

The aesthetic experience of interior spaces with curvilinear boundaries and various space properties in immersive and desktop-based virtual environments

Abstract

The study aims to investigate participants' aesthetic experience in response to environments with curvilinear boundaries that are presented in two different virtual environments (VEs), namely immersive (IVE) and desktop-based virtual environments (DTVE). To this end, 60 participants were presented with 360-degree 32 VE visualizations that had either horizontal or vertical curvilinear boundaries and possessed various architectural properties (size/ light/ texture/ color) using a head-mounted display and a desktop computer. The aesthetic experience in response to these visualizations was measured in terms of the three key dimensions identified in a previous study (Elver Boz et al., 2022): familiarity, excitement, and fascination. In addition, participants' sense of presence in the two different environments was measured. The results show that familiarity and excitement dimensions were significantly higher in IVE than in DTVE, whereas the two environments did not significantly differ from each other in terms of the fascination dimension. As for the boundary types, the familiarity dimension was significantly higher in horizontal curvilinear boundaries than in vertical ones. In contrast, excitement and fascination dimensions were significantly higher in vertical curvilinear boundaries than in horizontal ones. The only dimension that showed an interaction between boundary types and the type of virtual environment was excitement. Finally, IVE induced a higher presence feeling than DTVE. Overall, results suggest that people's aesthetic experiences toward built environments change as a function of the boundary types and the medium they are presented with these environments and that different dimensions of the aesthetic experience are affected differently by these variables.

Keywords: Aesthetic experience, Architectural variables, Virtual reality, Immersive virtual environments, Desktop-based virtual environments

26 **1. Introduction**

27 With the development of virtual reality (VR) technology, the awareness of virtual built
28 environment systems increased rapidly. The game industry and the education, design,
29 architecture, and construction sectors have used this technology dynamically. When applied to
30 a built environment, the most significant feature of VR is its ability to provide users with a
31 sense of immersion and presence. The idea of VR systems in physical environments is to depict
32 and look like architectural environments that do not exist in reality (Bertol, 1997; Obeid &
33 Demirkan, 2023). It enables designers to examine the environment in many aspects before
34 construction.

35 VR systems include many components in one area, such as a three-dimensional (3D)
36 model, displays, interaction devices, and software (Paes et al., 2023). There are many types to
37 express the 3D model, which can be immersive or non-immersive. With the development of
38 new technologies, many scholars have recently investigated human perception and presence
39 factors in immersive and non-immersive environments (Paes et al., 2017; Paes et al., 2021; Paes
40 et al., 2023). The immersive virtual environments represent the high-end system; while sensors
41 follow the operator's actions in the real world, the display collects stereoscopic views of a
42 model. The non-immersive virtual environments represent the low-end system. The display
43 mode provides monoscopic views of a digital model, and interaction devices are limited to easy-
44 to-use equipment (e.g., mouse and keyboard) (Bertol, 1997; Obeid & Demirkan, 2023). While
45 the immersive stereoscopic display, such as head-mounted equipment, enables a complete
46 virtual reality experience (Castruccio et al., 2019), the non-immersive monoscopic display, such
47 as a computer screen, provides a vision that only presents a virtual representation (Woods et
48 al., 2003). Therefore, aesthetic perception differences between the two environments can be
49 observed in the designed virtual environments. This study investigates the relationship between

50 immersive and non-immersive perception and presence in curvilinear boundaries with various
51 space properties in the virtual environment.

52 **2. Literature review**

53 **2.1. Architectural Aesthetic Experience**

54 Many studies emphasized that architecture's aesthetic qualities greatly impact people's
55 cognitive judgment, emotional wellness, and behavior patterns (Adams, 2014; Cooper et al.,
56 2014; Fischl & Garling, 2004; Gorichanaz et al., 2023; Gifford, 2002; Hartig, 2008; Joye, 2007;
57 Lochner et al., 2010). In the literature, several theoretical models specify various components
58 in explaining the importance of architectural aesthetic experience (Chatterjee & Vartanian,
59 2014, 2016; Coburn et al., 2017, 2020; Elver Boz et al., 2022; Hekkert, 2006; Leder et al., 2004;
60 Weinberger et al., 2021, 2022).

61 Firstly, Chatterjee (2013) questioned the relationship between aesthetics and art and
62 described the aesthetic experience as a triad composed of sensations, emotions, and meaning.
63 Chatterjee and Vartanian's (2014) characterization of the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral
64 elements provides a more holistic approach in the aesthetic field. Later, Coburn et al. (2017)
65 explained how the aesthetic triad created for aesthetic experiences can be applied to the
66 neuroscience of architecture and frame the human aesthetic experiences in architecture.

67 Furthermore, Coburn et al. (2020) investigated the key psychological components of
68 architectural experience (coherence/ fascination/hominess) in a psychological framework
69 rooted in the aesthetic triad (Chatterjee & Vartanian, 2014, 2016). Concerning this
70 psychological framework, the study utilized sixteen aesthetic adjective scales that capture
71 essential aspects of architectural experience. These scales are complexity, organization,
72 naturalness, beauty, personalness, interest, modernity, valence stimulation, vitality, comfort,
73 relaxation, hominess, uplift, approachability, and explorability. Their study identified three key

74 aesthetic components: “(1) coherence; the ease with which one organizes and comprehends a
75 scene, (2) fascination; a scene's informational richness and generated interest; and (3)
76 hominess; the extent to which a scene reflects a personal space.” (p.231). The coherence
77 component was associated with organization, modernity, and beauty scales, the fascination
78 component with explorability, complexity, interest, and stimulation, and the hominess
79 component with naturalness, personalness, relaxation, hominess, and comfort. Coburn et al.
80 (2020) also showed how these key components could be matched with neural activity.

81 In the literature, there are studies related to interior and exterior architectural space
82 variables using the three aesthetic key components in evaluating the architectural responses of
83 the participants. In Coburn et al. (2020) study, they investigated the real interior images
84 comprised of ceiling height, enclosure, and curvature as space variables. Likewise, Chatterjee
85 et al. (2021) investigated the perceived ceiling height, enclosure, and contour of architectural
86 interiors as the space variables of architectural interiors with the same sixteen aesthetic
87 adjective scales. In the Weinberger et al. (2021) study, the same sixteen adjectives were applied
88 to different subtypes of exterior architecture and natural landscapes using the Vessel et al.
89 (2018) visual images. In all three studies, the key aesthetic components, coherence, fascination,
90 and hominess, explained the aesthetic responses of participants.

91 Also, some studies investigated the impact of individual differences in evaluating the
92 aesthetic experience of the participants using the three key components. Vartanian et al. (2021)
93 investigated the perceived ceiling height, enclosure, and contour of architectural interiors with
94 participants having individual differences. They found that coherence was the only key
95 component for design students. However, for participants with autism spectrum disorder,
96 preference for architectural interiors was driven by key components of hominess and coherence.
97 Weinberger et al. (2022) investigated the differences in responses to aesthetic key components
98 among expert and novice design professionals. They found that expertise affects the

99 interrelatedness of the three aesthetic components. Also, the coherence component of design
100 experts was more strongly associated with fascination and hominess components and had a
101 greater influence on their overall aesthetic experience.

