



Review of Biometric Sensors for Assessing Human Emotional Responses in Virtual Reality Architectural Studies

Received 30 January 2025; Revised 3 April 2025; Accepted 3 April 2025

Ahmed M. Radwan¹

Mohamed A. Eid²

Hatem M. Fathi³

Keywords

Biometric Sensors; Virtual Reality (VR); Architectural Design Evaluation; Physiological Metrics; Wireless Body Area Networks (WBAN)

Abstract: This paper presents a comprehensive review of biometric sensors employed in the study of architectural design's impact on human emotional responses within Virtual Reality (VR) environments. The research integrates a Wireless Body Area Network (WBAN) equipped with Electroencephalogram (EEG), Galvanic Skin Response (GSR), and Photoplethysmogram (PPG) sensors to capture real-time physiological data. These sensors enable the measurement of brain activity, emotional arousal, and cardiovascular responses as participants engage with virtual spaces designed to evoke positive and negative emotional experiences. The findings underscore the significance of these biometric tools in providing objective, real-time data that complement traditional subjective evaluation methods. By examining the capabilities and limitations of these technologies, this paper highlights their potential to bridge architecture and neuroscience, offering actionable insights for designing environments that promote human well-being.

1. Introduction

The built environment plays a critical role in shaping human emotions, behavior, and well-being. Traditionally, the study of architecture's impact on occupants has relied heavily on subjective measures such as surveys, interviews, and post-occupancy evaluations (POEs). While these approaches provide valuable insights into user satisfaction, they often fail to capture the subconscious physiological responses that contribute to the overall human experience in spaces [1], [2]. Recent advances in biometric technologies have enabled researchers to measure physiological responses in real time, providing a more comprehensive understanding of human interactions with built environments. These technologies are capable of capturing key metrics, such as brain activity, skin conductance, and cardiovascular responses, which reflect the cognitive and emotional states of occupants. By leveraging these objective measures, researchers can better evaluate the impact of

¹ Assist. Lecturer, Architecture Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Assiut University, Assiut, Egypt. amradwan@aun.edu.eg

² Professor Architecture Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Assiut University, Assiut, Egypt. mohamed.mohamed18@eng.au.edu.eg

³ Professor, Sustainable Architecture Program, Egypt Japan University of Science and Technology, Alexandria, Egypt. hatem.mahmoud@ejust.edu.eg

architectural features on human well-being and optimize designs for stress reduction and enhanced comfort [3], [4].

This paper presents a review of the main physiological metrics used in architectural and environmental psychology research. The metrics covered include brain waves, skin conductance, and cardiovascular responses, each of which provides unique insights into how architectural environments affect human experience. For each metric, the research will discuss the sensors commonly used to measure it—such as Electroencephalogram (EEG) for brain waves, Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) for skin conductance, and Photoplethysmogram (PPG) for cardiovascular metrics—and compare them to alternative technologies where relevant. The research will also explore the integration of these metrics in Virtual Reality (VR) settings and the use of Wireless Body Area Networks (WBAN) to enable synchronized, real-time data collection. By reviewing the mechanisms, applications, and limitations of EEG, GSR, and PPG, this paper aims to highlight the value of biometric tools in advancing architectural research. The integration of these metrics into design processes offers a pathway toward creating environments that promote psychological well-being and comfort. Moreover, this review identifies areas for future research and innovation, emphasizing the need for human-centered approaches in architecture that are informed by objective physiological data.

2. Review of Physiological Metrics

Understanding how architectural environments influence human emotions and cognitive states requires the measurement of specific physiological metrics. These metrics offer objective data that reflects how the body responds to different spatial and environmental stimuli [1], [5]. By analyzing brain waves, skin conductance, and cardiovascular metrics, researchers can gain insights into the psychological and physiological effects of architectural design. This section reviews the main metrics used in architectural and environmental psychology research, discussing the sensors used to measure them and their relevance in evaluating human responses to built environments. The review begins with brain waves, which provide information about cognitive and emotional states through the analysis of neural activity. It then explores skin conductance, a measure of emotional arousal and stress, followed by cardiovascular metrics, which are essential for understanding stress and relaxation levels. Each metric is associated with specific sensors that have their own strengths, limitations, and applicability in architectural research, especially in controlled environments like virtual reality simulations.

2.1. Brain Waves

Brain waves are critical indicators of cognitive and emotional states, reflecting the brain's electrical activity through distinct patterns. These patterns are classified into various frequency bands: alpha (8-13 Hz), beta (13-30 Hz), theta (4-8 Hz), and delta (0.5-4 Hz). Each frequency band is associated with different mental states. For example, alpha waves

are linked to relaxation and reduced stress, beta waves to active thinking and focus, theta waves to deep relaxation or meditative states, and delta waves to deep sleep [1]. Measuring brain waves provides valuable insights into how architectural features influence occupants' cognitive load and emotional well-being. For instance, environments with natural elements, such as greenery and open spaces, have been shown to increase alpha wave activity, promoting a state of relaxation. In contrast, spaces with poor lighting or high spatial density tend to increase beta wave activity, indicating heightened stress and cognitive strain [3].

