

## WestminsterResearch

http://www.westminster.ac.uk/westminsterresearch

The Visually Induced Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ): Estimating Individual Susceptibility to Motion Sickness-Like Symptoms When Using Visual Devices. Golding, J.F.

This is a copy of the accepted author manuscript of the following article: Golding, J.F. 2021. The Visually Induced Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ): Estimating Individual Susceptibility to Motion Sickness-Like Symptoms When Using Visual Devices. Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society. The final definitive version will be available from the publisher Sage at:

http://www.uk.sagepub.com/journals/Journal201912

© The Author(s) 2021

The WestminsterResearch online digital archive at the University of Westminster aims to make the research output of the University available to a wider audience. Copyright and Moral Rights remain with the authors and/or copyright owners.

1	The Visually Induced Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ): Estimating
2	individual susceptibility to motion sickness-like symptoms when using visual devices
3	
4	Behrang Keshavarz <sup>1,2</sup> , Brandy Murovec <sup>1,2</sup> , Niroshica Mohanathas <sup>1,3</sup> , John F. Golding <sup>4</sup>
5	<sup>1</sup> The KITE Research Institute, Toronto Rehab-University Health Network, Toronto, ON, Canada
6	<sup>2</sup> Department of Psychology, Ryerson University, Toronto, ON, Canada
7	<sup>3</sup> Department of Psychology, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada,
8	<sup>4</sup> Department of Psychology, University of Westminster, London, UK
9	
10	MANUSCRIPT TYPE: Extended multi-phase study
11	
12	WORD COUNT: 5,315
13	
14	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:
15	Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to: Dr. Behrang Keshavarz, The
16	KITE Research Institute, Toronto Rehab-University Health Network, 550 University Avenue,
17	Toronto, ON M5G 2A2, Canada. behrang.keshavarz@uhn.ca.
18	BK is supported by a Discovery Grant from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Council (NSERC) of
19	Canada RGPIN-2017-04387.
20	We like to thank Dr. Dave Flora for his comments regarding the statistical analysis and Robert
21	Shewaga for helping with the laboratory setup.

22 Abstract

<b>Objective</b> : Two studies were conducted to develop and validate a questionnaire to
estimate the individual susceptibility to visually induced motion sickness (VIMS). Background
VIMS is a common side-effect when watching dynamic visual content from various sources,
such as Virtual Reality, movie theatres, or smartphones. A reliable questionnaire tool to predict
the individual susceptibility to VIMS is currently missing. The aim was to fill this gap by
introducing the Visually Induced Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ).
Methods: Two independent studies were conducted: A survey and an experimental study.
Survey: The VIMSSQ investigated the frequency of nausea, headache, dizziness, fatigue, and
eyestrain when using different visual devices. Data were collected from a survey of 322
participants for the VIMSSQ and other related phenomena such as migraine. Experimental study
23 participants were exposed to a rotating visual stimulus that induced VIMS. Participants filled
out the VIMSSQ together with other questionnaires and rated their level of VIMS using the
Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ). <b>Results:</b> Survey: The most prominent symptom when
using visual devices was eyestrain, and females reported more VIMS compared to males.
Experimental study: regression analyses suggested that the VIMSSQ is a valuable tool for
predicting VIMS ( $R^2$ = .34) as measured by the SSQ, particularly when used in conjunction with
other questions pertaining to the tendency to avoid visual displays and experience syncope (R <sup>2</sup> =
.59). Conclusion: We generated normative data for the VIMSSQ and demonstrated its validity.
Application: The VIMSSQ can become a valuable and important tool to predict one's
susceptibility to VIMS based on self-reports.

Keywords: simulator sickness, cybersickness, virtual reality, sex, migraine

45	Précis
46	$The\ Visually\ Induced\ Motion\ Sickness\ Susceptibility\ Questionnaire\ (VIMSSQ)\ was\ developed$
47	and validated across two studies. In conjunction with other measures, the VIMSSQ explained
48	59% of the variance in VIMS as measured by the SSQ. We conclude that the VIMSSQ is a
49	valuable tool for estimating individual susceptibility to VIMS.