102 Elver Boz et al. (2022) studied an extensive and empirically driven model that describes
103 human aesthetic experience for built environments. Their study mainly investigated the
104 significant dimensions of aesthetic experience and how these dimensions affect different
105 properties of the built environment. Instead of fully designed real environment images, they
106 created 3D 360-degree simulations of different architectural variables in order not to lose
107 controlling factors with other elements (e.g., the furniture shape, color, and arrangement, the
108 window openings and sunlight effect, and the compositions of the mural) study conducted with
109 a space. By leveraging virtual reality, they systematically manipulated various space variables
110 (curvilinear boundaries and four space properties: size, light, texture, and color). Their studies
111 emphasized that three dimensions of aesthetic scale, which are (1) familiarity, (2) excitement,
112 and (3) fascination, identified the aesthetic experiences in spaces with curved boundaries and
113 different architectural characteristics. The findings reveal that three key aesthetic dimensions
114 had different relationships between architectural spaces with curved boundaries.

115 Elver Boz et al. (2022) described three key aesthetic dimensions as follows: Familiarity is
116 *“How pleased, satisfied or relaxed one feels in an environment, how safe and coherent they*
117 *think the environment looks, and how they would like to behave in this environment such as*
118 *whether they would like to spend time or enjoy exploring.”* (p.10); excitement is *“How excited,*
119 *frenzied, jittery or contended one feels in an environment.”* (p.10); fascination is *“How*
120 *mysterious or complex an environment looks or how stimulated one feels in that environment.”*
121 (p.10).

122 Also, these three aesthetic dimensions are compatible with Chatterjee and Vartanian’s
123 (2014) cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements of the triad model. However, two main

124 differences exist between Elver Boz et al. (2022) and Coburn et al.'s (2020) studies. The first
125 is that the parameters of the built environments are different. Chatterjee et al.'s (2021) and
126 Coburn et al.'s (2020) study involved the perceived enclosure (open or closed), ceiling height
127 (high or low), and contour (round or square) levels of the furnished built environment. Elver
128 Boz et al.'s (2022) study systematically involves only the built environment variables
129 (curvilinear boundaries and four space properties: size, light, texture, and color). The second
130 is that the key dimensions of the aesthetic adjectives are formed differently.

131 **2.2. Virtual Environments in Architectural Design**

132 Much research investigates people's responses between virtual and real environments by
133 comparing cognitive judgment, emotional well-being, and behavioral approaches. De Kort et
134 al. (2003) found that behavioral experience in virtual environments is similar to that in real
135 environments. However, there are also modest significant differences in environmental
136 evaluations, such as height perception of a room. Based on the quantitative result, Kuliga et al.
137 (2015) found few statistically significant differences in user experience between real and virtual
138 building model ratings. However, based on the qualitative results, the "atmospherics" ratings
139 showed substantial significance for each environment. The study uses the meaning of the
140 atmospherics as a holistic approach of interesting, warm, inviting, decorated, varied, complex,
141 and attractive adjectives. The main idea of the study reveals that using VR as a research tool in
142 architecture and psychology has a strong potential. Besides, Brade et al. (2017) emphasized that
143 virtual and real environment presence and user experience features were associated. The idea
144 of the Brade et al. (2017) study indicates that VE can be an alternative to the real environment
145 for the user when a high presence is realized. Higuera-Trujillo et al. (2017) analyzed simulated
146 (photographs, 360-degree scenes, and VR) and real (physical setup) environment relationships
147 with the help of psychological and physiological user responses and sense of presence. The
148 findings reveal that while VR simulations tend to obtain the closest to reality according to

149 physiological measurements, 360-degree panoramas provide the closest to reality according to
150 psychological outcomes.

151 Moreover, Chamilothon et al. (2018) investigated daylight perception in real and virtual
152 environments. The study's prior aspects are pleasantness, interest, excitement, complexity, and
153 satisfaction. The study shows no significant differences between these environments in
154 perceptual accuracy. They reported that using VR methods in architectural studies seems
155 promising for use as a surrogate for real environments.

156 **2.3. Immersive Virtual Environment (IVE) and Desktop-based Virtual Environment** 157 **(DTVE)**

158 VR is the technology that immerses a person into a three-dimensional, simulated digital
159 environment. As Sherman and Craig (2003) stated, VR allows users to feel, perceive, and
160 immerse the space as if in an existing environment by imitating the architectural environment.
161 Therefore, users' emotions and actions are consistent with those in the real environment.
162 Adapting various space properties such as size, light, texture, and color of the boundaries of
163 that environment increases the user's sense of space within the created environment. Using
164 various properties enriches the experience by enhancing engagement and meaning for the
165 viewer more than a three-dimensional space. In the virtual environment, increasing user
166 sensations, feelings, and emotions in that space is related to making sense of the created
167 environment.

168 In the literature, many examples of virtual environments can be experienced using
169 immersive displays (e.g., head-mounted displays (HMD)) or non-immersive displays (e.g.,
170 desktop computers). In each virtual environment, the participants could have different
171 experiences and results based on the spatial characteristics of the virtual environment. Paes et
172 al. (2017) compared spatial user perception and presence between an immersive virtual
173 environment and a non-immersive traditional (conventional workstation) virtual environment.

174 Results indicate that users perceived different features of the created space more accurately than
175 the conventional virtual environment. The study concludes that better spatial perception is
176 provided with the help of an immersive environment. Paes et al. (2021) also compared
177 perception and presence between immersive (HMD), non-immersive (laptop monitor) virtual
178 environments, and physical environments (real environment). The result of the study showed
179 that immersive VR systems provide a greater presence than non-immersive ones. Also, an
180 immersive system provides a more immersive experience, benefits collaborative design review,
181 and increases productivity. Paes et al. (2023) investigated the relationship between perception
182 and presence findings in non-immersive and immersive virtual environments. The study
183 investigated whether three-dimensional perception affects users' presence level in VE. The
184 results of the study indicate no association between presence and perception.

185 The level of presence score is not related to the display mode of the 3D model. According
186 to the study, incorporating advanced stereoscopic visualization techniques may be optional
187 while creating a 3D model of the built environment. Shu et al. (2019) investigate whether VR
188 appears or feels different to users when different virtual environments (HMD and desktop-
189 based) are used in terms of sense of presence. As a result, users indicated a higher sense of
190 spatial presence and immersion while using VR HMD than desktop VR.

191 The present study investigates whether a VE (immersive virtual environment-IVE and
192 desktop-based virtual environment-DTVE) affects the aesthetic experience dimensions of the
193 participants in curvilinear space boundaries with different architectural properties (size, light,
194 texture, and color). The study also intends to analyze the effects of IVE and DTVE on
195 participants' sense of presence. Participants rated these VEs based on the findings of Elver Boz
196 et al.'s (2022) research that defined the three dimensions of aesthetic experience: familiarity,
197 excitement, and fascination.

198 The related research questions (RQ) are posed:

199 RQ 1. What are the aesthetic experience dimensions associated with virtual environments (VEs)
200 and curvilinear boundaries with various architectural properties of interior spaces?

201 RQ 1a. Is there a difference in aesthetic experience dimensions based on VEs of interior
202 spaces?

203 RQ 1b. Is there a difference in aesthetic experience dimensions based on curvilinear
204 boundaries with various architectural properties of interior spaces?

205 RQ 2. Does interaction between VEs and curvilinear boundaries with various architectural
206 properties affect the aesthetic experience dimensions of interior spaces?

