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Empirics vs. art theory: Exploring a factor structure of pictorial expression based on contemporary artworks

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ABSTRACT

The RizbA scale combines psychometrics and art theory and enables a measurement of pictorial expression. This study explores its factor structure and a potential gap between theory and empirics. A sample of 275 pictorial works by artists and nonprofessionals was rated by 179 art experts. Three CFA path models were specified: models A and B based on the empirical results of previous studies, C on the theory of the initial study. Model C was additionally tested on a combined dataset. A and B did not converge, C was associated with fit indices as follows: RSMEA = .122, CFI = .712, TLI = .679, SRMR = .135, for the combined dataset: RSMEA = .086, CFI = .740, TLI = .696, SRMR = .084. Only model C partly suggests an acceptable fit. The results speak to a methodological gap between empirics and theory, that might be solved by a postdisciplinary measurement model.

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art theory; confirmatory factor analysis; formal picture analysis; pictorial expression; visual art

Introduction

Psychological research on visual art has a long tradition. Surprisingly, however, until now formal elements of artworks have received little attention in quantitative research. Another peculiarity is that most studies deal with historical art, but seldom with contemporary works. This is even more striking since arts and humanities provide a range of methods to analyze artworks including contemporary art (e.g., Bockemühl, 1989; Huber, 2005; Kemp, 1988; Panofsky, 2006). In order to do justice to the arts, approaches from empirical sciences and humanities will need to move toward becoming more transdisciplinarily connected and share their discourses. This study contributes to that process. As already discussed in detail (Schoch & Ostermann, 2020, 2022; Schoch, Gruber, & Ostermann, 2017), RizbA (Rating instrument for two-dimensional pictorial works) fills the severe lack of a quantitative, reliable, and validated instrument for conducting a detailed formal analysis of artworks, that allows inferential statistics and is applicable to all sorts of two-dimensional pictorial works.

The rating instrument for two-dimensional pictorial works (RizbA)

RizbA is an Open Methodology tool. The 26-item questionnaire (see Table 1) refers to a formal picture analysis and focuses on a maximization of objectivity. The

instrument uses a six-point Likert-scale, which is discretely scaled and verbally anchored in shades of agreement (0 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Raters receive a brief instruction to process the presented image: They are asked to focus on the pre-dominant overall expression and no single details, while being reminded that there is no right or wrong, but only their evaluation. Explanatory notes explaining art terminology ensure that the questionnaire remains applicable and reliable (Jerusalem, 2020, February 20) not only to art experts, but also to experts from other domains.

RizbA offers a quantitative measurement of pictorial expression – a construct that so far has mainly been analyzed theoretically or with quantitative tools. Therefore, an interdisciplinary combination of a methodically and theoretically sound test construction based on test theory and art theoretical content is used. RizbA aims to meet scientific standards (i.e., objectivity, validity, and reliability), quantitatively measures a theoretically defined construct (i.e., pictorial expression in terms of a formal picture analysis), provides interval-level data, and allows inferential statistics.

RizbA is not a psychometric instrument itself, but follows statistical methods of their construction. However, in combination with psychometric instruments, correlates of art can be operationalized and measured in more than just categorical data – as is currently the majority case in art psychology. The instrument allows for a more detailed scientific examination of

Table 1. Rating instrument for two-dimensional pictorial works (RizbA).

No.	Item*
1	The picture includes graphic elements
2	The picture includes pictorial elements
3	The manner of representation is concrete
4	The manner of representation is abstract
5	The color application is pastose
6	The predominant coloring is vibrant
7	In the picture primary colors are prevalent
8	In the picture mixed colors (secondary colors) are prevalent
9	In the picture there are complementary contrasts
10	In the picture organic shapes are prevalent
11	In the picture geometric shapes are prevalent
12	The layout of the line is predominantly curved
13	The layout of the line is predominantly angled
14	The picture includes unworked areas
15	The picture appears to be deep
16	The picture is perspectival
17	The picture is without perspective (aperspectival)
18	The picture is restless
19	The picture is wild
20	The global composition is laid out vertically
21	The global composition is laid out horizontally
22	The global composition is laid out diagonally
23	The global composition is laid out area-wide without a main subject (All-Over-Structure)
24	The picture appears to be diffuse
25	The picture appears to be precise, accurate
26	The picture appears to be harmonic

*= original German version see [appendix](#).

correlates between psychological constructs for artworks and both the viewer's and the creator's psyche. For example, correlations have been found between art preferences and personality traits. Individuals who enjoy novelty, ambiguity, and dissonance and who are open-minded and sensation-seeking, prefer abstract over representational art. Abstract, random, and field-independent thinkers prefer abstraction as well (Gridley, 2006, 2013). RizbA goes beyond categories like abstract vs. representational and allows a deeper examination. It can be used for research on the formal criteria that make individuals prefer specific art. Analogously, correlations with creativity and making art can be investigated. For example, does open-mindedness go along with being more likely not only to prefer, but also to create abstract art. Moreover, in a clinical or art therapeutical context, RizbA can be used to examine connections between pictorial expression and mental health variables. For example, Masuch et al. (2023) found correlations between delirium within geriatric patients and pictorial expression by using RizbA.

Pictorial expression

Defining the nomological network, RizbA assesses the construct of pictorial expression, which is defined as artistic creation in the form of a picture. It focuses on the concept of a formal picture analysis (Streb, 1984; Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003) originating from the

humanities and the arts. It analyzes formal aspects, such as representation, color, spatiality, shaping, pictorial elements, and composition, which can be found across art literature (e.g., Arnheim, 2013; Bauer, 1996; Kandinsky, 1955; Meyer, 2011; Vollmar, 2008). This approach is rooted in the tradition of phenomenological picture analysis (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003, 2004). In art therapy, the phenomenological method consists of attempting attentive viewing and describing as precisely as possible, what is seen (Betensky, 1991). The viewer seeks to overcome accidental judgment, preconception, and association (Streb, 1984). This work focuses on pictorial representation and consciously leaves aside aspects of picture reference, e.g., knowledge, associations, and emotions (Huber, 2005). It focuses on visual presentation (Wiesing, 2005) leaving out the colonializing view of unintentional identification of objects (Marotzki & Stoetzer, 2006). It is limited to a detailed but classical conception of images, not taking into account the creation process (Uzelac, 1998). The test does not judge the creator's achievement or mastery and is distinct from esthetic appreciation. It is neither evaluative nor interpretative nor projective but aims for a value-free description of formal elements. A rater training or sample images for certain characteristics are deliberately dispensed with to avoid a manipulation of judgment.

A formal picture analysis (Bauer, 1996) captures formal pictorial attributes that can be found across art theoretical literature (e.g., Arnheim, 2000; Bauer, 1996;

Table 2. Formal picture analysis: theoretical content areas.

