain it is by using other words (e.g. there is no simple way to demonstrate 'justice'; but we can explain the meaning of the word by using other words that capture parts of its meaning). Because we are collecting values for all the words in a dictionary (over 60 thousand in total), you will see that there are various types of words, even single letters. Always think of how concrete (experience based) the meaning of the word is to you. In all likelihood, you will encounter several words you do not know well enough to give a useful rating. This is informative to us too, as in our research we only want to use words known to people. We may also include one or two fake words which cannot be known by you. Please indicate when you don't know a word by using the letter N (or n). So, we ask you to use a 5-point rating scale going from abstract to concrete and to use the letter N when you do not know the word well enough to give an answer. (Brysbaert et al. 2014, p. 906)

719 These instructions rely explicitly on the standard picture of meaning according
720 to which concrete terms are based on external perception while abstract terms rely
721 on verbal information. Others than the instructions given by Spreen and Schulz
722 (1966), these specify exactly how the contraposition between concrete and abstract
723 should be understood, driving the participants to assign their ratings on the basis
724 of the dichotomy perceivable through (at least one of) the senses versus linguistic
725 construct.

726 The aim of the new instructions is to lead the participants to consider as con-
727 crete not only the terms denoting material objects (perceivable through the sight and
728 through the touch), but also words whose denoting properties that are perceivable
729 only through other senses (e.g. words denoting sounds, odors, tastes etc.). However,
730 the analysis carried out by the authors on the ratings of the new database confirms the
731 bias toward material objects: also with the new instructions people tended to assign
732 a higher degree of concreteness to material objects:

733 The high correlation between our ratings and those included in the MRC database ($r =$
734 $.92$) attests to both the reliability and the validity of our ratings [...]. At the same time, the
735 high correlation shows that the extra instructions we gave for the inclusion of nonvisual and
736 action related experiences, did not seem to have much impact. Gustatory strength was not
737 taken into account and auditory strength even correlated negatively, because words such as
738 “deafening” and “noisy” got low concreteness ratings (1.41 and 1.69 respectively) but high
739 auditory strength ratings (5.00 and 4.95). Apparently, raters cannot take into account several
740 senses at the same time. (Brysbaert et al. 2014, p. 908)

741 Brysbaert and collaborators report that they found a “high correlation” between
742 their ratings and those included in the MRC database. However, this overall corre-
743 lation hides some differences that in our view are relevant. Indeed, if one considers
744 specifically the words that are most problematic with respect to Paivio’s theory and
745 more generally with respect to the standard picture of meaning—i.e. those denoting
746 x-ceptive states (i.e. affective, interoceptive and proprioceptive states)—and com-
747 pares the concreteness ratings of these words in the MRC database and in Brysbaert
748 and collaborators’ collection, the result is quite different. Indeed, we confronted the
749 concreteness ratings of the x-ceptive words selected for our previous study (Dellanto-
750 nio et al. 2014) in the two databases and found that whereas their mean concreteness
751 was 428 in the MRC database, it was 492 in the Brysbaert and colleagues’ data-
752 base, and that the 64 points of difference are statistically significant, $t(48) = 6.1$,
753 $p < 0.001$. The fact that concreteness ratings for these words increased is extremely
754 relevant since it results in the reduction of the difference between imageability and
755 concreteness values which in our view indicate the link between a word and infor-
756 mation of internal kind. The reason why the concreteness ratings of at least some
757 relevant items like the x-ceptive words are higher in the new collection with respect
758 to MRC lies in the instructions given to the participants and especially in two aspects
759 of them.

760 First of all, these instructions lead participants to ‘externalize’ the criteria used
761 to represent word meanings. The example of ‘sweet’ is highly significant in this
762 respect: “The easiest way to explain a word is by pointing to it or by demonstrating
763 it (e.g. to explain ‘sweet’ you could have someone eat sugar.)”. ‘Sweet’ denotes a