207 RQ 3. Is there a difference in presence based on VEs of interior spaces?

208 RQ 4. Do aesthetic experience dimensions have an impact on the presence scores in VE?

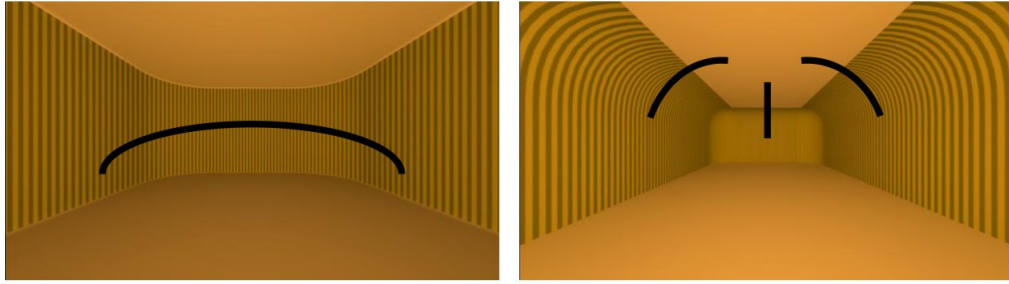
209 **3. Method**

210 **3.1. Participants**

211 XXXXXXXX University Institutional Ethical Review Board approved this study (No:
212 2018_01_18_04). All the participants signed the informed consent form that stated the purposes
213 of the study and explained the participants' involvement as well as the risk and emergency
214 procedures. Based on a priori G* Power F-test analysis (Faul et al., 2009) for ANOVA:
215 Repeated measures, within factors, were conducted using computed effect size (f) 0.25, $\alpha=0.05$,
216 and a power level of 0.90 (Cohen, 1988), indicating a minimum required sample size of 44
217 participants for each of the 32 visualizations. At the beginning of the experiment, 76 participants
218 were involved; later, twelve were excluded because of color blindness, virtual reality
219 cybersickness, or not participating in the second VE experiment (IVE or DTVE). A total of 60
220 university students, 37 females and 23 males, participated in both experiments voluntarily from
221 XXXXXXXX University. The age range of the participants was 19 to 30 years ($M=24.77$,
222 $SD=3.92$). The efficiency of visual perception was found to be high in young adults in the
223 research conducted by Błasiak et al. (2019). Also, they noticed differences in stress between
224 the youngest, middle-aged, and oldest respondents. Therefore, the age range was taken between
225 19-30 for having the same stress level in explaining their feeling and thoughts about the
226 perceived spaces. Ishihara's electronic color blindness test was used (Color-blindness.com,
227 2019) to ensure the subjects' complete color perception.

228 **3.2. Virtual environment and stimuli**

229 The experimental stimuli in the virtual environment have two important features:
230 curvilinear horizontal boundaries (HB) and curvilinear vertical boundaries (VB) (see Figure 1).



231

232

Figure 1. Curvilinear horizontal boundaries (HB) and curvilinear vertical boundaries

233

(VB)

234

In HB space, four horizontal surfaces are linked with concave connections. In contrast to

235

the standard space connections, there is no 90-degree edge in that space in the horizontal plane.

236

In VB space, each wall is connected to the ceiling as a vertically concave connection. In contrast

237

to the standard space connections, there is no 90-degree link between walls and ceiling. Each

238

boundary type involves four space properties (size, light, texture, and color) of the surrounding

239

surfaces, where each space property is composed of two intensity levels, high and low, namely

240

as size (small-S and large-L), light (dim-D and bright-B), texture (longitudinal-LT and lateral-

241

LR), and color (cool-C and warm-W) shown in Figure 2 for the representation of 32

242

visualizations. This study's 32 VE visualizations are designed with various architectural

243

properties.

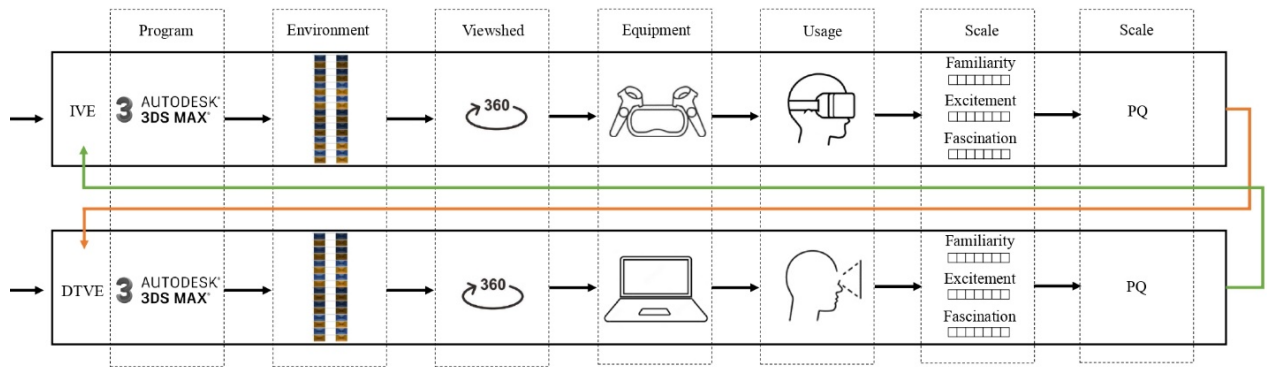
				HB	VB
Size	Light	Texture	Color		
S	D	LT	C		
			W		
		LR	C		
			W		
	B	LT	C		
			W		
		LR	C		
			W		
L	D	LT	C		
			W		
		LR	C		
			W		
	B	LT	C		
			W		
		LR	C		
			W		

244

245 Figure 2. VE visualizations with various space variables (Size as S: small and L: large; Light
 246 as B: bright and D: dim; Texture as LT: longitudinal and LR: lateral; and Color as C: cool and
 247 W: warm).

248 **3.3. Design and Procedures**

249 The study aims to identify the differences in participants’ aesthetic experience perception
 250 of the two VEs and the impacts of curvilinear boundaries with various architectural properties
 251 on different VEs. The study was conducted in two VEs: (1) an immersive virtual environment
 252 (IVE) and (2) a desktop-based virtual environment (DTVE). While immersive (IVE), high-end
 253 VR system displays the stereoscopic images of a digital model, non-immersive (DTVE), low-
 254 end VR system displays the monoscopic perspective views of a digital model (Bertol, 1997;
 255 Paes et al., 2021). Figure 3 presents the experiment setup scheme.



256

257

Figure 3. Experiments setup scheme

258 The study involves 32 VE visualizations with various space variables to be tested by 60
 259 participants. Each participant has to examine the space for 10 seconds and evaluate the three
 260 key dimensions of aesthetic adjectives after each space in 10 seconds. The experiment for each
 261 participant had two steps. Each participant started the experiment in one of the steps and then
 262 moved to the other. The 30 participants initially experienced the IVE and then the DTVE, while
 263 the other 30 participants initially experienced the DTVE and then the IVE to eliminate the order
 264 effect. The participants evaluated the presence questionnaire after experiencing each
 265 environment with no time limitation.

266 While in DTVE, participants are seated in front of the desktop and the only movements are
 267 wrist and fingers used for mouse operation to select responses, in IVE, participants need to

268 stand and turn their heads to move around the scene (left-right and up and down) and reach out
269 to select the responses with controllers. The total duration of the 32 visualizations was 10
270 minutes in both environments. The IVE experience process lasted 25 to 30 minutes, depending
271 on the virtual glass placement and adaptation, and the DTVE experience process lasted
272 approximately 15 to 20 minutes. To avoid distracting attention, the experimenter leaves the
273 room after a brief introduction about the experiment. Next to the experiment room, another
274 computer simultaneously shows participants' movements and records the responses.