No.	Content area	Definition
1	Representation	Representation refers to a basic classification. This includes a positioning of the work in a continuum between painting and drawing as well as its level of abstraction (Arnheim, 2000, p. 139 ff.).
2	Color	Stuhler-Bauer and Elbing (2003) consider color, its selection, use, distribution, and interaction as the central component of an image. It includes both quality and quantity, as well as luminosity. This, inter alia, refers to Johann Wolfgang von Goethe's color theory (e.g., tertiary colors; Vollmar, 2008, p. 71) and Johannes Itten (e.g., primary color; Meyer, 2011; Vollmar, 2008, p. 58).
3	Shaping	Along with color, shaping is a core component, although shaping differs from color, since it can exist independently in contrast to color which always requires shape (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003). It includes shaping of components (e.g., organic) and surface (e.g., appearing two-dimensional). Since shapes mostly emerge from lines (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003), lines are also a component.
4	Spatiality	Spatiality refers to an arrangement of pictorial space. Since it is by definition a three-dimensional construct, using this concept on two-dimensional works seems paradoxical. Thus, it refers to a mode of representation through which a spatial effect is created (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003), the presence or absence of perspective, spatial depth, and the handling of image space (Arnheim, 2000 ff.; Meyer, 2011).
5	Motion	Motion in a non-kinetic picture seems equally paradoxical. It also refers to an illusory movement, e.g., lines that are perceived as traces of movement or direct the gaze of the viewer. Also an oblique image object can suggest a deviation from a resting position (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003). Motion refers to the quality of movement: a perception of motion, its intensity, and directionality (Arnheim, 2000, p. 371 ff.).
6	Composition	Composition refers to an overall view on all formal aspects a picture is composed of. It describes the image structure, the relationship of its elements to each other, and literally to the big picture (Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2003). Central elements are the orientation of the overall composition, symmetry, and relationship between picture elements.
7	Expression	Expression describes the character of an image. Stuhler-Bauer and Elbing (2003) introduce a concept of qualities of a perceived impression of an image. They also emphasize that these are difficult to quantify, since they are usually composed of different sensory qualities. Interpretations and associations are not subsumed here. However, this is theorized to be the least objective content area.

Kandinsky, 1955; Meyer, 2011; Vollmar, 2008): *representation, color, shaping, spatiality, motion, composition, and expression* (see Table 2). In relation to this, Bauer (1996, p. 161) mentions that form is the appearance of a message with the critical proviso that the form cannot be isolated from the historical context. However, this work follows a quantitative approach, in which form needs to be isolated from content and historical context. The point is not to ignore it completely, but to disassemble art to enable its operationalization. To disassemble, measure, and reassemble art, we decided to start by measuring formal elements, since these are most likely to be analyzed objectively.

Previous research

So far, three main validation studies have been conducted using randomized online surveys, in which image samples were rated by experts from visual art disciplines. Focusing on statistical quality criteria, these studies successfully validated the questionnaire in terms of item difficulty, capacity for differentiation, test-retest, and inter-rater reliability. Results indicate good to high reliabilities and allow a generalizability to professional and nonprofessional contemporary art. Still, the question of the factor structure remained partly unsolved.

In an initial study (Schoch, Gruber, & Ostermann, 2017), RizbA was constructed based on a theoretical framework of content areas (see Table 2) and empirically tested on a small heterogeneous sample of pictorial works by nonprofessionals. A pool of 113 items

(Schoch, 2014, February 25; Schoch, Gruber, & Ostermann, 2017) was gathered based on art literature, compendia (e.g., Arnheim, 2013; Kandinsky, 1955; Meyer, 2011; Vollmar, 2008), and art therapeutic questionnaires (e.g., Eber, Müller, Bader, & Baukus, 1998; Elbing & Hacking, 2001; Hacking, Foreman, & Belcher, 1996; Stuhler-Bauer & Elbing, 2004). Based on statistical quality criteria it was narrowed down to 26 items. The underlying measurement model was thought of in terms of a formative model. Pictorial expression was – and still is – not seen as a one-dimensional latent variable, but rather a profile of characteristics which complement to the construct. Since there was no quantitative data on formal image analysis by then, *a priori* creating a construct map was hardly possible. A second study (Schoch & Ostermann, 2022) validated the 26-item version on a sample of 294 pictorial works by nonprofessionals from the 21st century. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) resulted in eight factors (see Table 3). In a third study, the instrument was validated on a sample of 318 works dated to the 21st century by professional artists (Schoch & Ostermann, 2020). A PCA also resulted in eight factors which differed slightly from the study (see Table 3).

Seen across the studies, the theoretical framework of content areas from the first study and the PCA results from the second and the third studies differed substantially. The validation studies included iterative discussion processes on art theory with expert groups. Those came to the intriguing conclusion that the empirical PCA solutions do not appropriately reflect art-theoretical categories.

Table 3. Models A, B, and C: assigned items.

Model A empirically based (Schoch & Ostermann, 2022)		Model B empirically based Schoch and Ostermann (2020)		Model C theory-based Schoch, Gruber, and Ostermann (2017)	
Factor label	Items	Factor label	Items	Factor label	Items
<i>Picture effect</i>	18, 19, 24, 25 _r , 26 _r	<i>Picture effect</i>	18, 19, 24, 25 _r , 26 _r	<i>Representation</i>	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
<i>Spatiality</i>	15, 16, 17 _r	<i>Spatiality</i>	15, 16, 17 _r	<i>Color</i>	6, 7, 8, 9
<i>Shaping</i>	10, 11 _r , 12, 13 _r	<i>Shaping</i>	10, 11 _r , 12, 13 _r	<i>Shaping</i>	10, 11, 12, 13, 14
<i>Pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)</i>	1, 2 _r , 5 _r , 14	<i>Pictorial elements (painting)</i>	2, 5, 7 _r , 8	<i>Spatiality</i>	15, 16, 17
<i>Representation</i>	3 _r , 4, 22, 23	<i>Pictorial elements (drawing)</i>	1, 14, 22	<i>Motion</i>	18, 19
<i>Color intensity</i>	6, 9	<i>Representation</i>	3 _r , 4, 23	<i>Composition</i>	20, 21, 22, 23
<i>Color mixture</i>	7 _r , 8	<i>Color intensity</i>	6, 9	<i>Picture effect</i>	24, 25, 26
<i>Composition</i>	20, 21 _r	<i>Composition</i>	20, 21 _r		

r = reversed item with negative factor loading in the previous PCA.

As a hypothesis-based procedure confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in generally it is to be preferred over PCA. Only since the previous studies had no concrete hypothesis on how theoretical factors would empirically manifest, PCA was chosen instead. Ferré (1995) states that from a statistical point of view most methods of PCA are not ideal. However, Mabel, and Olayemi (2020) compare PCA, maximum likelihood estimate (MLE), and principal axis factor analysis (PAFA) and come to the conclusion that overall PCA is the most appropriate procedure. Therefore, the discrepancy between studies might not be based on the procedure but on the current gap between humanities and empirics.

Goal of this study

Previous studies computed a PCA as an exploratory procedure for data reduction to derive a number of components that account for the variability in measures (DeCoster, 1998). This study makes a further inquiry into an underlying factor structure. With reference to the previous three studies, three different models are hypothesized, specified, and empirically tested on another dataset – either based on empirical results or art theory. As a hypothesis-testing procedure, a CFA was conducted to test if there is a sufficient model fit between each hypothesized model and the data (Moosbrugger & Kelava, 2007; Suhr, 2005, 2006). To examine the factors' quality, statistical criteria such as descriptive statistics, normal distribution, internal consistency, and intercorrelations were calculated.

Material and methods

Pictorial material

Referring to previous studies and a *ceteris paribus* assumption, the pictorial stimulus material consisted

of contemporary pictorial works by professional artists and nonprofessionals. The required sample size of images was *a priori* calculated based on statistical guidelines. The sample size regarding images is oriented toward Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) as well as Osborne and Costello (2009), in which a subject to item ratio of at least 10:1 is proposed. As a consequence, a minimum sample size of at least 260 images was calculated to be sufficient for the study.

Artworks by professional artists

The image sample of visual artworks by professional artists was generated using WikiArt (2021) images under Creative Commons Licenses. For the systematic search and retrieval of images and metadata, the Open-Source API for WikiArt (2021) and WikiArt Retriever (Davis, 2018) were used. The data was retrieved in June 2020.