2.1.1. Methods Used to Measure Brain Waves

2.1.1.1. Electroencephalogram (EEG):

EEG is the most widely used tool for measuring brain wave activity – **Figure 1** below. It uses electrodes placed on the scalp to detect voltage fluctuations generated by neuronal activity. EEG primarily captures brain wave patterns, such as alpha, beta, theta, and delta waves, which reflect different mental and emotional states. For instance, alpha waves are associated with relaxation, beta waves with cognitive engagement, and theta waves with deep relaxation or meditation [1]. EEG offers high temporal resolution, making it ideal for tracking real-time changes in cognitive and emotional states in response to environmental stimuli. Its non-invasive nature and portability make it suitable for studies conducted in virtual reality (VR) settings, where participants' neural responses to different architectural designs can be closely monitored [4]. EEG was found to be particularly useful in architectural research for assessing how different environmental stimuli, such as lighting, spatial layout, and colors, affect occupants' cognitive load and emotional well-being. Studies have shown that spaces designed with natural elements tend to increase alpha wave activity, which is associated with reduced stress, while enclosed, poorly lit spaces can increase beta wave activity, indicating heightened cognitive load and stress [3].



Fig. 1 Example of EEG Device



Fig. 2 Example fMRI Machine

2.1.1.2. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI):

Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) – **Figure 2** below - is another method for studying brain activity, known for its high spatial resolution. Unlike EEG, which captures electrical activity, fMRI measures changes in blood flow to different brain regions, offering detailed localization of neural activity. However, fMRI has lower temporal resolution and requires participants to remain still in a confined scanner, making it less practical for

architectural research compared to EEG. Additionally, fMRI is expensive and less accessible, further limiting its use in dynamic, immersive studies [6].

2.1.1.3. Functional Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS):

Functional Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS) – **Figure 3** below - another non-invasive tool used to measure brain activity. While fNIRS focuses on hemodynamic responses by detecting changes in blood oxygenation, EEG measures real-time electrical activity. fNIRS provides better spatial resolution, allowing researchers to pinpoint the exact areas of the brain that are activated by different stimuli. However, EEG is more sensitive to immediate, real-time changes in cognitive and emotional states [7].

2.1.1.4. Magnetoencephalography (MEG):

Magnetoencephalography (MEG) – **Figure 4** below - detects the magnetic fields produced by neuronal activity. MEG provides better spatial localization than EEG while maintaining high temporal resolution. However, MEG systems are costly and require specialized facilities, making them less feasible for widespread use in architectural studies. EEG remains the preferred choice for research where cost-effectiveness and portability are crucial [8].



Fig. 3 Example fNIRS



Fig. 4 Example MEG Machine

2.1.2. Applications of EEG in Architectural Research

Brain wave measurements using EEG have proven effective in linking environmental stimuli to cognitive and emotional responses. For example, research using EEG in immersive VR environments has demonstrated that architectural features such as spatial openness and natural lighting can reduce cognitive load and increase alpha wave activity, supporting the design of spaces that enhance relaxation and well-being [1].

2.2. Galvanic Skin Response (GSR)

Galvanic Skin Response (GSR), also known as Electrodermal Activity (EDA) or Skin Conductance Response (SCR), measures changes in the skin's electrical conductance, which are caused by sweat gland activity. Since sweat gland activity is controlled by the sympathetic nervous system, GSR is a reliable indicator of emotional arousal, particularly in

response to stress or anxiety [9]. Skin conductance measurements have been widely used in architectural research to understand how specific environmental features influence occupants' emotional responses. For instance, studies have demonstrated that enclosed, dimly lit spaces tend to increase skin conductance, reflecting heightened stress levels. Conversely, open layouts and natural lighting have been shown to reduce skin conductance, suggesting a state of relaxation [10].

2.2.1. Methods of Measuring Skin Conductance

2.2.1.1. Electrodermal Measurement Techniques:

Electrodermal activity is typically measured using electrodes placed on the skin, often on the fingertips or palms where sweat gland density is highest. These electrodes detect minute changes in electrical conductance caused by variations in sweat secretion. Modern GSR sensors, as shown on **Figure 5** below, use adhesive electrodes for convenience and portability, making them suitable for both laboratory and field studies.



Fig. 5 Example GSR Sensor

2.2.1.2. Continuous Monitoring:

Continuous GSR monitoring allows researchers to observe changes in skin conductance over time as participants interact with different architectural settings. This approach is particularly useful in immersive Virtual Reality (VR) environments, where participants can navigate various simulated spaces while their physiological responses are recorded in real time.

2.2.1.3. Integration with Wireless Systems:

Advances in wireless technologies, such as Wireless Body Area Networks (WBAN), have enhanced the ease of collecting GSR data in dynamic settings. These systems allow researchers to collect real-time skin conductance data without restricting participants' mobility, making it feasible to study responses in immersive or naturalistic environments [11].

2.2.2. Applications of GSR in Architectural Research

GSR sensors have been employed to study a range of architectural variables, including lighting, acoustics, spatial layouts, and materials. For example, research has shown that environments with harsh artificial lighting and high noise levels elicit significant increases

in skin conductance, indicating stress, while spaces incorporating natural elements, such as greenery or daylight, tend to reduce skin conductance, reflecting a calmer state [12].