275 Participants rated these visualizations based on the related findings of the previous research
276 (Elver Boz et al., 2022), which categorized the three dimensions of the aesthetic experience of
277 interior spaces as familiarity, excitement, and fascination. After evaluating the last environment
278 in each step, participants completed the presence questionnaire (PQ) that is adapted from the
279 studies of Paes (2019) and Paes, Irizarry, and Pujoni (2021).

280 **3.4. Instruments**

281 The three aesthetic experience dimensions of thirty-two 360-degree perceived spaces are
282 determined using IVE (HTC Vive Pro) and DTVE (Intel Core i7-7700U CPU @ 3.60GHz).
283 IVE, as a fully immersive environment, provides a headset and two touch controllers for
284 perceiving the environment and evaluating familiarity, excitement, fascination dimensions, and
285 PQ scores. DTVE, as a monitor-based VR system, was a high-performance 32" full HD monitor
286 for the presentation of the VR environments and a computer mouse as an interaction between
287 the virtual environment and the user. Also, the same desktop computer is used by all participants
288 (Luminance 120; Gamma 2.2; Color temperature 6500K; Color display 24-bit) to prevent
289 differences in perception due to different computer settings (EIZO, 2021; Federal Agencies
290 Digital Guidelines Initiative, 2016) in the IVE participant putting on the headset and being able
291 to turn 360 degrees as an egocentric framework. In the DTVE, the participant was sitting in
292 front of a desk interacting with the DTVE, using the 32" full HD monitor and the mouse.

293 Qualtrics survey is conducted in both VEs ("Qualtrics XM - Experience Management
294 Software," 2021). The visualizations are randomly assigned in the Qualtrics, and the
295 participants rated the three dimensions of aesthetic experience on a 7-point Likert scale after
296 perceiving each space. Also, a week after completing the first step, the participants were invited
297 once more to participate in the second step of the experiment. After completing 32
298 visualizations in each VE, participants were administered the presence questionnaire to analyze
299 their perceived level of presence during the 3D perceptions in the VEs (IVE and DTVE). The
300 presence questions are predominantly based on the Slater-Usoh-Steed (SUS) instrument
301 developed by Usoh et al. (2000). Paes (2019) created a collection of VE presence questions
302 adapted from Usoh et al., 2000, Witmer and Singer, 1998, and Zikic, 2007 (see Table 1).

303 Table 1. VEs Presence questionnaire (PQ) (Adapted from Paes, 2019, pp. 129-130)

-
1. To what extent did you feel present in the space considering your presence experiences in the real world?
 2. When you think back about your experience, to what extent do you think of the space as a place in a way similar to when you remember of other places that you have been today?
 3. When you think back about your experience, to what extent do you think of the space as somewhere you were at?
 4. During the time of the experience, how strong was your sense of being in the space rather than being in the experiment room?
 5. To what extent did your visual experience in the space seem consistent with your visual experiences in the real world?
 6. To what extent did you feel you could grasp an object in the space?
 7. If the space ceiling had started to collapse, what would have been the probability of you dodging in an attempt to not getting hit by falling parts?
 8. Were there times during the experience when the space was the reality for you?
 9. Were you involved in the experience to the extent that you lost track of time?
 10. To what extent have you experienced motion sickness (nausea, dizziness)?
-

304 Each question was rated on a scale of 1 (not at all) to 7 (a great deal). Slater (1999) defined
305 the three aspects of virtual presence. The first is related to the feeling of being in the virtual
306 environment as the participant feels that the space is real and immediately declares it. The
307 second is the level of becoming a reality from the virtual environment as the participant knows
308 it is not a real environment but states the perceived feelings or acts within that space as real.
309 The third one is to what extent virtual reality is remembered as a 'place,' and the space
310 experience is reported as being experienced in real space. The participant states the first aspect,
311 while the second and the third are observed or listened to as an experience.

312 **3.5. Data analysis**

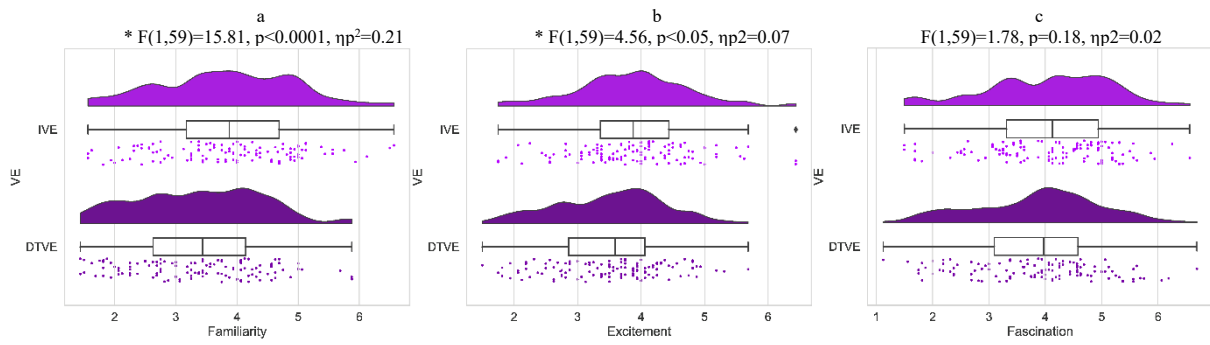
313 The study assesses the boundary type (horizontal and vertical), VEs (IVE and DTVE), and
314 their relationships with the three aesthetic experience dimensions based on the ratings of the 60
315 participants. The study ran a 2 (Boundary type: horizontal and vertical) x 2 (Presentation mode:
316 IVE and DTVE) repeated measures ANOVA for each aesthetic preference dimension.
317 Consequently, the main effect of VEs, the main effect of curvilinear boundaries, and the
318 interaction of VE with curvilinear boundaries were determined. Apart from these analyses, the
319 presence score of the VEs was reported using a pairwise comparison. Also, the study conducted
320 hierarchical multiple regression analysis to determine the percentage of the variance of the
321 architectural variables' dimensions in the presence score.

322 **4. Results**

323 **4.1. Aesthetic experience dimensions and VEs**

324 In Figure 4, the ANOVA on the familiarity dimension showed a main effect of VEs
325 ($F(1,59)=15.81, p<0.0001, \eta_p^2=0.21$). IVE ($M=3.83, SD=0.11$) was more familiar than DTVE
326 ($M=3.36, SD=0.11$). The excitement dimension showed a main effect of VEs ($F(1,59)=4.56,$
327 $p<0.05, \eta_p^2=0.07$). IVE ($M=3.75, SD=0.09$) was more exciting than DTVE ($M=3.56, SD=0.09$).
328 The fascination dimension showed no main effect of VEs ($F(1,59)=1.78, p=0.18$).