The inclusion criteria for images were determined analogously to the third study as follows: Firstly, as a criterion for being contemporary, a creation date of between 2018 and 2020 had to be specified in the metadata. The WikiArt Retriever (Davis, 2018) code was modified accordingly to retrieve only these works. Secondly, only handmade techniques such as drawings, paintings, collages, and mixed techniques were used. Thirdly, the image had to comprise a complete view. Images showing only a detail of an artwork or an entire exhibition space displaying the artwork were excluded. The resulting sample was reduced to one image per artist, choosing the most recent work of that artist. If several works were dated to the same year, the first one, following alphabetical order was selected. The image selection was done backwards, starting with the most recent works, and then taking into account the above criteria, all appropriate images were selected until the *a priori* calculated number was given.

The final sample of professional contemporary artworks consisted of 143 images who were rated by 179 experts. Images, in which a background around the

actual work was to be seen, were edited using Photos for MacOS (Apple, 2020) and cropped down to show solely the artwork.

Artworks by nonprofessionals

Nonprofessional artworks were collected via a public call, in which nonprofessionals were invited to digitally submit their works. The data was collected during 2020.

Inclusion criteria were determined as follows: Firstly, participants were asked to participate only if they had no professional education in visual arts or previous experience of studying a subject related to visual arts. Secondly, referring to previous studies and *aceteris paribus* assumption only handmade techniques such as drawings, paintings, collages, and mixed techniques were included.

The call was disseminated via a website, e-mail, social media, and particularly in specific Facebook groups with potential suitable participants. For finding such groups, the keywords *visual art* were searched in various languages using DeepL (2020) translator. Additionally, a large set of other keywords were used in English and German language, such as *amateur art*, *hobby art*, *painting*, *drawing*, *international art*, *Black art/ists*, *African American art/ists*, *native American art/ists*, *Korean art/ists*, *Armenian art/ists*, *Vietnamese art/ists*, *ndigenous art/ists*, *Asian art/ists*, *Arabic art/ists*, *Persian art/ists*, *Islamic art/ists*, *Indian art/ists*, *Zambian art/ists*, *South African art/ists* etc.

Potential participants could anonymously submit their image via an upload form using Wordpress (2020) and the plugin Contact Form 7 (Miyoshi, 2020). The instructions were as follows: First, participants were invited to create a two-dimensional picture. They could also use a picture they had already created. Participants could decide on material and size. It was noted that making a submission was not a painting competition and not about creating a particularly “beautiful” picture, but simply about creating. Second, they were asked to take a photo of the picture using a smartphone or digital camera and were provided with tips and photo examples for taking a high-quality picture. Third, they were invited to upload their photo accompanied with information about the picture’s size and artistic material, demographic data, and informed consent.

A total of 139 images were gathered this way. Seven of these were excluded due to not fitting the inclusion criteria or lacking image quality (e.g., resolution, sharpness, picture section). The final sample consisted of 132 images by 132 nonprofessionals (105 female, 25 male, 2 diverse) from 21 to 79 years old ($M = 45.80$, $SD = 15.12$) with a highest educational qualification ranging from

secondary school to PhD. Where necessary, images were edited using Photos for MacOS (Apple, 2020) and the Open Source image editor Gimp (Natterer, Pagès, Kolàs, Budig, & Neumann, 2020). Those, in which a background around the actual work was visible, were cropped down to solely the artwork. Distorted perspective due to a skewed photography was adjusted. A few were brightened up. All images, that fulfilled the inclusion criteria were used in the study.

Final image sample

The final sample ($N = 275$) consists of 143 contemporary artworks by professional artists and 132 pictorial works by nonprofessionals. Both subsamples include international image material from different geographic areas.

Study

Study design

An online study design was chosen using SoSci Survey (Leiner, 2018) with the additional use of PHP elements. In this survey, experts with a professional training related to visual art were asked to rate images using RizbA items. Each rater was presented with six images, randomly chosen from the image sample. Raters were recruited via e-mail, websites, and social media. Among others, the call was posted in 132 social media groups and sent via e-mail to 123 universities and 47 associations in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. The latter were contacted and their professional staff, students, and associates were invited to participate and disseminate the call. No rater training was conducted. As an incentive, vouchers were raffled among participants.

Raters

As a criterion for inclusion and in order to ensure raters were aware of the appropriate terminology, only professionals who had an academic degree related to visual art, or were students who had been studying an art-related subject for at least 1 year were requested to participate. Relevant disciplines included art history, art pedagogy, visual art, art therapy, design, graphic design, art sciences, image sciences, restoration, and others. Regarding the sample size of raters Walter, Eliasziw, and Donner (1998) recommend two or three observations per subject, given $\alpha = .05$ and a required reliability of at least .40. Based on these parameters, the current study aimed at obtaining three raters per picture. Taking into account that each rater had to process six images, this led to an *a priori* calculated sample size of at least 138 raters. The raters were recruited via a digital call that

was distributed via Social Media, website, and newsletter.

Procedure

All images were reduced to a file size of 21–243 KB using Photos for MacOS (Apple, 2020) software to adjust them to SoSci Survey specifications. In the online survey, raters were introduced to the scale and asked to rate each picture consecutively presented to them using all 26 items. For each rater, six images were randomly, successively drawn from a pot, without putting them back. When all the images from the entire picture sample had been rated once, the process started again. The order in which the items were presented was randomized between subjects. Raters could not skip items but were obliged to answer all questions in order to proceed. At the end raters were asked if they had completed the questionnaire carefully.

Statistical analysis

The data was analyzed using R version 4.0.3 and R Studio version 1.3.1093 including the packages psych (Revelle, 2016), readxl (Wickham & Bryan, 2013), car (Fox et al., 2019), lavaan (Rosseel, 2020), pbivnorm (Genz & Kenkel, 2015), and semPlot (Epskamp, Stuber, Nak, Veenman, & Jorgense, 2019). Only complete datasets were used, in which all six images presented were fully processed. Data from prematurely terminated surveys or from raters who stated that they had not completed the questionnaire carefully were excluded. Because each rater assessed only six images out of the entire collection, the dataset inherently included a large number of empty cells. This was due to the fact that it was economically impossible for each rater to rate the whole sample of 275 images. For analyses regarding the items and factors, subjects were therefore randomly merged to new, generic combined raters. Since the primary analysis of unit are the images – not the raters – and the pictorial material was randomly presented to the raters, no systematic biases were assumed in the data due to the merging procedure. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sample of raters in terms of demographic variables, such as self-identified gender, age, and art-related qualification.

Three different path models were specified as hypothetical models. Items were accordingly assigned to the factors (see Table 3):

Model A is empirically based on the second study (Schoch & Ostermann, 2022) resembling the factor structure from the PCA at T1. Items with negative factor loadings were reversed in the model to reflect the differences in loadings of the items. For example,

based on the data of previous studies, item 3 (*The manner of representation is concrete*) is expected to load contrary to item 4 (*The manner of representation is abstract*).

Model B is empirically based on the third study (Schoch & Ostermann, 2020) resembling the factor structure from the PCA at T1. Items with negative factor loadings were reversed in the model.

Model C is theoretically based on the initial study (Schoch, Gruber, & Ostermann, 2017) and resembles the framework of content areas that was *a priori* used for compiling the initial item pool. In comparison to the content areas (*representation, color, shape, space, motion, composition, expression*) the factor labels were adjusted slightly (see Table 3) to reflect the insights gained by expert group evaluations on the tool. No items were reversed.