Skin conductance signals are often analyzed in two components:

1. **Tonic Skin Conductance:** Reflects baseline arousal levels and varies over longer periods.
2. **Phasic Skin Conductance:** Represents rapid changes in response to specific stimuli, such as exposure to a sudden environmental stressor.

Both components provide complementary insights into how architectural environments influence emotional arousal and stress. By providing real-time data on emotional arousal, GSR measurements offer a powerful method for evaluating the effectiveness of architectural designs in promoting relaxation and reducing stress.

2.3. Cardiovascular Metrics

Cardiovascular metrics, including heart rate (HR) and heart rate variability (HRV), are essential indicators of stress, relaxation, and overall physiological well-being. Heart rate reflects the number of beats per minute, while HRV measures the variation in time intervals between successive heartbeats. These metrics are controlled by the autonomic nervous system and provide valuable insights into the balance between the sympathetic ("fight or flight") and parasympathetic ("rest and digest") nervous systems [13]. In architectural research, cardiovascular metrics are used to assess how different environmental stimuli influence occupants' physiological states. For example, calming environments with natural lighting and open spaces have been shown to reduce heart rate and increase HRV, reflecting relaxation. In contrast, stressful environments, such as noisy or overcrowded spaces, often elevate heart rate and reduce HRV, signaling heightened stress [3].

2.3.1. Methods of Measuring Cardiovascular Metrics

2.3.1.1. Photoplethysmogram (PPG)

PPG is a non-invasive optical method that measures blood volume changes in the microvascular bed of tissue. It uses infrared or green light sensors to detect pulsatile blood flow, enabling the calculation of heart rate and HRV. PPG sensors are often integrated into wearable devices, such as wristbands or chest straps, making them suitable for real-time monitoring in dynamic environments, including Virtual Reality (VR) settings [13].



Fig. 6 Example of PPG Sensor

2.3.1.2. Electrocardiogram (ECG):

ECG sensors, as shown in Figure 7 below, measures the electrical activity of the heart using electrodes placed on the chest or limbs. It is considered the gold standard for HR and HRV measurement due to its high accuracy and reliability. While ECG provides more precise data compared to PPG, its setup is more cumbersome, and it is less practical for use in immersive or mobile studies [14].

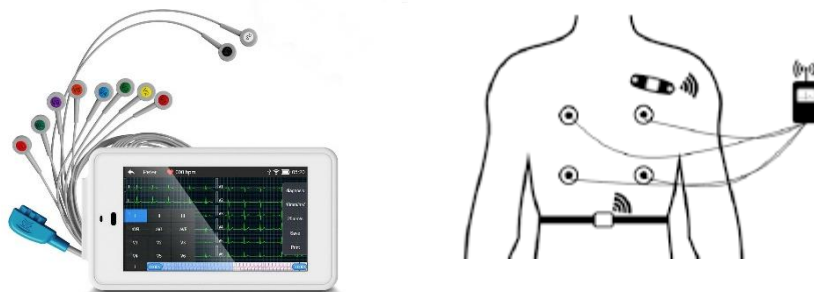


Fig. 7 Example of ECG Sensors

2.3.1.3. Integration with Wireless Systems and Continuous Monitoring:

Both PPG and ECG can be used for continuous monitoring, enabling researchers to track changes in cardiovascular metrics over time as participants interact with different architectural settings. This approach helps in identifying specific environmental features that may trigger stress or promote relaxation [15]. Like GSR, cardiovascular sensors can be integrated into Wireless Body Area Networks (WBAN) for synchronized, real-time data collection. WBAN systems enhance the mobility of participants, allowing cardiovascular metrics to be measured in naturalistic or immersive VR environments without the constraints of traditional setups [11].

2.3.2. Applications of Cardiovascular Measurements in Architectural Research

Cardiovascular metrics have been used to evaluate a range of architectural variables, such as noise, lighting, and spatial configurations. For instance, research has shown that exposure to open spaces with natural elements increases HRV, reflecting relaxation and reduced stress. Conversely, environments with high noise levels or poor ventilation have been associated with elevated HR and decreased HRV, indicating stress [9].

These metrics are particularly effective in VR studies, where participants can navigate various architectural simulations while their cardiovascular responses are monitored in real time. By correlating HR and HRV data with environmental features, researchers can identify design elements that promote well-being and reduce stress.

2.4. Recommended Biometric Equipment

The selection of appropriate biometric equipment is critical for effectively capturing physiological responses to architectural environments. **Table 1** below provides an overview and comparison of the key metrics discussed in detail within this section.

Table 1 Comparison of Physiological Metrics

Metric	Sensor	Advantages	Limitations	Common Applications
Brain Waves	EEG	High temporal resolution, real-time cognitive state monitoring	Sensitive to motion artifacts, limited spatial resolution	Stress and cognitive load evaluation, relaxation studies
Skin Conductance	GSR	Direct measure of emotional arousal, simple setup	Cannot differentiate between positive and negative arousal	Stress assessment, emotional arousal in spatial environments
Cardiovascular Metrics	PPG	Reliable measure of stress/relaxation, suitable for dynamic environments	Affected by movement and ambient conditions, lower spatial specificity	Heart rate and HRV analysis for stress and relaxation studies

2.4.1. Electroencephalogram (EEG):

Recommended for monitoring brain wave activity due to its high temporal resolution, portability, and ability to provide real-time insights into cognitive and emotional states. EEG is particularly effective in VR studies where immediate neural responses to environmental stimuli are of interest.