329
330



331
332
333

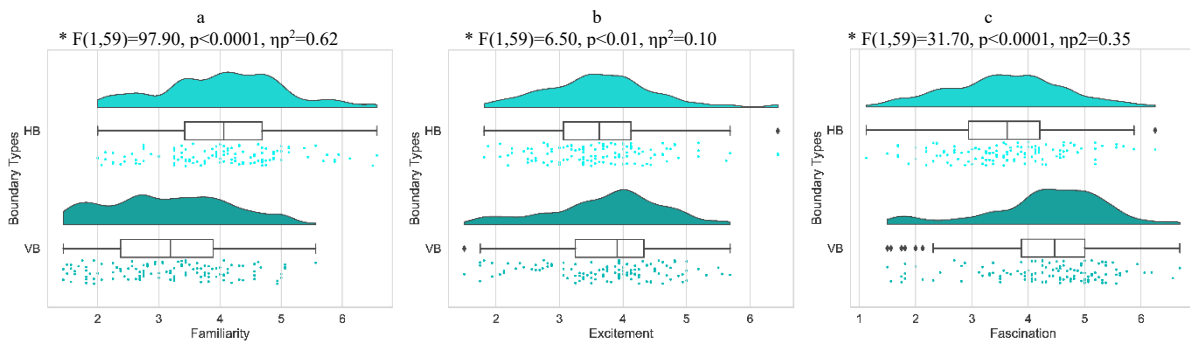
IVE: Immersive virtual environment
DTVE: Desktop-based virtual environment

334 Figure 4. Raincloud plots of aesthetic experience dimensions (a: Familiarity, b: Excitement,
335 and c: Fascination) and VEs

336 **4.2. Aesthetic experience dimensions and curvilinear boundaries**

337 In Figure 5, the ANOVA on the familiarity dimension showed a main effect of boundaries
338 ($F(1,59)=97.90, p<0.0001, \eta_p^2=0.62$). Horizontal boundaries ($M=4.03, SD=0.10$) were more
339 familiar than vertical boundaries ($M=3.15, SD=0.11$). The excitement dimension showed a main
340 effect of boundaries ($F(1,59)=6.50, p<0.01, \eta_p^2=0.10$). Vertical boundaries ($M=3.77, SD=0.10$)
341 were more exciting than horizontal boundaries ($M=3.55, SD=0.08$). The fascination dimension
342 showed a main effect boundary type ($F(1,59)=31.70, p<0.0001, \eta_p^2=0.35$) as well. Vertical
343 boundaries ($M=4.30, SD=0.11$) were more fascinating than horizontal boundaries ($M=3.60,$
344 $SD=0.10$).

345
346



347
348
349

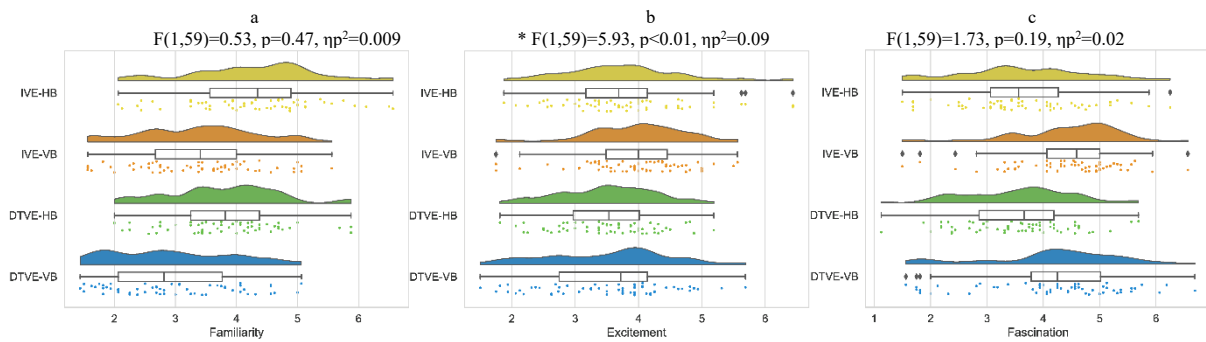
HB: Horizontal boundaries
VB: Vertical boundaries

350 Figure 5. Raincloud plots of aesthetic experience dimensions (a: Familiarity, b: Excitement,
351 and c: Fascination) and curvilinear boundaries

352 **4.3. Curvilinear boundaries and VEs interactions in aesthetic experience dimensions**

353 In Figure 6, ANOVA on familiarity ($F(1,59)=0.53, p=0.47$) and fascination ($F(1,59)=1.73, p=0.19$) dimensions showed no significant interaction between boundaries and VEs. The excitement dimension showed a significant interaction between boundaries and VEs ($F(1,59)=5.93, p<0.01, \eta_p^2=0.09$). The horizontal curvilinear boundaries were more exciting than those for the IVE ($t(59)=-1.86, p=0.07$). In contrast, the two boundary types did not significantly differ in excitement for the DTVE ($t(59)=0.84, p=0.40$).

359
360

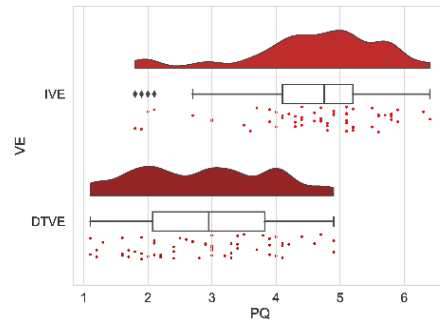


361
362 IVE-HB: Immersive virtual environment-Horizontal boundaries
363 IVE-VB: Immersive virtual environment-Vertical boundaries
364 DTVE-HB: Desktop-based virtual environment-Horizontal boundaries
365 DTVE-VB: Desktop-based virtual environment-Vertical boundaries

366 Figure 6. Raincloud plots of curvilinear boundaries and VEs interactions in each aesthetic
367 experience dimension (a: Familiarity, b: Excitement, and c: Fascination)

368 **4.4. Presence of VEs in aesthetic experience dimensions**

369 In Figure 7, 10 presence scores differed between IVE and DTVE, with higher values found
370 in IVE. While in the IVE, the density distribution is between 4–6 scores, in the DTVE, the
371 density distribution is between 2-4. The mean number of presences scores at IVE ($M=4.58, SD=1.06$) and DTVE ($M=2.77, SD=1.02$) differ significantly $t=10.97, df=59$, two-tailed
372 $p<0.0001$. The average difference between the paired mean score values IVE and DTVE mean
373 values is 1.81.
374



375

376

Figure 7. Raincloud plots of presence scores and VEs

377

4.5. Hierarchical multiple regression on VE's and presence score

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to identify the predictive role of aesthetic dimensions of architectural variables in determining the presence score in IVE and DTVE. Two models were found to be effective in IVE. The first IVE model included the familiarity and excitement dimensions of the architectural variables (Table 2). The excitement dimension ($\beta=0.53$, $t=4.37$, $df=57$, $p<0.001$) is the only predictor that explains 24.34% of the variance of the architectural variables in the presence score of model 1 in IVE. The second model of IVE included the architectural variables' familiarity, excitement, and fascination dimensions. The fascination dimension ($\beta=0.45$, $t= 2.69$, $df=56$, $p=0.009$) is the only predictor that explains 8.35% of the variance of the architectural variables in the presence score of model 2 in IVE. However, one model was effective in DTVE, including the familiarity and excitement dimensions of the architectural variables. The excitement dimension ($\beta=0.33$, $t=2.6$, $df=57$, $p=0.012$) is the only predictor that explains 10.18% of the architectural variables' variance in the model's presence score, as seen in Table 2. All the aesthetic dimensions were checked for collinearity, and all the predictors had tolerance levels greater than 0.1.

Table 2. Hierarchical multiple regression on VE's and the presence score.