For each factor of each model, the following analyses were conducted: Descriptive statistics, Shapiro–Wilk normality test, Cronbach’s alpha, and McDonald’s omega were computed. The latter was only computed for factors that consisted of more than two items. For Cronbach’s alpha the interpretation was based on Gliem and Gliem (2003) describing an alpha of .80 as a reasonable goal and George and Mallery (2003) suggesting the following rules of thumb: $\geq .90$ excellent, $\geq .80$ good, $\geq .70$ acceptable, $\geq .60$ questionable, $\geq .50$ poor, and $< .50$ unacceptable. For each model, Pearson product moment correlations between factors were calculated and interpreted based on the usual conventions: .10 small, .30 medium, and .50 large (Cohen, 1992). For inferential statistics, the α level was *a priori* defined to be .05.

For each model, a CFA was conducted using the model syntax by Rosseel (2021). With the factors being latent variables in the regression formula, they were defined by listing their manifest indicators, the items they are hypothesized to be measured by. As recommended by Li (2016) when the normality assumption is slightly or moderately violated, the robust maximum likelihood estimator (MLR) with robust standard errors and a Satorra-Bentler scaled test statistic (Rosseel, 2021) was used. Since there is no previous empirical research and hence no directional hypothesis on the empirical factor structure of pictorial expression, no modification indices were used to adjust the models. The error terms in the models were not allowed to be correlated.

For model C, an additional CFA was computed on a combined dataset of both, the current and the two previous studies (Schoch & Ostermann, 2020, 2022), resulting in a total of 894 images rated using Rizba. This additional analysis was conducted as an explorative approach to investigate if the lack of fitting might result from the sample size. This data was already used in the previous PCAs. This is also

why models A and B were not tested on this previous data, since this would result in a deceptively optimistic overfitting (Fokkema & Greiff, 2017) and be tautological.”

The adequacy of model fit was evaluated using indices as recommended in the corresponding literature (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lorenzo-Seva & Ten Berge, 2006; Moosbrugger & Kelava, 2007; Parry, 2017; Sen, Acar, & Cetinkaya, 2014; Suhr, 2006; Tucker & Lewis, 1973): χ^2 statistics in relation to the degrees of freedom (*df*), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR). Due to the normality assumption being slightly violated for some factors, the robust version of these indices was used. However, χ^2 is sensitive to sample size (Parry, 2017) and within a large sample trivial differences can create a significance (Ullman & Bentler, 2012). These are reasons why χ^2 might not be the best criteria for model fit, especially when used as a single indicator.

We oriented toward the following recommendations on cutoff values to be interpreted as a fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data: Moosbrugger and Kelava (2007) recommend that χ^2/df values between .000 and 2.00 suggest a good and those between 2.01 and 3.00 an acceptable fit. CFI values between .970 and 1.00 imply a good and those between .950 and .969 an acceptable fit. RMSEA values between .000 and .050 can be interpreted as a good, values between .510 and .800 as an acceptable fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend for the ML method cutoff values $\geq .95$ for CFI and TLI, $\leq .06$ for RMSEA – according to Shi, Lee, and Maydeu-Olivares (2019) a RSMEA $\geq .10$ is beyond consideration – and close to .08 for SRMR. Concerning TLI Lorenzo-Seva and Ten Berge (2006) suggest that values in a range of .85–.94 correspond to a fair similarity, while values $\geq .95$ imply that the two components compared can be considered equal.

Results

Raters

A total of 184 raters finished the survey. Data from one rater was excluded from the analysis after they stated that they had not filled out the survey carefully. Data from four more raters were excluded, because they did not meet the inclusion criteria of expertise. The final sample of valid raters consists of 179 experts (159 female, 16 male, 4 diverse) between 22 and 72 years ($M = 37.59$, $SD = 12.51$). All of them have an academic degree in an art-related subject (75.42%) or are at least in their second year of study (24.58%). The disciplines

include art therapy (31.84%), art education (15.64%), art history (13.41%), fine arts (8.94%), art science (5.59%), graphic design (5.59%), restoration (5.03%), design (3.35%), and others (10.61%). Each picture is rated by zero to seven raters ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.39$). One nonprofessional's artwork was unrated and therefore excluded from further analysis.

Factors

The descriptive statistics are reported in Tables 4, 5, and 6. Shapiro–Wilk test yields significant p-values in six of eight factors in model A and B, and in four of seven in model C. Cronbach's alpha ranges between .39 and .91 while McDonald's omega ranges between .45 and .94 (see Table 4, 5, and 6). Intercorrelations between the factors are reported in Tables 7, 8, and 9. CFA factor loadings of Model C are reported in Table 10.

CFA

Models A and B did not converge. Model C (see Figure 1) revealed the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 1299.752$, $df = 278$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .122 (90% CI = .116, .129), CFI = .712, TLI = .679, SRMR = .135 and for the combined dataset of three studies as follows: $\chi^2 = 6860.824$, $df = 278$, $p = .000$, RMSEA = .086 (90% CI = .084, .088), CFI = .740, TLI = .696, SRMR = .084.

Discussion

Previous studies have aimed at exploring the underlying factor structure of RizbA. This paper aims to compare the existing two empirical-based PCA factor models with a theoretical model by means of CFA path models. We were able to show substantial differences between these approaches. Below, some methodological aspects will be discussed, followed by a broader discussion from a content- and art-related perspective.

Rater sample size

Preceding validation studies on RizbA used a large number of 10 to 20 raters per image and resulted in sufficiently high inter-rater agreement and test–retest reliability. This study uses a smaller rater sample. This is both more economic and also sufficient since the instrument has been proven to be reliable in terms of inter-rater agreement and test–retest reliability. In addition, the current investigation concentrates on the image sample as primary unit of analysis rather than intersubjectivity of raters.

Table 4. Model A: descriptive statistics, Shapiro–Wilk test, Cronbach’s alpha, and McDonald’s omega.

Factor	Factor label	Items per factor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	Shapiro-Wilk			Cronbach’s α		McDonald’s ω
							<i>W</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	95% CI		total
										lower bound	upper bound	
1	<i>Picture effect</i>	5	2.15	0.81	0.40	4.60	0.99	0.028	0.88	0.86	0.90	0.92
2	<i>Spatiality</i>	3	2.56	1.06	0.00	4.89	0.99	0.030	0.91	0.89	0.91	0.92
3	<i>Shaping</i>	4	3.02	0.94	0.00	4.75	0.94	0.000	0.88	0.86	0.91	0.94
4	<i>Pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)</i>	4	2.30	0.85	0.25	4.85	0.97	0.000	0.70	0.64	0.75	0.76
5	<i>Representation</i>	4	1.94	0.91	0.25	4.50	0.96	0.000	0.73	0.69	0.78	0.79
6	<i>Color intensity</i>	2	2.47	1.05	0.00	4.50	0.98	0.001	0.68	0.61	0.68	–
7	<i>Color mixture</i>	2	2.95	0.79	0.50	4.75	0.98	0.000	0.39	0.25	0.53	–
8	<i>Composition</i>	2	2.74	1.07	0.50	5.00	0.97	0.000	0.76	0.71	0.82	–

M = mean, *SD* = standard deviation, *Min* = minimum, *Max* = maximum, *W* = Shapiro–Wilk test statistic, *p* = p-value Shapiro–Wilk test, *r* = reliability coefficient Cronbach’s alpha, CI = confidence interval.

Table 5. Model B: descriptive statistics, Shapiro–Wilk test, Cronbach’s alpha, and McDonald’s omega.