2.4.2. Galvanic Skin Response (GSR):

Ideal for measuring emotional arousal and stress. Its straightforward setup and compatibility with wearable systems make it suitable for dynamic and immersive studies.

2.4.3. Photoplethysmogram (PPG):

Favored for heart rate and heart rate variability monitoring due to its non-invasive nature and adaptability to wearable formats. PPG is well-suited for evaluating stress and relaxation in response to spatial configurations. These tools complement one another and provide a holistic understanding of human responses to architectural features. EEG excels in capturing cognitive load, GSR offers a direct measure of emotional arousal, and PPG provides valuable insights into stress and relaxation. For comprehensive studies, integrating these devices within a Wireless Body Area Network (WBAN) is recommended, as it allows synchronized, real-time data collection across multiple physiological metrics. The use of these recommended tools ensures robust data collection and supports a multidisciplinary approach to architectural research, bridging neuroscience, psychology, and design.

3. Integration of Metrics in Virtual Reality (VR)

The intersection of biometric tools and Virtual Reality (VR) technology has transformed architectural research by enabling objective, real-time analysis of human responses to built environments. VR provides an immersive, controlled platform where environmental variables such as lighting, acoustics, and spatial configurations can be manipulated with precision. By integrating physiological metrics, including brain wave activity, skin

conductance, and cardiovascular responses, researchers can obtain a nuanced understanding of how architectural designs impact emotions, stress levels, and cognitive states.

3.1. Role of Virtual Reality in Architectural Research

Architectural spaces have traditionally been studied through physical construction or static 3D modeling, both of which are limited in cost-effectiveness and flexibility. VR overcomes these challenges by allowing researchers to create dynamic, interactive environments that replicate real-world scenarios or test hypothetical designs. This approach offers several key advantages:

3.1.1. Controlled Experiments:

VR enables the isolation and manipulation of specific environmental variables to evaluate their impacts. For instance, researchers can adjust elements such as window size, wall colors, or lighting intensity independently or in combination to assess their effects on physiological responses [16].

3.1.2. Replicability and Flexibility:

Unlike physical spaces, VR environments can be easily reproduced, ensuring consistency across participants and enabling large-scale studies. Both existing and conceptual architectural designs can be evaluated, supporting iterative design processes. By immersing participants in these virtual environments, researchers can observe and measure their physiological responses to specific design features. The integration of physiological metrics into VR studies amplifies their value by providing objective measures of human experience. These metrics allow researchers to quantify responses that would otherwise rely on subjective evaluations, such as surveys or interviews [1].

3.2. Physiological Metrics in VR Environments

In VR studies, physiological metrics such as brain wave activity, skin conductance, and cardiovascular responses are continuously monitored, offering complementary insights into human interactions with architectural designs.

3.2.1. Brain Waves

EEG data collected in VR environments reveal the influence of architectural elements such as spatial openness and natural lighting on cognitive load and engagement. For example, increased alpha wave activity has been associated with calming, stress-reducing designs [1], [3].

3.2.2. Skin Conductance:

GSR sensors measure emotional arousal in response to environmental stressors such as noise, crowding, or harsh lighting. Real-time monitoring of skin conductance provides immediate feedback on how participants perceive different spatial features [12].

3.2.3. Cardiovascular Metrics:

PPG data collected in VR studies track heart rate and HRV, reflecting participants' stress and relaxation levels. For example, higher HRV has been observed in environments designed with natural elements compared to artificial, enclosed spaces [9].

3.3. Wireless Body Area Networks (WBAN) for Data Collection

Wireless Body Area Networks (WBANs) are critical for integrating multiple physiological metrics in VR environments. WBAN systems consist of wearable sensors, such as EEG headsets, GSR electrodes, and PPG devices, which communicate wirelessly with a central hub. This configuration ensures synchronized data collection while allowing participants to move freely within the virtual environment [11].

3.3.1. Advantages of WBANs

3.3.1.1. Mobility and Comfort:

Unlike traditional laboratory setups, WBANs eliminate the need for cumbersome wires, enhancing participant comfort and allowing for natural interaction with the VR environment [17].

3.3.1.2. Real-Time Monitoring and Feedback:

WBANs enable researchers to observe physiological changes as they occur, providing valuable data on participants' immediate responses to architectural stimuli [11], [18].

3.3.1.3. Scalability and Ease of Integration:

WBANs seamlessly integrate data from multiple sensors, providing a holistic view of participants' emotional and physiological states through simultaneous measurement of multiple physiological metrics [11], [18].