	IVE		DTVE
	Model1 (familiarity, excitement)	Model2 (familiarity, excitement, fascination)	Model1 (familiarity, excitement)
Excitement	0.49**		0.32*
Fascination		0.29**	
(Correlations Part)			
β	0.53	0.45	0.33
R	0.52	0.60	0.38
R^2	0.27	0.35	0.15
ΔR^2	0.24	0.08	0.10
ΔF	19.06	7.26	6.79
df	57	56	57

393 *p<0.05

394 ** p<0.001

395

396 To summarize the hierarchical multiple regression results, the excitement dimension was
 397 the leading predictor in IVE. The fascination dimension was the second effective predictor in
 398 IVE. However, the excitement dimension was the only predictor in DTVE. VE's excitement
 399 dimension (wideawake, excited, frenzied, jittery, contended) was the common predictor of the
 400 presence score in both environments.

401 **5. Discussion**

402 **5.1. Effects of VEs on aesthetic experiences**

403 The present study examines users' aesthetic experience and presence results within the
 404 related VEs. As a result of the study, the familiarity and excitement components are highly
 405 significant factors in both VEs. The aesthetic experience dimension of familiarity covers
 406 elements that Elver Boz et al. (2022) categorized as 'pleased, happy, satisfied, pleasant, relaxed,
 407 like to spend time, prefer to live, enjoy exploring, and others.' The familiarity dimension may
 408 also be conceptually related to the 'hominess' factor named in Coburn et al.'s (2020) study,
 409 where the human aesthetic experience was explored by operating different architectural
 410 variables. The familiarity dimension may represent belonging to a space like home.

411 In the Coburn et al. (2020) study, the fascination component was described with
412 explorability, complexity, interest, and stimulation scales, and the present study is described as
413 the feeling of how mysterious or complex an environment is or how stimulated one feels in that
414 environment (Elver Boz et al., 2022). Complexity and stimulation are common adjectives in
415 both studies, and interest could correspond to mysterious feelings in the environment. The
416 fascination dimension was only active in the presence of IVE in the present study. The
417 coherence and excitement dimensions have different describing adjectives. In Coburn et al.’s
418 (2020) study, they are related to the ease with which one organizes and comprehends a scene;
419 in the present study, the excitement dimension is related to how excited, frenzied, jittery, or
420 contended one feels in an environment.

421 Specifically, in the IVE, familiarity aesthetic components have higher results than in DTVE
422 in the current study. The reason may be that IVE makes the participant feel closer and ‘like
423 home’ than the DTVE. It may be because the participants can experience the places without
424 any external factors or interruption. Another reason may be that while in the IVE, participants
425 were allowed to move their heads around in the VE. They can turn their heads whenever needed,
426 like in real-world actions.

427 Participants were seated and not allowed to walk during the experiment. For that reason,
428 DTVE is a less familiar way to explore and visualize a room than moving around. Participants
429 may feel in a familiar space because of the focus vision in the IVE. In addition, excitement
430 aesthetic components show the same result as familiarity. Elver Boz et al. (2022) emphasized
431 excitement as ‘contended (satisfied).’ This finding is consistent with Imamoglu (2000),
432 suggesting that more familiar stimuli may appear relatively more predictable, satisfying, and
433 less complex. However, fascination with aesthetic components is expressed as ‘complex’ by
434 Elver Boz et al. (2022). The fascination with aesthetic experience differs from the other two
435 aesthetic scales, and no significant factors (mysterious, complex, and stimulated) exist.

436 Imamoglu's (2000) previous study supports this study's findings that as participants feel more
437 familiar with a particular stimulus, the environment may appear more predictable and, hence,
438 less complex and mysterious.

439 The previous studies using simulated built environments have shown different perceptions
440 of IVE and DTVE (Higuera-Trujillo et al., 2017; Paes et al., 2017; Paes et al., 2021; Paes et al.,
441 2023; Shu et al., 2019). However, these studies have measured the differences in users' sense
442 of presence and immersion between the two VEs. Besides perception and preference, the
443 aesthetic experience of the VEs needs to be investigated more extensively in the literature.
444 Hepperle and Wölfel (2023) conducted a systematic scoping review of human behavioral
445 studies that analyzed VR settings in three categories: perception, interaction, and sensing and
446 reconstruction of reality. However, they recorded only one study in their literature review on
447 the sensing and reconstruction of reality category related to aesthetic experience in VE facade
448 design (Verwulgen et al., 2019).

449 **5.2. Effects of curvilinear boundaries on aesthetic experiences**

450 Chuquichambi et al. (2022) stated that while human curvature preference is common, it is
451 not universally constant or invariant. Furthermore, Djebbara and Kalantari (2023) demonstrated
452 a negative relationship between curvature preference and possible interactions with an object.
453 Elver Boz et al. (2022) controlled curvilinear boundary types and space properties in their
454 research one by one in the built environment. However, one of the aesthetic components, the
455 fascination dimension, was affected by none of the architectural variables controlled in their
456 studies. Also, Elver Boz et al. (2022) proposed that combining the boundary types and space
457 properties, which means a holistic approach, allows 'fascination' with aesthetic components that
458 interact with the perception of the built environment.

459 Consequently, instead of studying architectural variables in isolation, our study examines
460 architectural variables in a combined way. This result is consistent with real-life architectural

461 properties such as curvilinear boundaries, size, light, texture, and color in our living
462 environment. This study investigates the impacts of curvilinear boundaries with various
463 architectural properties. The study found that the three aesthetic components, familiarity,
464 excitement, and fascination, were modulated by the environment one experiences.

465 Familiarity and complexity are consistently perceived as independent dimensions of the
466 physical environment (Alexander, 2002; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989; Salingeros, 2007). As a result
467 of this study, horizontal boundaries with various space properties were more familiar than
468 vertical boundaries, and vertical boundaries were found more exciting and fascinating than
469 horizontal boundaries. Elver Boz et al. (2022) previous study supports this finding that studies
470 of horizontal boundaries were more familiar and exciting than studies of vertical boundaries.
471 Elver Boz (2022) suggests that familiar things and unexpected different ones are perceptually
472 salient qualities of the built environment that can be manipulated independently in architectural
473 design strategies parallel with the study of Coburn et al. (2020).

474 **5.3. Interactions of curvilinear boundaries with aesthetic experiences**

475 Elver Boz et al. (2022) emphasized interactions between boundary types and space
476 properties such as size, light, texture, and color one by one. Elver Boz et al. (2022) found the
477 interaction of boundary and size and the interaction of boundary and light in the excitement
478 dimension, the interaction of boundary and texture in the familiarity dimension, and no
479 interaction between boundary and color.

480 Furthermore, this study explores the curvilinear boundaries with various architectural
481 properties and VEs interactions in each aesthetic experience dimension. Only the excitement
482 dimension showed the main effect of interactions between VE and boundary. This finding is a
483 main contribution to the present literature since, to our knowledge, no other research has
484 examined aesthetic experiences in VEs with various architectural variables.

485 **5.4. Effects of presence in VEs on aesthetic experiences**

486 In the Gregorians et al. (2022) study, the participants were asked to rate the built
487 environments filmed in the videos for the valence, arousal, spatial layout complexity,
488 fascination, coherence, hominess, and unusualness qualities. They found that fascination,
489 coherence, and hominess are all strongly correlated with valence (intrinsic appeal or repulsion),
490 which is in line with the previous work of Coburn et al. (2020). In the Gregorians et al. (2022)
491 study, neither the appearance of green/blue space nor the presence of people significantly
492 affected video ratings.