Factor	Factor label	Items per factor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	Shapiro-Wilk			Cronbach’s α		McDonald’s ω
							<i>W</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	95% CI		total
										lower bound	upper bound	
1	<i>Picture effect</i>	5	2.15	0.81	0.40	4.60	0.99	0.028	0.88	0.86	0.90	0.92
2	<i>Spatiality</i>	3	2.56	1.06	0.00	4.89	0.99	0.030	0.91	0.80	0.93	0.92
3	<i>Shaping</i>	4	3.02	0.94	0.00	4.75	0.94	0.000	0.88	0.86	0.91	0.94
4	<i>Pictorial elements (painting)</i>	4	2.78	0.70	0.81	4.31	0.98	0.000	0.61	0.54	0.68	0.71
5	<i>Pictorial elements (drawing)</i>	3	3.04	0.79	0.17	4.00	1.00	0.000	0.39	0.27	0.51	0.45
6	<i>Representation</i>	3	2.01	1.19	0.00	4.67	0.93	0.000	0.88	0.85	0.90	0.89
7	<i>Color intensity</i>	2	2.47	1.05	0.00	4.50	0.98	0.001	0.68	0.61	0.76	–
8	<i>Composition</i>	2	2.74	1.07	0.50	5.00	0.97	0.000	0.76	0.71	0.82	–

M = mean, *SD* = standard deviation, *Min* = minimum, *Max* = maximum, *W* = Shapiro–Wilk test statistic, *p* = p-value Shapiro–Wilk test, *r* = reliability coefficient Cronbach’s alpha, CI = confidence interval.

Table 6. Model C: descriptive statistics, Shapiro–Wilk test, Cronbach’s alpha, and McDonald’s omega.

Factor	Factor label	Items per factor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	Shapiro-Wilk			Cronbach’s α		McDonald’s ω
							<i>W</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	95% CI		total
										lower bound	upper bound	
1	<i>Representation</i>	5	2.66	0.42	0.42	1.00	0.99	0.010	0.63	0.56	0.63	0.75
2	<i>Color</i>	4	2.40	0.76	0.08	4.00	0.95	0.000	0.62	0.55	0.62	0.73
3	<i>Shaping</i>	5	2.14	0.40	0.93	3.24	1.00	0.754	0.77	0.72	0.77	0.89
4	<i>Spatiality</i>	3	2.33	0.40	0.38	1.33	0.99	0.472	0.91	0.89	0.91	0.92
5	<i>Motion</i>	2	2.18	1.02	0.00	5.00	0.99	0.009	0.92	0.90	0.92	0.68
6	<i>Composition</i>	4	1.98	0.41	0.25	3.19	0.98	0.002	0.49	0.40	0.49	0.77
7	<i>Picture effect</i>	3	2.53	0.38	1.00	3.67	0.99	0.010	0.75	0.70	0.75	–

M = mean, *SD* = standard deviation, *Min* = minimum, *Max* = maximum, *W* = Shapiro–Wilk test statistic, *p* = p-value Shapiro–Wilk test, *r* = reliability coefficient Cronbach’s alpha, CI = confidence interval.

Table 7. Model A: Pearson product moment correlations between factors.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 <i>Picture effect</i>	–							
2 <i>Spatiality</i>	–0.37**	–						
3 <i>Shaping</i>	–0.05	0.13	–					
4 <i>Pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)</i>	–0.05	–0.18*	–0.04	–				
5 <i>Representation</i>	0.42**	–0.46**	–0.27**	–0.16	–			
6 <i>Color intensity</i>	0.09	0.05	0.03	–0.43**	0.12	–		
7 <i>Color mixture</i>	0.02	0.08	–0.07	–0.33**	0.03	0.00	–	
8 <i>Composition</i>	–0.06	–0.10	0.06	0.02	–0.15	–0.09	0.02	–

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8. Model B: Pearson product moment correlations between factors.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	<i>Picture effect</i>	–							
2	<i>Spatiality</i>	–0.37**	–						
3	<i>Shaping</i>	–0.05	0.13*	–					
4	<i>Pictorial elements (painting)</i>	0.06	0.18*	0.10	–				
5	<i>Pictorial elements (drawing)</i>	–0.05	–0.02*	0.10	–0.36**	–			
6	<i>Representation</i>	0.45**	–0.53**	–0.27**	0.02	–0.22**	–		
7	<i>Color intensity</i>	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.25**	–0.29**	0.11	–	
8	<i>Composition</i>	–0.06	–0.10	0.06	0.02	–0.04	–0.11	–0.09	–

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 9. Model C: Pearson product moment correlations between factors.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	<i>Representation</i>	–						
2	<i>Color</i>	0.29	–					
3	<i>Shaping</i>	0.00	–0.17	–				
4	<i>Spatiality</i>	0.12	0.12	–0.17	–			
5	<i>Motion</i>	0.10	0.13	–0.02	–0.14	–		
6	<i>Composition</i>	0.01	0.18	–0.05	0.20	0.16	–	
7	<i>Picture effect</i>	–0.03	0.11	0.07	0.33	–0.30*	0.11	–

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10. CFA: Model C factor loadings.

Item No.	Item*	RE	CO	SH	SP	MO	COM	PE
1	The picture includes graphic elements	0.289						
2	The picture includes pictorial elements	0.066						
3	The manner of representation is concrete	0.908						
4	The manner of representation is abstract	0.927						
5	The color application is pastose	–0.100						
6	The predominant coloring is vibrant		1.231					
7	In the picture primary colors are prevalent		0.479					
8	In the picture mixed colors (secondary colors) are prevalent		0.244					
9	In the picture there are complementary contrasts		0.380					
10	In the picture organic shapes are prevalent			0.871				
11	In the picture geometric shapes are prevalent			–0.771				
12	The layout of the line is predominantly curved			0.769				
13	The layout of the line is predominantly angled			–0.849				
14	The picture includes unworked areas			0.109				
15	The picture appears to be deep			0.749				
16	The picture is perspectival			0.959				
17	The picture is without perspective (aperspectival)			–0.937				
18	The picture is restless				0.924			
19	The picture is wild				0.925			
20	The global composition is laid out vertically						NA	
21	The global composition is laid out horizontally						NA	
22	The global composition is laid out diagonally						NA	
23	The global composition is laid out area-wide without a main subject (All-Over-Structure)						NA	
24	The picture appears to be diffuse							0.830
25	The picture appears to be precise, accurate							–0.624
26	The picture appears to be harmonic							–0.688

*= original German version see additional material; RE = *Representation*, CO = *Color*, SH = *Shaping*, SP = *Spatiality*, MO = *Motion*, COM = *Composition*, PE = *Picture effect*; Values < .000 not reported; NA = not applicable.

Normal distribution

The Shapiro–Wilk test suggests a violation of normal distribution for several factors for each model. In future studies, a less sensitive test for normal distribution and a larger sample size could be used to further investigate this assumption. However, it is a conservative procedure and there is no theoretical reasoning as to why pictorial expression should not be normally distributed within

a larger sample size. For example, model A’s factors *shaping*, *pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)*, *color intensity*, *color mixture*, and *composition* are not distributed normally in this sample. One reason might be that all images were created on purpose, with the knowledge that they would be shown to others. This applies to the professional artworks uploaded to WikiArt, but also for those willingly contributed by nonprofessionals. This