3.4. Data Integration and Synchronization

Synchronized data collection is critical for meaningful analysis in VR studies. WBANs enable the integration of brain wave, skin conductance, and cardiovascular data, allowing researchers to correlate physiological responses with specific architectural features. Advanced software tools are often employed to process and analyze these datasets, ensuring that physiological signals are accurately mapped to corresponding environmental stimuli.

By leveraging these systems, researchers can capture a holistic view of occupants' physiological and emotional states, advancing our understanding of how architectural designs influence human well-being.

4. Application of Integrated WBAN and VR in Architectural Studies

The integration of physiological metrics within architectural research has advanced our understanding of how the built environment influences human emotions, cognition, and overall well-being. By employing tools such as EEG, GSR, and PPG in controlled and immersive Virtual Reality (VR) environments, researchers can quantitatively evaluate the effects of architectural designs on occupants. This section explores the primary applications of these methods, focusing on stress-reducing environments, stimulating spaces, iterative design processes, and broader implications for architectural practice.

4.1. Evaluating Stress-Reducing Environments:

One of the most significant applications of physiological metrics in architectural research is the identification and validation of stress-reducing design features. Stress in built environments is often associated with factors such as poor lighting, excessive noise, and spatial constraints [12]. Using EEG, GSR, and PPG sensors, researchers have demonstrated that architectural elements such as natural light, greenery, and open layouts are effective in reducing stress responses [19].

For instance, environments designed with biophilic principles—such as incorporating natural materials and views of nature—have been shown to increase alpha wave activity, indicative of a relaxed mental state [3]. Concurrently, PPG data from these environments reveal lower heart rates and increased heart rate variability (HRV), reflecting reduced physiological stress [9]. Such findings provide empirical support for incorporating stress-reducing elements into architectural designs, particularly in settings like healthcare facilities and workplaces, where occupant well-being is paramount. By analyzing physiological data, researchers have identified design features that reduce stress, such as natural light, greenery, and spacious layouts. For instance, alpha wave increases and HRV improvements have been observed in environments with biophilic design elements [3], [4], [9], [20].

4.2. Testing Stimulating Environments:

In addition to reducing stress, physiological metrics are used to evaluate environments intended to stimulate creativity, engagement, or social interaction. For example, beta wave activity measured through EEG has been linked to heightened cognitive engagement in environments with vibrant colors, dynamic spatial layouts, and innovative lighting configurations [1]. These findings are particularly relevant for spaces such as educational institutions, offices, and public areas where active engagement is desired.

Skin conductance data collected in these environments further corroborates the stimulating effects of such designs. Increased GSR readings, reflective of heightened emotional arousal, have been observed in spaces with bold architectural elements, such as unconventional geometries and high-contrast materials [12]. However, excessive stimulation can lead to stress or fatigue, as evidenced by elevated heart rates measured using PPG sensors in overly cluttered or visually intense environments [4]. These insights emphasize the need for balance in creating stimulating yet comfortable spaces.

4.3. Design Iteration and Feedback:

The ability to collect real-time physiological data in VR environments has transformed the design process, enabling architects to test and refine their concepts before physical construction. Iterative design feedback involves exposing participants to multiple variations of a proposed space and analyzing their physiological responses to identify the most effective configuration [11]. For example, researchers have used EEG to compare alpha wave activity across different lighting schemes, identifying configurations that promote relaxation and focus. Similarly, GSR and PPG data have been used to evaluate the impact of

varying spatial densities on emotional arousal and stress levels [18]. This approach not only ensures that designs meet user needs but also reduces the cost and time associated with post-construction modifications. Moreover, VR-based studies enable architects to refine designs based on physiological feedback, ensuring that spaces align with user needs and preferences before physical construction [16].

4.4. Broader Implications for Architectural Practice

The application of physiological metrics extends beyond individual studies, influencing broader trends in architectural practice. By incorporating biometric data into design standards, architects can create evidence-based guidelines for building features that enhance occupant well-being. For instance, findings from stress-reduction studies have informed the development of wellness certifications, such as WELL and Fitwel, which emphasize the importance of natural light, ventilation, and biophilic design elements [3]. In addition, the integration of physiological metrics into urban planning initiatives has allowed for the creation of more human-centered public spaces. By assessing responses to noise, crowding, and green infrastructure, researchers can design cities that promote physical and psychological health [9]. **Table 2** below synthesizes key findings from various studies, reinforcing the practical implications of the physiological metrics discussed in the section above.

Table 2 Summary of Key Findings from Architectural Studies

Study Focus	Metric Used	Observed Effect	References
Connection to Nature	EEG, PPG	Increased alpha wave activity, reduced heart rate	[3], [21], [22], [23]
Adaptability of the space	GSR, EEG	Elevated beta waves, increased skin conductance	[15], [24], [25]
Lighting Configurations	EEG	Enhanced alpha waves in calming light setups	[26], [27], [28]
Crowding	PPG, GSR	Reduced HRV, increased GSR indicating stress	[13], [29], [30]

5. Challenges and limitations

The use of physiological metrics in architectural research has significantly enhanced our understanding of how built environments influence human responses. However, the integration of tools such as EEG, GSR, and PPG into architectural studies—particularly in Virtual Reality (VR) settings—presents several challenges and limitations. These issues arise from the technical, methodological, and contextual factors associated with data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

Table 3 below summarizes the challenges and proposed solutions.