493 This study mainly investigates the effects of the aesthetic experience of participants in the
494 presence of VEs. As a result of the study, the data showed that IVE has more presence feelings
495 than DTVE. In the related literature, Elver Boz et al. (2022) only focus on IVE in their studies,
496 and research needs to be conducted in the literature concentrating on space with curvilinear
497 boundaries with various architectural properties in VEs presence comparison. This study
498 expands the VE's presence feelings with the human psychology of aesthetic assessments. This
499 research provides a deeper analysis of what happens when a user reports VEs about presence.
500 The excitement dimension is the main predictor of presence in both environments (IVE and
501 DTVE).

502 **6. Conclusion**

503 This study makes significant contributions by analyzing the current state of VE literature.
504 The study findings mainly contribute to three areas: (1) the relationship between the VEs and
505 the three main aesthetic experience dimensions. (2) the relationship between the curvilinear
506 boundaries with various architectural properties and the three main aesthetic experience
507 dimensions. (3) the interaction between VEs and curvilinear boundaries with various
508 architectural properties and the dimensions of the three main aesthetic experiences.

509 The acquired knowledge of this research has many implications for the built environment.
510 The familiarity and excitement experiences increase in IVE. Also, the familiarity experience
511 increases in horizontal curved boundaries, and excitement and fascination dimensions increase
512 in vertical curved boundaries. In line with this result, designers can manipulate this idea in the
513 existing spaces that include different architectural variables. These results can be substantial for
514 renovating the built environment.

515 The study provided immersive and non-immersive virtual environments relations regarding
516 curvilinear boundaries with various architectural properties. As a result, virtual worlds
517 presented in an IVE are more comparable to real-world situations than to computer screens
518 (DTVE). This finding supports the study that an immersive environment is more suitable than
519 a non-immersive one for conducting experiments in human behavioral studies. This finding
520 may be useful information for designers and researchers looking to create more immersive and
521 realistic virtual experiences.

522 Nevertheless, there were limitations in this study, such as the use of a head-mounted display
523 (HTC Vive Pro). Technological devices have been developing each passing day, and using new
524 versions of technological devices was not included in this research. Further research could be
525 conducted with more immersive display equipment like augmented reality to investigate three
526 aesthetic dimensions. In addition, in real interior space stimuli experiments, participants may
527 be affected by other factors (e.g., furniture, openings, murals) in the environment. In this study,
528 32 interior images were designed as stimuli to limit participants' focus in the designed space.
529 However, since it does not resemble the space we see in real life, this may cause limitations in
530 our perception.

531 As potential guidelines for future research, proposals for studies in the application of virtual
532 environments and space properties of interior spaces to understand aesthetic experiences are
533 encouraged. Moreover, future works may include new space properties to differentiate the

534 various visualizations of interior spaces. For instance, in this study, the surrounding surfaces'
535 space properties (size, light, texture, and color) are composed of two intensity levels. However,
536 different space properties with many levels of intensity may be explored in further investigation.
537 Also, a future study could determine if some semantic inconsistencies provide differences in
538 evaluating interior spaces. Since the experiments are conducted in different cultural
539 backgrounds, a cross-cultural study could be valuable to identify these differences.

540 **References**

- 541 Adams, M. (2014). Quality of urban spaces and wellbeing. *In Wellbeing and the environment*,
542 2, 249-270. West Sussex, England: John Wiley & Sons.
543 <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118539415.wbwell064>
- 544 Alexander, C. (2002a). *The phenomenon of life: An essay on the art of building and the nature*
545 *of the universe* (Vol. 1). Berkeley, Calif: Center for Environmental Structure.
- 546 Bertol, D., (1997). *Designing Digital Space: An Architect's Guide to Virtual Reality*. New York:
547 John Wiley & Sons, ISBN 0-471-14662-5.
- 548 Błasiak, W., Kazubowska, K., & Kazubowski, P. (2019). Age-Related Differences in Visual
549 Perception Between People Aged from 7 to 83: an Eye-Tracking Study. *Journal of*
550 *Cognitive Enhancement*, 3(4), 359-364. <https://doi:10.1007/s41465-019-00142-7>
- 551 Brade, J., Lorenz, M., Busch, M., Hammer, N., Tscheligi, M., & Klimant, P. (2017). Being
552 there again – Presence in real and virtual environments and its relation to usability and user
553 experience using a mobile navigation task. *International Journal of Human-Computer*
554 *Studies*, 101, 76-87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhcs.2017.01.004>
- 555 Castruccio, S., Genton, M.G., & Sun, Y. (2019). Visualizing spatiotemporal models with virtual
556 reality: From fully immersive environments to applications in stereoscopic view. *Journal*
557 *of the Royal Statistical Society Series A: Statistics in Society*, 182(2), 379–387.
558 <https://doi:10.1111/rssa.12381>.
- 559 Chamilothori, K., Wienold, J. and Andersen, M. (2018). Adequacy of immersive virtual reality
560 for the perception of daylight spaces: Comparison of real and Virtual Environments.
561 *LEUKOS*, 15(2-3), 203–226. <https://doi:10.1080/15502724.2017.1404918>.

562 Chatterjee, A. (2013). *The aesthetic brain: How we evolved to desire beauty and enjoy art.*
563 United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
564 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199811809.001.0001>

565 Chatterjee, A., Coburn, A., & Weinberger, A. (2021). The neuroaesthetics of architectural
566 spaces. *Cognitive Processing*, 22(1), 115-120. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10339-021-01043-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10339-021-01043-4)
567 4

568 Chatterjee, A., & Vartanian, O. (2014). Neuroaesthetics. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 18, 370-
569 375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2014.03.003>

570 Chatterjee, A., & Vartanian, O. (2016). Neuroscience of aesthetics. *Annals of The New York*
571 *Academy of Sciences*, 1369, 172-194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nyas.13035>

572 Chuquichambi, E.G., Vartanian, O., Skov, M., Corradi, G.B., Nadal, M., Silvia, P. J., & Munar, E.
573 (2022). How universal is preference for visual curvature? A systematic review and meta-
574 analysis. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1518, 151-
575 165. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nyas.14919>

576 Coburn, A., Vartanian, O., & Chatterjee, A. (2017). Buildings, Beauty, and the Brain: A
577 Neuroscience of Architectural Experience. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 29, 1521-
578 1531. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn_a_01146

579 Coburn, A., Vartanian, O., Kenett, Y. N., Nadal, M., Hartung, F., Hayn-Leichsenring, G.,
580 Navarrete, G., González-Mora, J. L., & Chatterjee, A. (2020). Psychological and neural
581 responses to architectural interiors. *Cortex*, 126, 217-241.
582 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2020.01.009>.