764 flavor. If we consider as concrete all words denoting something perceivable with one
765 of the external senses, then the word ‘sweet’ is certainly concrete. However, its con-
766 creteness is not due to the fact that we can imagine the visual picture of somebody
767 eating sugar, as suggested by the example, but it is due to the fact that we can directly
768 perceive this sweetness through our sense of taste. If we observe somebody else
769 eating something we never tasted before using our own papillae, we cannot know
770 if it is sweet or not. In this sense, Brysbaert and collaborators’ instructions are mis-
771 leading since—in order to pursue the aim of making flavors appear more concrete to
772 the participants and more close to the experience of material objects—they present
773 the sensation of taste in terms of the visual perception of someone else eating. In
774 this way, these instructions disregard the difference between internal (subjective)
775 and external experience—i.e. between tasting ‘sweet’ directly and seeing somebody
776 else eating something sweet—leading people to reinterpret their internal experience
777 entirely in terms of external experience.⁸ This is the reason why—following this
778 instructions—people might have assigned a higher concreteness rating to all kind of
779 internal sensations, interpreting interoceptive, exteroceptive or affective states more
780 or less like tastes, sounds or smells. In the spirit of these instructions, since we can eas-
781 ily imagine the visual picture of someone moving, or making a suffering face because
782 of the pain, or expressing his/her happiness by making a happy face, ‘movement’,
783 ‘pain’ and ‘happiness’ must be considered as (fairly) concrete words. However, in
784 this way the difference between concreteness and imageability disappears together
785 with the difference between internal and external sensory experience.

786 Secondly, the instructions implicitly link concrete words with ostension, suggest-
787 ing that a world is concrete if we can point to what it denotes. At the same time they
788 suggest that the concreteness of actions should also be assessed this way: “to explain
789 ‘jump’ you could simply jump up and down or show people a movie clip about
790 someone jumping up and down”. As in the case of ‘sweet’, also ‘jump’ leads to an
791 externalized interpretation of the experience we use to understand words: we are not
792 asked to think of the sensations we subjectively experience when we jump, but we are
793 asked to take an external perspective and to picture someone jumping. In this way the
794 participants are led to disregard the dynamical, first person information they have on
795 the active performance of the action and to think of an action as they observe it exter-
796 nally when it is performed by someone else. Thus, instructions lead the participants
797 to think of actions as if they were objects that can be perceived only through external
798 observation. This externalization of actions produces the same effect discussed in

⁸The sense of taste belongs to the traditional five external senses, however, traditionally it is considered the most internal among the external senses in opposition to vision, which is considered as the external sense *par excellence*. While vision easily allows us to identify intersubjectively the source of the stimulation and is therefore considered to be also the most objective and real among the external senses, the sense of taste is the less objective because it is impossible to verify intersubjectively what a person is experiencing. For this reason, the notion of ‘taste’ has been generalized to indicate subjective judgments that cannot be disputed and are therefore potentially arbitrary (e.g. “it is a matter of taste”). For some philosophical reflections on the sense of taste in this vein see e.g. Arendt (1978, 1982).

799 the previous step: all words describing actions are evaluated as being concrete. Since
800 their concreteness ratings are higher, the difference from their imageability becomes
801 minimal and it becomes impossible to assess whether proprioceptive information
802 plays a role with respect to the understanding of these words.

803 This externalization of the sensations and of actions makes this new database
804 for concreteness (i) methodologically incommensurable with respect to MRC (and
805 this in spite of the high correlation between the ratings reported in Brysbaert et al.
806 (2014) and those included in the MRC database) and (ii) inadequate to assess a three-
807 dimensional view of the difference between abstract and concrete in terms of which
808 word meanings reflect different degrees of involvement of different kinds of external
809 and internal sensory information as well as linguistic information.

810 As we showed above, the old concreteness and imageability scales can provide
811 some useful indications to assess the different degrees of involvement of exter-
812 nal, internal and linguistic information. However, they are still much too inaccurate
813 and a more specific measure would be needed to assess abstractness and concrete-
814 ness according to this new three-dimensional perspective. Ideally, such a measure
815 should—among other things—include a distinction between grammatical categories
816 (in particular between nouns and verbs) since on the basis of our discussion of the
817 externalization of actions, one could hypothesize that verbs rely more heavily on
818 internal (i.e. proprioceptive) information than the corresponding nouns, and specifi-
819 cally that e.g. ‘to run’ might evoke motor information on the performance of the
820 action, while ‘run’ as a noun might evoke a more passive and externalized represen-
821 tation of a run.

822 5 Concluding Remarks

823 This study challenges the standard picture of meaning according to which words
824 either rely on external sensory experience or are linguistic constructs and argues for
825 the view that word meanings reflect different degrees of involvement of different
826 kinds of external and internal sensory information as well as linguistic information.
827 The paper addresses not only the theoretical aspects of this issue, but also its method-
828 ological consequences. In this regard, we specifically discuss whether the measures
829 of concreteness and imageability used in the standard theory which opposed concrete
830 and abstract words, might or might not continue to be useful since they allow us to
831 assess the contribution of external and internal information. In the context of this
832 discussion we suggest that, even though the classical constructs of concreteness and
833 imageability might in fact be used as a joint measure to evaluate, at least approxi-
834 mately, whether a word representation relies on internal information, a more specific
835 measure is needed for this aim.

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