Challenges	Description	Impact	Proposed Solutions
Data Quality and Noise Artifacts	Artifacts caused by motion or external interference	Compromises data accuracy and reliability	Advanced signal processing, machine learning filters
Sensor Integration and Synchronization	Difficulty aligning data across multiple sensors	Leads to misaligned or incomplete data	Improved WBAN technologies, synchronization algorithms
Participant Variability	Physiological responses differ among individuals	Limits generalizability of findings	Larger, more diverse participant pools
Adapting to VR Environments	Fatigue, simulator sickness in VR setups	Introducing confounding factors	Shorter VR sessions, familiarization protocols
Calibration and Standardization	Diverse equipment and protocols complicate comparability	Hinders cross-study comparisons	Standardized protocols and calibration procedures
Ethical Concerns	Concerns about data privacy and consent	Reduces trust and participation rates	Data anonymization and secure storage protocols

5.1. Technical Challenges

5.1.1. Data Quality and Noise Artifacts

One of the primary technical challenges in physiological measurements is the susceptibility of data to noise and artifacts. For instance, EEG data is highly sensitive to motion artifacts, which can distort brain wave signals, particularly when participants are allowed to move freely in VR environments [13]. Similarly, PPG signals can be affected by subtle movements, skin tone variability, and ambient lighting conditions, which can interfere with accurate heart rate and HRV measurements [15]. Ensuring clean data requires advanced filtering techniques and careful sensor placement, but these measures can add complexity to study protocols.

5.1.2. Sensor Integration and Synchronization

The integration of multiple sensors within a Wireless Body Area Network (WBAN) introduces challenges related to synchronization. Accurate temporal alignment of data from EEG, GSR, and PPG sensors is critical for meaningful analysis but can be difficult to achieve in real-time monitoring setups [11]. Furthermore, wireless communication in WBAN systems can be prone to signal interference, particularly in environments with high electromagnetic activity.

5.1.3. Limited Battery Life

Wearable sensors used in WBANs are often constrained by battery life, limiting their use in extended study sessions. Researchers must carefully balance the duration of experiments with the need for comprehensive data collection, frequently requiring interruptions for recharging or multiple study sessions [18].

5.2. Methodological Challenges

5.2.1. Participant Variability

Physiological responses can vary widely among individuals due to factors such as age, gender, fitness level, and baseline stress levels [3]. These variations complicate the interpretation of data and necessitate the inclusion of larger, more diverse participant pools to ensure generalizability.

5.2.2. Adapting to VR Environments

Participants' physiological responses can be influenced by the novelty or discomfort of VR environments, such as simulator sickness or fatigue from prolonged use of head-mounted displays [9]. These confounding factors must be accounted for when analyzing data, as they can mask or exaggerate the effects of architectural variables.

5.2.3. Calibration and Standardization

Physiological metrics, particularly GSR and HRV, require careful calibration to establish meaningful baselines. However, standardizing these measurements across studies is challenging due to differences in equipment, experimental protocols, and environmental conditions [12]. The lack of standardized approaches limits the comparability of results across different research projects.

5.3. Interpretive Limitations

5.3.1. Context Dependence

Physiological responses are inherently context-dependent and influenced by numerous external factors. For example, elevated heart rate or skin conductance may reflect stress, excitement, or physical exertion, making it difficult to attribute these responses solely to architectural stimuli [31]. Combining physiological metrics with qualitative data, such as self-report surveys, can provide additional context but increases the complexity of data analysis.

5.3.2. Temporal and Spatial Limitations

Tools such as EEG are limited in their ability to capture deep brain activity, focusing primarily on the cortical surface. Similarly, GSR reflects overall emotional arousal but cannot distinguish between positive and negative valence. These limitations necessitate the use of complementary tools or methodologies to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of occupant responses [1].

5.4. Ethical and Practical Considerations

The collection of physiological data raises ethical concerns related to participant privacy and consent. Ensuring the secure storage and anonymization of biometric data is critical to maintaining trust and compliance with ethical research standards. Additionally, the practical challenges of recruiting participants for studies that require wearable devices and VR equipment can limit sample sizes and reduce statistical power [11].

5.5. Addressing and Mitigating the Challenges

To mitigate these challenges, researchers are exploring several strategies:

- **Advanced Signal Processing:** Techniques such as artifact rejection and machine learning algorithms are being developed to enhance the accuracy of physiological measurements [13]
- **Standardized Protocols:** Efforts to establish standardized protocols for physiological data collection and analysis can improve comparability across studies [15]
- **Complementary Data Sources:** Combining physiological metrics with behavioral observations and qualitative surveys can provide a more holistic understanding of occupant responses [1].

6. Conclusion and Future Directions

The integration of physiological metrics in architectural research has revolutionized the study of human responses to built environments, offering a level of objectivity and precision that was previously unattainable. However, as the field continues to evolve, several areas require further exploration and innovation to maximize the potential of these methodologies.