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

## Introduction

Visually induced motion sickness (VIMS) is a phenomenon similar to traditional motion sickness and is characterized by a variety of symptoms related to gastric activity (e.g., nausea, vomiting, stomach awareness), autonomic responses (e.g., pallor, sweating), arousal (e.g., fatigue, drowsiness, difficulty concentrating), disorientation (e.g., dizziness, vertigo), and/or oculomotor issues (e.g., eyestrain, blurred vision, headache) (Bos et al., 2008; Golding & Gresty, 2015; Robert S. Kennedy et al., 2010; Keshavarz et al., 2014). In contrast to traditional motion sickness, actual physical movement is typically missing during VIMS and symptoms are primarily caused by stimulation of the visual system. The symptomatology of VIMS and traditional motion sickness are very similar, with oculomotor issues such as eyestrain and blurred vision being more common in VIMS. Depending on the visual device, various terms have been used in the literature to describe specific types of VIMS, including video gaming sickness (Frey et al., 2007), Cinerama sickness, Virtual Reality (VR) sickness (Cobb et al., 1999), cybersickness (K. M. Stanney & Kennedy, 1997) or simulator sickness (Kennedy et al., 1989). Here, we use VIMS as a general term that includes all these subcategories. Note that the use of simulators and VR may involve physical motion in certain cases (e.g., motion-based simulators, head tracking in VR), and symptoms experienced using these devices may strictly speaking not be purely visually induced; however, as the visual system is arguably the main contributor to motion sickness-like sensations in these cases, we will include them under the umbrella of VIMS in the present paper. The exact prevalence of VIMS remains unclear, but laboratory research suggests that the

percentage of people experiencing VIMS can vary widely from 1% (Klüver et al., 2015) to 80%

under certain circumstances (Cobb, 1999; Stanney, Mourant, et al., 1998; Stanney et al., 1999),

depending on several factors such as the VR equipment (Frank et al., 1988; Moss & Muth, 2011), the experimental setup (e.g., field-of-view, Bos et al., 2010; Duh et al., 2002), or the visual content (Bubka et al., 2007; Keshavarz, Philipp-Muller, et al., 2018; Palmisano et al., 2007). Additionally, several factors affect an individual's susceptibility to VIMS. For instance, females have been found to report more VIMS than males (Flanagan et al., 2005; Stanney et al., 2020), although the robustness of this finding remains unclear given that some studies could not identify sex-related differences (Curry et al., 2020; Klosterhalfen et al., 2006). Age has been discussed as another prominent factor, with older adults often reporting more VIMS compared to younger adults (Domeyer et al., 2013; Keshavarz, Ramkhalawansingh, et al., 2018). In the present study, we will consider age and sex-related differences to further enhance our understanding about the role of these two factors.

The elevated risk for experiencing VIMS is critical for several reasons. VR technologies have dramatically improved over the last decade, while being affordable and accessible to a broad population. Several VR systems (e.g., Oculus Rift, HTC Vive, Playstation VR) offer a highly realistic, immersive, and multisensory VR experience. In 2018 alone, 3.6 million VR devices were sold world-wide and these numbers are expected to increase. VR is no longer a niche product, but is rather a common tool in several domains, including rehabilitation (Massetti et al., 2018), education (Radianti et al., 2020), research (Loomis et al., 1999), training (Adamovich et al., 2009), mental health (Rizzo et al., 1998), clinical assessment (Rizzo, 2014), and personal entertainment (Bates, 1992). The risk of experiencing VIMS can have a dramatic impact on VR technologies from an economic standpoint and may jeopardize the success and acceptability of these technologies. However, VIMS poses a health concern not only when using VR systems, but also for other visual devices such as video games, cinemas, smartphones, and/or

tablets. Although symptoms associated with VIMS are typically short-lived and resolve within minutes after stopping, they can occasionally last for several hours and affect the user's daily activities (Stanney et al., 1998; Stanney et al., 1999). In addition, VIMS is particularly problematic for those with compromised health conditions, where symptoms such as nausea, headache, or dizziness may worsen an underlying medical condition such as migraines and vestibular disorders. Our modern society increasingly relies on visual technologies and the problems associated with VIMS will become even more important in the near future.