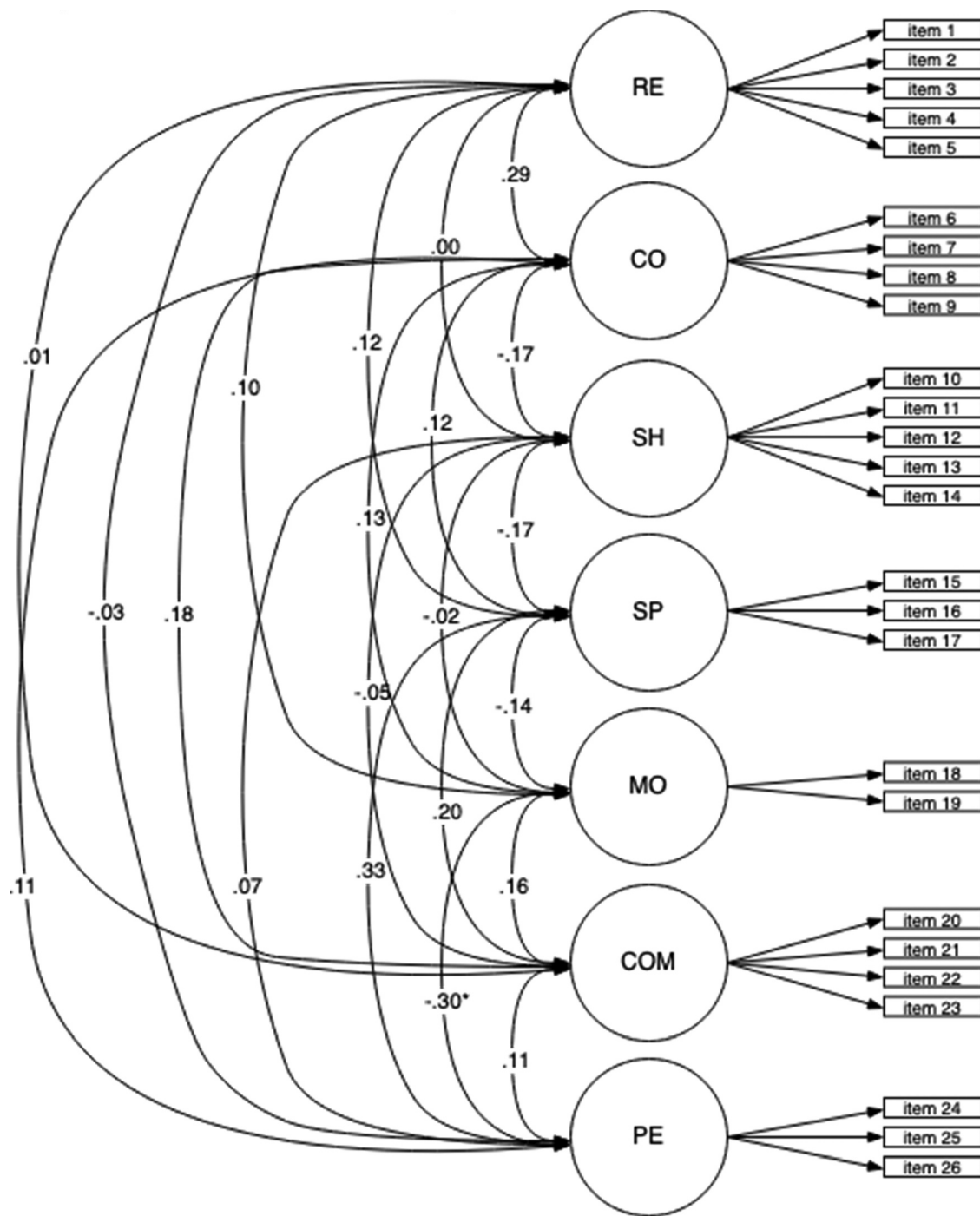


Figure 1. CFA: path model C with intercorrelations between factors. RE = Representation, CO = Color, SH = Shaping, SP = Spatiality, MO = Motion, COM = Composition, PE = Picture effect

might result in a tendency toward more colored or elaborately shaped pictures, while the representation is still balanced between abstract and representational and therefore normally distributed. For testing this rationale, random pictures could be included, e.g., images that are not even considered to be artworks such as scribbles on slips of paper.

Internal consistency

Models A and B provide better internal consistency within factors than model C. For model A Cronbach's alpha can be interpreted as excellent for the factor *spatiality*, good for *picture effect* and *shaping*, and acceptable for *pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)*, *representation*, and *composition*. However, the reliability is to

be seen questionable for *color intensity* and unacceptable for *color mixture*. Analogously, results from model B suggest excellent reliability for the factor *spatiality*. Also, it can be interpreted as good not only for *picture effect* and *shaping*, but also for *representation*. *Composition* yields acceptable, while *pictorial elements (painting)* and *color intensity* only show poor, and *pictorial elements (drawing)* even unacceptable reliability. Regarding model C, the factor *spatiality* again suggests excellent reliability along with *motion*. *Shaping* and *picture effect* are acceptable, *representation* and *color* questionable, while *composition* is unacceptable. McDonald's omega implicates similar if not even higher internal consistencies within factors. These results could not be expected a priori. Theory on pictorial expression is based in humanities and lacks empirical data so far. Thus, there is no concrete hypothesis on how the construct will numerically manifest in the factor structure.

Intercorrelations

The following factors show intercorrelations: Within model A *spatiality* negatively correlates with *picture effect* and *pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)*. Representation is related to *picture effect* and negatively to *spatiality* and *shaping*. *Color intensity* and *color mixture* both negatively correlate with *pictorial elements (drawing vs. painting)*. Within model B *spatiality* correlates with *shaping*, *pictorial elements (painting)*, and *pictorial elements (drawing)* as well as negatively with *picture effect*. Representation is related with a variety of other factors: with *picture effect* and negatively with *spatiality*, *shaping*, and *pictorial elements (drawing)*. Also, *color intensity* is associated with *pictorial elements (painting)* and negatively with *pictorial elements (drawings)*, which correlates to a painting being more likely to be color intensive than a drawing. Within model C factors are less related. Only *picture effect* and *motion* show medium correlations.

Factor structure

Models A and B do not provide model fit indices. For model C, all indices yield values beneath the cutoff points associated with an acceptable fit. Only when tested on the combined data of all three studies, does SRMR suggest an acceptable to good model fit. However, none of the hypothesized models provides a factor model with a thoroughly good or acceptable fit – neither empirically nor theory-based. As an exploratory approach, we conducted an *a posteriori* card sorting test with art experts to generate further

theory-based models. For this purpose, art experts (i.e., master students, PhD students, and one professor) were each asked without any previous knowledge on the tested models to order the 26 items according to their theory which items would make up a factor. When the plausible models were tested with a CFA they converged – in comparison to the empirically based models A and B – but still did not provide a good model fit. It can be assumed that the theory-based models are more likely to fit than the empirically based models, based on PCAs. There are a number of possible reasons, which we will discuss below.

First, a sample of 275 observations (images) – 894 in case of the combined dataset – and 26 variables (items) might still not be large enough to map a factor structure, since CFA is a large sample procedure. According to Shi, Lee, and Maydeu-Olivares (2019) a sample of 200 observations only provides a reasonable estimate for CFI and TLI when the number of observed variables is less than 30.

Second, the CFA does not reflect results of preceding PCAs although the sample consisted of a similar sample. This might be due to differences in the calculation of both procedures. Also, the PCA solutions suppressed factor loadings under .40. This is a common practice and if these solutions were stable, a similar structure might be found in the CFA. The fact that these models do not converge could indicate that the solution is not stable across art. This suggests that measurement of pictorial expression is even more extensive and complicated than anticipated and there might not be a stable global solution.

Third, there is a methodical gap between empirics and theory when it comes to formal image analysis. Pictorial expression in terms of a formal image analysis might be an even more complex construct than assumed. It is possible that there is no underlying factor structure analogous to psychological constructs, such as personality or intelligence. Or possibly the underlying factor is not stable across a larger range of artworks. To gain insight, we have to dive deeper into the various perspectives on image analysis, of which the perspectives addressed below represent only a glimpse of the field.