583 Cooper, R., Burton, E., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.) (2014). *and the environment* (Vol. 2). West
584 Sussex, England: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

- 585 De Kort, Y. A. W., Ijsselsteijn, W. A., Kooijman, J., & Schuurmans, Y. (2003). Virtual
586 laboratories: comparability of real and Virtual environments for environmental
587 psychology. *Presence, Teleoperators and Virtual Environments*, 12(4), 360-373.
588 <https://doi.org/10.1162/105474603322391604>.
- 589 Djebbara, Z., & Kalantari, S. (2023). Affordances and curvature preference: The case of real
590 objects and spaces. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. 1-6.
591 <https://doi.org/10.1111/nyas.15038>
- 592 Elver Boz, T., Demirkan, H., & Urgen, B.A. (2022). Visual perception of the built environment
593 in virtual reality: A systematic characterization of human aesthetic experience in spaces
594 with curved boundaries. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts* [Preprint].
595 <https://doi:10.1037/aca0000504>.
- 596 Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using
597 G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*.
598 41, 1149-1160. Flaxman, S, Mishra. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149>
- 599 Fischl, G., & Garling, A. (2004). Enhancing well-being in health care facilities by architectural
600 design?: a methodological study. In *International Association for People-Environment*
601 *Studies*. Conference: 07/07/2004-09/07/2004. Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- 602 Gifford, R. (2002). *Environmental psychology: principles and practice*. Victoria, British
603 Columbia: Optimal Books.
- 604 Gorichanaz, T., Lavdas, A. A., Mehaffy, M. W., & Salingaros, N. A. (2023). The impacts of
605 online experience on health and well-being: The overlooked aesthetic dimension. *Virtual*
606 *Worlds*, 2(3), 243-266. <https://doi:10.3390/virtualworlds2030015>

607 Gregorians, L., Velasco, P. F., Zisch, F., & Spiers, H. J. (2022). Architectural experience:
608 Clarifying its central components and their relation to core affect with a set of first-person-
609 view videos. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 82, 101841.
610 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2022.101841>

611 Hartig, T. (2008). Green space, psychological restoration, and health inequality. *The Lancet*,
612 372, 1614-1615. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(08\)61669-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(08)61669-4)

613 Hekkert, P. (2006). Design aesthetics: Principles of pleasure in design. *Psychology Science*, 48,
614 157-172.

615 Hepperle, D., & Wölfel, M. (2023). Similarities and differences between immersive virtual
616 reality, real world, and computer screens: A systematic scoping review in human behavior
617 studies. *Multimodal Technologies and Interaction*, 7(6), p. 56.
618 <https://doi:10.3390/mti7060056>.

619 Higuera-Trujillo, J. L., Maldonado, J. L. T., & Millán, C. L. (2017). Psychological and
620 physiological human responses to simulated and real environments: A comparison between
621 Photographs, 360° Panoramas, and Virtual Reality. *Ergonomics*, 65, 398-409.
622 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2017.05.006>

623 Imamoglu, C. (2000). Complexity, liking and familiarity: Architecture and Non-Architecture
624 Turkish students' assessments of traditional and modern house facades. *Journal of*
625 *Environmental Psychology*, 20(1), pp. 5-16. <https://doi:10.1006/jev.1999.0155>.

626 Joye, Y. (2007). Architectural lessons from environmental psychology: The case of biophilic
627 architecture. *Review of General Psychology*, 11, 305-328. [https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-](https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.11.4.305)
628 2680.11.4.305

- 629 Kaplan, R., & Kaplan, S. (1989). *The experience of nature: A psychological perspective*. New
630 York: Cambridge University Press.
- 631 Kuliga, S., Thrash, T., Dalton, R., & Hölscher, C. (2015). Virtual reality as an empirical
632 research tool - Exploring user experience in a real building and a corresponding virtual
633 model. *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems*, 54, 363-375.
634 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compenvurbsys.2015.09.006>.
- 635 Leder, H., Belke, B., Oeberst, A., & Augustin, D. (2004). A model of aesthetic appreciation
636 and aesthetic judgments. *British Journal of Psychology*, 95, 489-508.
637 <https://doi.org/10.1348/0007126042369811>
- 638 Locher, P., Overbeeke, K., & Wensveen, S. (2010). Aesthetic interaction: A Framework.
639 *Design Issues*, 26(2), 70-79. doi:10.1162/desi_a_00017.
- 640 Obeid, S., & Demirkan, H. (2023). The influence of virtual reality on design process creativity
641 in basic design studios. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 31(4), 1841-1859.
642 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2020.1858116>
- 643 Paes, D. (2019). *A user-centered analysis of virtual reality in design review: comparing three-*
644 *dimensional perception and presence between immersive and non-immersive environments*
645 (Doctoral Dissertation). Georgia Institute of Technology, USA.
- 646 Paes, D., Arantes, E., & Irizarry, J. (2017). Immersive environment for improving the
647 understanding of architectural 3D models: Comparing user spatial perception between
648 immersive and traditional virtual reality systems. *Automation In Construction*, 84, 292-
649 303. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autcon.2017.09.016>.
- 650 Paes, D., Irizarry, J., & Pujoni, D. (2021). An evidence of cognitive benefits from immersive
651 design review: Comparing three-dimensional perception and presence between immersive

652 and non-immersive virtual environments. *Automation In Construction*, 130, 103849.
653 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autcon.2021.103849>.

654 Paes, D., Irizarry, J., Billinghamurst, M., & Pujoni, D. (2023). Investigating the relationship
655 between three-dimensional perception and presence in virtual reality-reconstructed
656 architecture. *Applied Ergonomics*, 109, 103953.
657 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2022.103953>

658 Salingeros, N. A. (2007). *A theory of architecture*. Solingen: ISI Distributed Titles.

659 Sherman, W.R., & Craig, A.B. (2003). *Understanding Virtual Reality*. San Francisco, CA:
660 Morgan Kaufman.

661 Shu, Y., Huang, Y. Z., Chang, S. H., & Chen, M. Y. (2019). Do virtual reality head-mounted
662 displays make a difference? A comparison of presence and self-efficacy between head-
663 mounted displays and desktop computer-facilitated virtual environments. *Virtual Reality*,
664 23(4), 437-446. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10055-018-0376-x>.

665 Slater, M. (1999). Measuring presence: A response to the Witmer and Singer presence
666 questionnaire, *Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual Environments*, 8(5), 560-565.
667 <https://doi:10.1162/105474699566477>.

668 Vartanian, O., Navarrete, G., Palumbo, L., & Chatterjee, A. (2021). Individual differences in
669 preference for architectural interiors. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 77, 101668.
670 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2021.101668>

671 Verwulgen, S., Van Goethem, S., Cornelis, G., Verlinden, J., & Coppens, T. (2019).
672 Appreciation of proportion in architecture: A comparison between facades primed in
673 virtual reality and on paper. In *Advances in Human Factors in Wearable Technologies and*
674 *Game Design*, 305-314. https://doi:10.1007/978-3-030-20476-1_31.

- 675 Vessel, E. A., Maurer, N., Denker, A. H., & Starr, G. G. (2018). Stronger shared taste for natural
676 aesthetic domains than for artifacts of human culture. *Cognition*, *179*, 121-131.
677 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2018.06.009>
- 678 Weinberger, A. B., Christensen, A. P., Coburn, A., & Chatterjee, A. (2021). Psychological
679 responses to buildings and natural landscapes. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *77*,
680 101676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2021.101676>
- 681 Weinberger, A. B., Garside, E. W., Christensen, A. P., & Chatterjee, A. (2022). Effects of
682 expertise on psychological responses to buildings and natural landscapes. *Journal of*
683 *Environmental psychology*, *84*, 101903. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2022.101903>
- 684 Witmer, B.G., & Singer, M.J. (1998). Measuring presence in virtual environments: A presence
685 questionnaire. *Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual Environments*, *7*(3), 225-240.
686 <https://doi:10.1162/105474698565686>.
- 687 Woods, R.L. Fetchenheuer, I., Vargas-Martín, F., & Peli, E.(2003). The impact of non-
688 immersive head-mounted displays (hmds) on the visual field. *Journal of the Society for*
689 *Information Display*, *11*(1), 191–198. <https://doi:10.1889/1.1831704>.
- 690 Zikic, N. (2007). *Evaluating relative impact of VR components screen size, stereoscopy and*
691 *field of view on spatial comprehension and presence in architecture*. Doctoral dissertation.
692 Pennsylvania State University.