Over the past decades, several techniques have been introduced to reduce or prevent VIMS. The list of countermeasures is long and ranges from simple recommendations about the distance to the visual screen (Bos et al., 2010; Duh et al., 2002), behavioral methods (Keshavarz, 2016; Yen Pik Sang, Billar, et al., 2003), to more complex pharmacological treatments (Golding & Gresty, 2015). The latter is often associated with unwanted side-effects such as drowsiness and is therefore not a feasible solution in most situations. Non-pharmacological treatments such as music (Keshavarz & Hecht, 2014; Peck et al., 2020), controlled breathing (Yen Pik Sang, Golding, et al., 2003), visual reference about true gravity vertical (Duh et al., 2004; Prothero et al., 1999), or airflow (D'Amour et al., 2017) can be effective under certain circumstances, but none of these measures fully prevent VIMS. The most effective treatment available so far remains habituation (Hill & Howarth, 2000; Smither et al., 2008). That is, repeated exposure to the same, nauseating stimulus eventually results in reduced VIMS over time, even in severe cases of VIMS (Rine et al., 1999). However, habituation is time consuming and the specific tolerance acquired from one type of visual technology may not always generalize to other VIMS-inducing situations.

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

Given the lack of reliable methods to prevent VIMS, it is of utmost importance to identify those who are at risk of experiencing VIMS. Unfortunately, reliable methods to predict the susceptibility to VIMS do, to the best of our knowledge, not yet exist. Several methods have been introduced in the past that measure the severity of VIMS after exposure to a VIMSinducing stimulus, such as the Misery Index((Bos, 2015), the Nausea Profile (Muth et al., 1996), the Fast Motion Sickness Scale (Keshavarz & Hecht, 2011), or the Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ, Kennedy et al., 1993). In contrast, no tool exists that can be assessed prior to a VIMS inducing stimulus in order to estimate one's susceptibility to VIMS. Golding introduced the Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (MSSQ; Golding, 1998, 2006) to predict an individual's susceptibility to traditional motion sickness. The MSSQ inquires about a person's past history of motion sickness as a child or adult. The use of the MSSQ has become best practice to predict traditional motion sickness, however, the MSSQ was not designed to predict VIMS. In fact, items referring to visual devices have been deliberately removed from the MSSQ during the development process because, at the time, visual devices as we know them today were not as common, and including these items did not add to the overall predictive power of the MSSO. Since new visual technologies have greatly increased and can now be considered mainstream, a tool that focuses on the susceptibility of VIMS is highly desirable. Thus, our objective is to fill this void by introducing a novel method to predict the susceptibility to VIMS – the Visually Induced Motion Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ). Importantly, note that the VIMSSQ was designed as an addition to the MSSQ, and not a necessarily as substitute thereof.

The present paper consists of two main parts. In the first part, we will describe the development of the VIMSSQ and its relationship to other possible risk factors such as classical

motion sickness susceptibility, migraine, or dizziness. We will present data from a survey with N = 322 participants using the VIMSSQ. In the second part, we will present empirical findings from an experimental study that show the usefulness of the VIMSSQ in predicting VIMS. In this experimental study, we applied the VIMSSQ prior to exposing participants to a VIMS-inducing stimulus. VIMS was measured after stimulus exposure using the Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ, Kennedy et al., 1993), a widely used questionnaire assessing the severity and symptomatology of VIMS.

## Part 1: Development and normative data of the VIMSSQ - Survey study

## Methods

## **Development of the VIMSSQ**

Questionnaire structure. The VIMSSQ was developed with the MSSQ-short (Golding, 2006) in mind. That is, we adopted the assumption that previous incidences of VIMS can successfully predict future episodes of VIMS. However, as the symptomatology of VIMS is more diverse compared to traditional motion sickness (e.g., more oculomotor issues and dizziness; (Lawson, 2014; K. M. Stanney & Kennedy, 1997), we decided to inquire about the frequency of specific symptoms when using visual devices, rather than asking for an overall estimation of the level of VIMS for each visual device. Note that this is in contrast to the MSSQ, which asks how often participants experienced motion sickness without looking at different symptoms separately. Thus, the VIMSSQ focuses on 5 symptoms: nausea, headache, dizziness, fatigue, and eyestrain. Nausea and fatigue are cardinal symptoms of both VIMS and traditional motion sickness, whereas headache, dizziness, and eyestrain are more pronounced in VIMS than in traditional motion sickness (Golding & Gresty, 2005; Keshavarz et al., 2014; Lawson, 2014).