One established method for image analysis is the *iconographic-iconological method*, which Panofsky (1978, 2006) abstracted to a theoretical model (Eberlein, 2008). It suggests three stages: First, the *pre-iconographic description* determines the primary or natural subject and identifies the objects presented in an image. It requires a rudimentary knowledge of style history as a corrective principle for

understanding the image objects as an artistic motive. As an example Eberlein (2008) uses Friedrich Dürer's *Melencolia I*, which today might be interpreted as a grumpy angel in the midst of stuff; however, familiarity with the basic art principles from 1514 would anticipate a personification and a symbolic meaning of the objects. Second, the *iconographic analysis*, which uses historical sources and type history to unveil underlying themes and ideas. Third, the *iconological interpretation* examines the actual meaning and content, instrumentalizing the time difference between artwork and interpreter. It refers to Ernst Cassirer's philosophy of symbolic forms, representing the idea that humans no longer live in a merely natural universe, but experience the world via language, myth or religion, and art. If we consider *pre-iconographic* description not only in motives but also in shapes, there is a parallel to RizbA. However, the *iconographic-iconological method* decrypts images based on historical contextualization, implying that an artwork can never be detached from its historical context. RizbA leaves aside all historical aspects of the epoch artworks stem from, which might be one missing piece of the big picture when measuring art.

Another missing piece might be argued from the perspective of a *reception aesthetics* approach (Kemp, 1988), which suggests that every artwork provides a receptive function. The way art encounters the viewer depends on the way the viewer approaches the art: responding and acknowledging the viewer's effort. Reception aesthetics is oriented toward the artwork and is in search of an implicit viewer, a viewer function in the artwork. Each image is addressed to someone, framing its recipient, and discloses two sorts of information: It speaks about its place and impact in society. And it speaks about itself. Consequently, reception aesthetics has (at least) three tasks: Firstly, it has to recognize the means by which the artwork gets in touch with us and read them with regard to secondly, their social-historical, and thirdly, their actual aesthetic statement. In summary, recipient and artwork are not clinically pure and isolated entities. Although RizbA does not explicitly address internal psychological processes, the items summarized as *picture effect* refer to those. However, the described lack of pure constructs might be another note on a potential nonexistence of a stable factor solution.

RizbA is initially based on the framework of phenomenological image analysis seeking to overcome judgment, preconception, and association (Streb, 1984), while being aware that there is no such thing as absolute objectivity. It is rather a process of reflecting on

one's own perceptions. Modern phenomenology goes back to Edmund Husserl and is interested in phenomena (things, objects) and how they present themselves as perceived experiences (Betensky, 1991). Husserl postulates that an artwork possesses an invisible space that belongs to the picture and is opposed to the space, that can be grasped by experience (Uzelac, 1998). The part of an artwork that cannot be grasped might be another missing piece that may not be objectively measurable.

Finally, Bockemühl (1989) argues that analogies of the artwork as sender and the eye as receiver are too simplistic. Art makes the flow of information rather complicated and denies a final statement. It creates a reality of its own, in which only the combination of the creator's hand and the creative power of the eye lead to the artwork, e.g., Mark Rothko's colorfield paintings that slowly arise by looking at them. An image is an open system, that never offers an exhaustive interpretation. We have no choice but to accept certain limits and that analysis only captures a part – even though it is indispensable – of artistic reality. When dealing with art, one seems to be pushed into subjectivism. There might only be one escape: reducing the statement of art to a pure informational level and excluding further questions that might be – how as (Bockemühl, 1989) drastically states it – non-scienceable.

Limitations

The professional art images were retrieved from WikiArt (2021), a shared knowledge database. Unfortunately the accompanying metadata lacks the artists' self-identified gender or other diversity indicators (Nishikawa-Pacher, Heck, & Schoch, 2021). Thus, it was not possible to compute demographics to ensure heterogeneity and diversity of the image sample. The works by nonprofessionals were gathered via a call using social media. Open Science advocates justifiably criticize commercial platforms' nontransparent algorithms and problematic data protection. Nevertheless, in this study, Facebook groups were used since they offer an efficient way to reach specific target groups. The search mechanisms do not provide a systematic search function. Its results are biased toward the user's language and region, hence toward English and German speakers.

In the online survey image sizes were rather small, in order to meet the SoSci Survey's (Leiner, 2018) maximum upload capacity and to make sure images load fast enough. Also, the raters viewed the images on their own devices, which might result in a different display of color and resolution. Using a higher resolution, a different rating experience may be expected, especially when original works instead of digital copies are used. This is particularly

true if we are to follow art theories (e.g., Panofsky, 1978, 2006), who claim that an artwork cannot be completely comprehensible if it is detached from its context. Due to the large number of images that needed to be rated, this point was waived.

For one of the nonprofessional artworks, data are missing. This lack of ratings is due to the fact that only complete datasets were used and none of the experts, who rated this particular image finished the survey. However, it can be assumed that these values are missing at random and the sample size is still within sufficient size.

As with other art psychology research, this approach includes features of Eurocentrism and Americanism, in particular in three aspects: underlying art theory, available image material, and raters. First, the underlying theory on image analysis stems from European theorists and a particular way of thinking. Although these paradigms have been dominant in art history, they are by no means the only valid perspectives on art. Second, WikiArt (2021) provides a variety of international professional art, follows a knowledge equity policy, and allows not only established institution to contribute, but also the public (Marengo, Fazekas, & Tombros, 2017). Nevertheless, with a marginalization of other artists, the overall ratio of images still overrepresents European and Northern American artists. Within the sample of nonprofessional artworks, we aimed for an international sample. But the call in English and German must be seen as a barrier to participation for people who speak neither nor. Third, the current questionnaire and survey were in German. Thus, the majority of experts stemmed from Germany, Austria, or Switzerland.

Implications

To illustrate how artworks manifest in RizbA scores, Table 11 provides examples of how high, medium, or low factor scores can be represented in particular artworks. For example, stimulus DZ scores low on *representation* while JR results in a medium to high score. Stimulus AU scores as small as possible on *motion* whereas stimulus HX represents a high score. This visualizes how each artwork can manifest differently on the various factor levels and result in a distinct profile of pictorial attributes, i.e., two images that score equally high on one factor, might still look quite different.

One of the main findings of RizbA research are the concurrent similarities and discrepancies between theory and data. A comparison of the theoretical content areas and the data-driven factors indicates a shift in the meaning of the dimensions. While the content areas are determined by formal features, the factors rather describe a certain atmosphere that results from these

features. However, the factor labels still apply albeit with a modified substance.





As the first reliable, validated measurement RizbA allows researchers to not only capture psychological and physiological variables, but also the artwork itself. For example, which formal elements make viewers appreciate art? Is it representation, color mixture, or shaping? Is it easier for an audience distant from art to appreciate Van Gogh's works, rather than connecting to contemporary art by Firelei Báez? Since there are correlations between art preferences, thinking styles, and personality (Gridley, 2006, 2013; Silvia & Nusbaum, 2011) these could be investigated in more depth. For example, an attitude of openness to experience positively correlates with a liking for abstract art (Gridley, 2013). But are individuals with higher scores on openness also more likely to create abstract art, when given the opportunity? More examples of how RizbA enhances art psychological methodology is extensively discussed in previous publications (e.g., Schoch & Ostermann, 2020, 2022; Schoch, Gruber, & Ostermann, 2017). However, besides offering a reliable measurement, no stable factor solution for pictorial expression could be found.

Bockemühl (1989) cites a tilt figure as an example for various perspectives on one and the same object, which cannot be perceived simultaneously. He states that esthetics, if seen as a practical category, cannot be dealt with solely by logic. This might also be an analogy to analyzing art: It is highly ambiguous, refers to various levels, and offers numerous perspectives of analysis. Perhaps a model simplification, as used in quantitative research alone is insufficient to capture artworks.