6.1. Conclusion

Physiological metrics have emerged as a transformative tool for understanding the impact of architectural designs on human emotions, cognition, and well-being. By leveraging technologies such as EEG, GSR, and PPG, researchers can objectively quantify responses to environmental stimuli, bridging the gap between subjective perceptions and measurable outcomes [1]. The integration of these metrics in VR environments has further expanded the possibilities for experimental research, enabling precise manipulation of variables and real-time data collection.

Despite the challenges associated with sensor technology, data processing, and ethical considerations, the advancements in this field underscore its potential to revolutionize architectural practice. By incorporating physiological data into design processes, architects and planners can create spaces that not only meet functional requirements but also enhance psychological well-being and comfort.

As the field progresses, collaboration across disciplines—including neuroscience, psychology, engineering, and design—will be essential to addressing existing limitations and unlocking new applications. Through continued innovation and interdisciplinary efforts, physiological metrics will play a critical role in shaping the future of human-centered architecture and urban design.

6.2. Future Directions

6.2.1. Advancements in Sensor Technology

Current sensors, such as EEG, GSR, and PPG, face challenges related to sensitivity, noise artifacts, and portability. Future developments in sensor technology are expected to address these issues by producing devices that are more compact, reliable, and user-friendly. For instance, dry electrodes for EEG systems are being developed to eliminate the need for conductive gels, reducing setup time and improving participant comfort [13]. Similarly, advancements in optical technologies for PPG are expected to enhance accuracy in dynamic environments [15].

6.2.2. Integration with Artificial Intelligence (AI)

The application of AI and machine learning in the analysis of physiological data presents significant opportunities for architectural research. These technologies can identify patterns and correlations that may not be apparent through traditional statistical methods, enabling deeper insights into how architectural features influence human responses [17]. AI-driven tools can also improve artifact rejection and data processing, increasing the reliability of physiological measurements.

6.2.3. Expanded Applications in Urban and Public Spaces

While much of the current research focuses on controlled environments, such as offices or healthcare facilities, there is a growing need to apply physiological metrics to urban and public spaces. By analysing how individuals respond to features like pedestrian pathways, green spaces, or transportation hubs, researchers can contribute to the design of more human-centered cities [9]. This approach aligns with global efforts to promote sustainable and health-focused urban development.

6.2.4. Longitudinal Studies and Cross-Cultural Research

Most existing studies using physiological metrics are conducted over short periods and within specific cultural contexts. Expanding the scope to longitudinal studies can provide insights into the long-term effects of architectural environments on well-being. Similarly, cross-cultural research can identify universal design principles and highlight the role of cultural preferences in shaping human responses to architecture [3].

6.2.5. Ethical and Practical Innovations

As biometric technologies become more pervasive, addressing ethical concerns is paramount. Researchers must develop protocols for secure data storage, anonymization, and informed consent to maintain participant trust [11]. Additionally, practical innovations, such as remote data collection and mobile VR platforms, can enhance accessibility and scalability in future studies.

References

- [1] E. M. Sternberg and M. A. Wilson, "Neuroscience and Architecture: Seeking Common Ground," *Cell*, vol. 127, no. 2, pp. 239–242, 2006, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2006.10.012>.
- [2] R. S. Ulrich, "View through a window may influence recovery from surgery," *Science*, vol. 224, no. 4647, 1984, doi: [10.1126/science.6143402](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.6143402).
- [3] R. Berto, "The role of nature in coping with psycho-physiological stress: A literature review on restorativeness," *Behav. Sci.*, vol. 4, no. 4, 2014, doi: [10.3390/bs4040394](https://doi.org/10.3390/bs4040394).