As previously mentioned, the list of other symptoms for VIMS is long and can include pallor,

sweating, burping, blurred vision, general discomfort, vertigo etc.. However, in order to reduce the number of symptoms for inclusion in the VIMSSQ, we decided to focus on symptoms that (a) are most common in VIMS and (b) the user can easily relate to (e.g., it is difficult to self-observe pallor).

The frequency of each of the 5 symptoms had to be rated for 11 common visual devices. The visual devices included 2D movie theater, 3D movie theater, IMAX theater, smartphone (dynamic content like movies), tablet (dynamic content like movies), TV, video games (console or computer), Head Mounted Displays/VR glasses, stationary platform simulators, moving platform simulators, large public moving display advertising or information screen. The frequency of each symptom had to be rated on a 4-point Likert scale (*never*, *rarely*, *sometimes*, *often*) for experiences during adulthood (18 years or older), ignoring childhood experiences; participants could also indicate if they never used a visual device (*never used/not applicable: n/a*).

In addition, the VIMSSQ included a part that asked the user about their habits of using the above mentioned 11 visual devices (*How often have you used or experienced any of these devices or displays during adulthood?*). Again, participants could choose between *never*, *rarely*, *sometimes*, and *often*. This section allowed the researcher to gain insights into how common the usage of different visual displays is and it may help to detect differences between populations in terms of their proficiency with these devices and displays. Finally, a single question at the end of the VIMSSQ inquired whether participants stopped using any of these devices due to increased discomfort (*Have any of these symptoms stopped you from using any of these devices or made you actively avoid viewing such displays?*). If participants responded with *yes*, they were asked to list the types of devices that they stopped using in a free response format. (Note that for the

final version of the VIMSSQ, we decided to change the response format for the avoidance question to match the VIMSSQ response format: 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 1 = sometimes, 3 = often). Overall, the VIMSSQ contained 67 items: 11 items regarding the usage frequency of visual displays and devices, 55 items regarding the frequency of each of the five symptoms, and 1 question regarding the avoidance of any visual devices and displays.

Scoring. The scoring of the VIMSSQ follows Golding's procedure for calculating the MSSQ scores (Golding, 2006). That is, responses for each item are assigned a numeric value (0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, n/a = never used/not applicable). To calculate scores for each of the five subscales nausea (VIMSSQ-N), headache (VIMSSQ-H), dizziness (VIMSSQ-D), fatigue (VIMMSQ-F), and eyestrain (VIMSSQ-ES), the following procedure is applied (see Figure 1): For each subscale, the number of types of visual devices and displays not used by the participant is identified and counted (i.e., the total number of n/a - not used responses, maximum = 11). Next, for each subscale, the score for each of the 11 types of devices/displays is calculated by summing the raw scores for each item (n/a responses counted as zero). To ultimately calculate each VIMSSQ subscale, we used the formula:

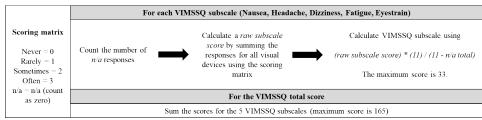
 $(raw\ subscale\ score)*(11)/(11 - n/a\ total)$ 

with 'raw subscale score = score for either nausea, dizziness, fatigue, headache, or eyestrain' and 'n/a total = the total number of n/a responses'. If no types of visual devices are experienced, an error due to a division by *zero* would occur, making it not possible to calculate a VIMSSQ score and estimate VIMS susceptibility, which also provides an internal consistency check. The maximum score for each VIMSSQ subscale is 33. A VIMSSQ total score (VIMSSQ-TS) can be calculated by summing the five subscales.

#### 210 Figure 1

Scoring procedure for the VIMSSQ subscales (upper panel) and the VIMSSQ total score (lower

## *panel*).



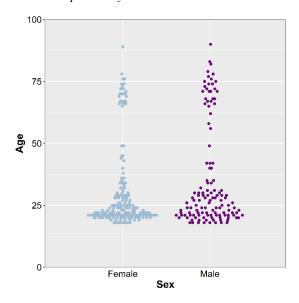
*Note.* Refer to the text for a detailed description of the scoring procedure.