Practical implications of the instrument, as described in detail by Schoch and Ostermann (2022), could be documenting and evaluating art therapeutical and art educational processes. By using RizbA in addition to established psychometric tests, pictorial processes can be quantitatively and objectively captured, which can provide more insight into a person's psyche. While the items are validated and safe to use, it is not recommended to use the scales until there is empirical proof of factor structure with a sufficient model fit. On the other side, there are applications the instrument is not meant to be used for. This includes a direct diagnostic conclusion from images to the creator's psychological state. RizbA is not a projective method and such conclusions would be highly speculative and inappropriate. Also, RizbA is not designed as a performance test to judge mastery or alleged quality of art works.

RizbA measures pictorial expression, not psychological variables. Of course, psychological constructs (e.g., personality, clinical diagnoses) are hypothesized to correlate with pictorial expression. This is why further studies investigate

Table 11. Model C: image examples with factor scores.

Stimulus	Factor score							
	RE	CO	SH	SP	MO	COM	PE	
DZ (anonymous)		1.55	2.19	1.35	2.08	2.38	2.12	1.50
JR (Kinsley, 2020)		3.45	2.81	2.000	3.08	1.00	2.19	2.92
AU (anonymous)		2.70	3.88	2.00	2.83	0.00	2.62	2.50
HX (Grant, 2018)		2.68	3.40	1.96	2.20	4.50	2.45	2.13

RE = Representation, CO = Color, SH = Shaping, SP = Spatiality, MO = Motion, COM = Composition, PE = Picture effect.

correlates with psychological variables, e.g., geriatric delirium (Masuch et al., 2023), recurrent depression (Epstein, 2019), chronic pain (Janßen, 2018), and development in terms of stages of child drawings (Ladegast, 2020). Still, more empirical evidence is needed on how psychological constructs might manifest in artworks.

Future research

First of all, the theory-based model C should be tested on an even larger dataset of several thousands of images, in order to discover whether a stable solution can be found. Ideally, each of these images would be rated by a large sample of raters. Moreover, further postdisciplinary research is needed to evolve a larger theoretical

model of image analysis that does justice to art. Finding substantial differences between theory and empirics would fuel the discourse between arts, humanities, and science described by Mersch (2019) and other theorists. Only by bringing those perspectives together, might we one day be able to empirically and globally capture art.

A next step is validating the English translation of the questionnaire to provide a reliable scale. Other language versions could be translated and validated as well. This would lay the foundation to recruit raters and data from other regions and contexts in order to put the Eurocentric view into perspective. Further validation of other image samples should be pursued, such as non-handmade techniques, images created by children and adolescents and in particular by creators from all geographical regions and

origins. Further studies could be multi-centered, collaborating with experts from different regions adding a critical view on Eurocentrism (Mosquera, 1992). Other approaches on art should be included in research on image analysis, such as from Africa, Asia, Oceania, Central, and Southern America, not in colonial continuities, but as equally valid points of view. Going further, those future research projects should not only include academic theories on how to analyze art, but also knowledge, that has traditionally been excluded from previous research, such as emic indigenous perspectives of art.

Further validation should focus on convergent and divergent validity. This is in particular challenging since quantitative measures of art that fulfill quality criteria of psychometric test construction are rare. One of these would be the Assessment of Art Attributes (Chatterjee, Widick, Sternschein, Smith, & Bromberger, 2010; Penn Center for Neuroaesthetics, 2019).

Conclusion

A reliable intersubjective measurement of pictorial expression is possible using RizbA. However, no stable factor structure with an acceptable model fit throughout could be found. Comparing the models, model A and B yield higher internal consistencies than model C. The factors of model C correlate less with each other than those of model A and B. Nevertheless, model C is the only one with a converging model during a CFA that might provide a good model fit within a larger image sample. It may just as well be, that unlike inherent psychological variables, for the construction of pictorial expression there is no stable factor structure that is globally valid over all sorts and levels of art. Art is highly ambiguous, refers to various levels and offers numerous perspectives of analysis. Perhaps a model simplification, as we use it in quantitative empirics alone, is insufficient. Further postdisciplinary research is needed to evolve a larger theoretical model of image analysis that does justice to the subject. Only by this might we one day be able to globally capture art.

Studies show that RizbA is able to reliably measure pictorial expression. Going a step further, this study revealed intriguing differences between empirics and art theory. Leder, Gerger, Dressler, and Schabmann (2012) might be right – at least for today's perspective – when they stated that art is a mysterious aspect of human experience. In short: It is complicated and yet a promising starting point for future research on art that should think postdisciplinarily.

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Ethics approval

The authors received a positive vote of the Ethics Committee for Creative Arts Therapies at the Nürtingen-Geislingen University, Germany (Reference number 19C27J101W).

Abbreviations

API	Application programming interface
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
<i>df</i>	Degrees of freedom
MLE	Maximum likelihood estimate
MLR	Robust maximum likelihood estimator
PAFA	Principal axis factor analysis
PCA	Principal component analysis
PHP	PHP: Hypertext Preprocessor
RizbA	(Rating instrument for two-dimensional pictorial works) Ratinginstrument für zwei-dimensionale bildnerische Arbeiten
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SRMR	Standardized root-mean-square residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

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Appendix

Open Data and Open Methodology

All material is available under a CC-BY 4.0 license as Open Data (image sample, metadata, ratings) and Open Methodology (SoSci Survey structure including PHP code for randomization and drawing, WordPress plugin Contact Form 7 code, R script):

Schoch, K. (2021, July 21). Empirics vs. art theory: Exploring a factor structure of pictorial expression based on contemporary artworks. Open Science Framework. <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/JNZ67>

A paper-pencil-version version of RizbA is available as Open Methodology under a CC-BY 4.0 license:

Schoch, K. (2020, April 24). Ratinginstrument für zweidimensionale bildnerische Arbeiten (RizbA): Fragebogen mit Erläuterungen in deutscher Sprache [Rating instrument for two-dimensional pictorial works (RizbA): Questionnaire with explanatory notes in German]. Zenodo. <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2530859>

Table A1. RizbA original German version

No.	Item
1	Das Bild enthält zeichnerische Elemente
2	Das Bild enthält malerische Elemente
3	Die Darstellungsweise ist gegenständlich
4	Die Darstellungsweise ist abstrakt
5	Der Farbauftrag ist pastos
6	Die vorherrschende Farbgebung ist leuchtend
7	Im Bild befinden sich vorwiegend reine Farben
8	Im Bild befinden sich vorwiegend Mischfarben (Sekundärfarben)
9	Im Bild sind Komplementärkontraste vorhanden
10	Im Bild enthaltene Formen sind vorwiegend organisch
11	Im Bild enthaltene Formen sind vorwiegend geometrisch
12	Die Linienführung verläuft vorwiegend gebogen
13	Die Linienführung verläuft vorwiegend eckig
14	Das Bild enthält unbearbeitete Flächen
15	Das Bild wirkt tief
16	Das Bild ist perspektivisch
17	Das Bild ist frei von Perspektive (aperspektivisch)
18	Das Bild ist unruhig
19	Das Bild ist wild
20	Die Gesamtkomposition ist senkrecht angelegt
21	Die Gesamtkomposition ist waagrecht angelegt
22	Die Gesamtkomposition ist diagonal angelegt
23	Die Gesamtkomposition ist flächendeckend ohne Hauptmotiv (All-Over-Structure)
24	Das Bild wirkt diffus
25	Das Bild wirkt präzise, exakt
26	Das Bild wirkt harmonisch