- [4] S. Collado, H. Staats, J. A. Corraliza, and T. Hartig, "Restorative Environments and Health," 2017. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-31416-7_7.
- [5] G. Franz and J. M. Wiener, "Exploring isovist-based correlates of spatial behavior and experience," in *Proceedings of the 5th International Space Syntax Symposium*, 2005.
- [6] N. K. Logothetis, "What we can do and what we cannot do with fMRI," *Nature*, vol. 453, no. 7197, pp. 869–878, 2008.
- [7] M. Ferrari and V. Quaresima, "A brief review on the history of human functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS) development and fields of application," *Neuroimage*, vol. 63, no. 2, pp. 921–935, 2012.
- [8] M. Hämäläinen, R. Hari, R. J. Ilmoniemi, J. Knuutila, and O. V. Lounasmaa, "Magnetoencephalography—theory, instrumentation, and applications to noninvasive studies of the working human brain," *Rev. Mod. Phys.*, vol. 65, no. 2, p. 413, 1993.
- [9] R. S. Ulrich et al., "A review of the research literature on evidence-based healthcare design," *HERD Health Environ. Res. Des. J.*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 61–125, 2008.
- [10] A. S. Devlin and A. B. Arneill, "Health care environments and patient outcomes: A review of the literature," *Environ. Behav.*, vol. 35, no. 5, pp. 665–694, 2003.
- [11] A. Heydarian, J. P. Carneiro, D. Gerber, B. Becerik-Gerber, T. Hayes, and W. Wood, "Immersive virtual environments versus physical built environments: A benchmarking study for building design and user-built environment explorations," *Autom. Constr.*, vol. 54, pp. 116–126, Jun. 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.autcon.2015.03.020.
- [12] M. Schweitzer, L. Gilpin, and S. Frampton, "Healing Spaces: Elements of Environmental Design That Make an Impact on Health," *J. Altern. Complement. Med.*, vol. 10, no. supplement 1, Art. no. supplement 1, Oct. 2004, doi: 10.1089/acm.2004.10.S-71.
- [13] F. Shaffer, R. McCraty, and C. L. Zerr, "A healthy heart is not a metronome: an integrative review of the heart's anatomy and heart rate variability," *Front. Psychol.*, vol. 5, p. 1040, 2014.
- [14] M. Malik, "Heart rate variability: Standards of measurement, physiological interpretation, and clinical use: Task force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society for Pacing and Electrophysiology," *Ann. Noninvasive Electrocardiol.*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 151–181, 1996.
- [15] J. G. Allen, P. MacNaughton, U. Satish, S. Santanam, J. Vallarino, and J. D. Spengler, "Associations of cognitive function scores with carbon dioxide, ventilation, and volatile organic compound exposures in office workers: a controlled exposure study of green and conventional office environments," *Environ. Health Perspect.*, vol. 124, no. 6, pp. 805–812, 2016.
- [16] S. Saeidi, A. Lowe, N. Johannsen, and Y. Zhu, "Application of immersive virtual environment (IVE) in occupant energy-use behavior studies using physiological responses," in *Computing in Civil Engineering 2017*, 2017, pp. 381–389.
- [17] I. Bower, R. Tucker, and P. G. Enticott, "Impact of built environment design on emotion measured via neurophysiological correlates and subjective indicators: A systematic review," *J. Environ. Psychol.*, vol. 66, Dec. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.jenvp.2019.101344.
- [18] X. Zhang, J. Du, and D. Chow, "Association between perceived indoor environmental characteristics and occupants' mental well-being, cognitive performance, productivity, satisfaction in workplaces: A systematic review," *Build. Environ.*, p. 110985, 2023.
- [19] A. Radwan, M. A.-S. E. Mohammed, and H. Mahmoud, "Architecture and Human Emotional Experience: A Framework for Studying Spatial Experiences: Egypt as a case study," *JES J. Eng. Sci.*, vol. 52, no. 5, pp. 482–497, 2024.
- [20] P. Saha et al., "Novel multimodal emotion detection method using Electroencephalogram and Electrocardiogram signals," *Biomed. Signal Process. Control*, vol. 92, p. 106002, 2024.
- [21] C. J. Beukeboom, D. Langeveld, and K. Tanja-Dijkstra, "Stress-reducing effects of real and artificial nature in a hospital waiting room," *J. Altern. Complement. Med.*, vol. 18, no. 4, 2012, doi: 10.1089/acm.2011.0488.
- [22] M. Heikkilä, I. Verma, and S. Nenonen, "Toward Restorative Hospital Environment: Nature and Art in Finnish Hospitals," *HERD Health Environ. Res. Des. J.*, p. 19375867241239320, 2024.
- [23] L. Sharam, K. Mayer, and O. Baumann, "Design by nature: The influence of windows on cognitive performance and affect," *J. Environ. Psychol.*, vol. 85, p. 101923, 2023.
- [24] H. Alamirah, M. Schweiker, and E. Azar, "Immersive virtual environments for occupant comfort and adaptive behavior research—A comprehensive review of tools and applications," *Build. Environ.*, vol. 207, p. 108396, 2022.

- [25] M. V. Villarejo, B. G. Zapirain, and A. M. Zorrilla, "A Stress Sensor Based on Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) Controlled by ZigBee," *Sensors*, vol. 12, no. 5, Art. no. 5, 2012, doi: 10.3390/s120506075.
- [26] C. Chokwitthaya, S. Saeidi, Y. Zhu, and R. Kooima, "The impact of lighting simulation discrepancies on human visual perception and energy behavior simulations in immersive virtual environment," presented at the Congress on Computing in Civil Engineering, Proceedings, 2017.
- [27] L. Hescong, "Daylight and retail sales," *Heschong Mahone Group Calif. Energy Comm. Fair Oaks*, 2003.
- [28] F. Rodriguez, V. Garcia-Hansen, A. Allan, and G. Isoardi, "Subjective responses toward daylight changes in window views: Assessing dynamic environmental attributes in an immersive experiment," *Build. Environ.*, vol. 195, p. 107720, 2021.
- [29] S. Ergan, Z. Shi, and X. Yu, "Towards quantifying human experience in the built environment: A crowdsourcing based experiment to identify influential architectural design features," *J. Build. Eng.*, vol. 20, pp. 51–59, Nov. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.jobbe.2018.07.004.
- [30] O. Vartanian *et al.*, "Architectural design and the brain: Effects of ceiling height and perceived enclosure on beauty judgments and approach-avoidance decisions," *J. Environ. Psychol.*, vol. 41, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.jenvp.2014.11.006.
- [31] M. Janssen, H. Van Der Voort, and A. Wahyudi, "Factors influencing big data decision-making quality," *J. Bus. Res.*, vol. 70, pp. 338–345, 2017.