#### **Participants**

A total of 332 participants filled out the VIMSSQ either via an online survey using the platform Qualtrics (n = 140) or as a paper-and-pencil version when they attended experimental studies at The KITE Research Institute-University Health Network (n = 192). In both cases, participants gave their written consent first before filling out the VIMSSQ. The online survey was approved by the research ethics boards of the University Health Network, Canada, and the University of Westminster, United Kingdom. The respective study protocols for the paper-and-pencil version of the VIMSSQ were all approved by the research ethics board of the University Health Network, Canada. Ten participants were removed from the data analysis due to incomplete data sets, resulting in a final sample size of N = 322 ( $M_{age} = 32.89$  years,  $SD_{age} = 18.82$ ). The sample consisted of 195 females ( $M_{age} = 31.26$  years,  $SD_{age} = 17.53$ ) and 126 males ( $M_{age} = 35.38$  years,  $SD_{age} = 20.45$ ). As differences between females and males have been suggested with regards to VIMS severity (Flanagan et al., 2005; Stanney et al., 2020) we will

consider sex as a factor in our analysis. Note that one participant chose not to answer the question regarding their sex and was therefore excluded from all sex-related statistical analysis. A detailed description of the age distribution of the sample is given in Figure 2.

232 Figure 2233 Participants' age distribution separated by sex.



## Other baseline measures

In addition to the VIMSSQ, participants filled out questionnaires related to concepts relevant to VIMS, including their susceptibility to traditional motion sickness, migraines, and the impact of dizziness on daily living. Motion sickness susceptibility was measured using the short version of the MSSQ (Golding, 2006). The MSSQ inquires about the frequency of motion sickness (not applicable, never, rarely, sometimes, often) when travelling or using different modes of transportation (e.g., car, bus, ship, airplane, funfair rides) as a child (before the age of

12) and as an adult (last 10 years). The tendency to experience migraines has been linked to the experience of VIMS in the past (Golding & Patel, 2017) and was measured using the Migraine Screen Questionnaire (Láinez et al., 2010), consisting of five items that are rated on a binary scale (0 = no, 1 = yes). Questions include whether a person experiences frequent or intense headaches and whether the headaches last more than four hours. A total score was calculated by summing the values for each response (max. score = 5), with a score of 4 or higher indicates high propensity to experience migraines. The SWID4, a set of four social, travel, family and work-related questions which has been validated previously (Bronstein et al., 2010) was used to assess the impact of dizziness on social life and work. Participants had to provide yes or no responses to these questions, and the values (no = 0, yes = 1) were summed together to create a total score for SWID (max. score = 4). A single binary item concerning the susceptibility to vasovagal syncope and facilitating factors, circumstances, and symptoms (derived from Bosser et al., 2006) was added.

## Results

#### Device usage

An overview of the usage of visual devices is provided in Figure 3 for male and female participants. To account for the nonnormality of the data (ordinal scales), non-parametric Wilcoxon Rank-Sum tests were calculated to detect differences in the frequency of visual device usage for males and females. Results showed that male participants played significantly more video games than female participants (W = 8080.50, p < .001). No other sex-related differences were found for any of the other visual devices.

## Figure 3

Relative frequency of device usage (in percent) for females (top panel), males (center panel), and

for both combined (bottom panel)

264

265

266

267 268

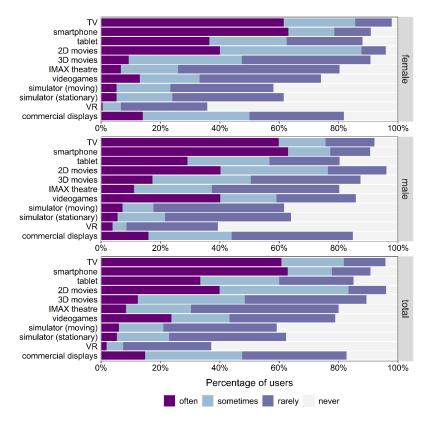
269

270

271

272

273



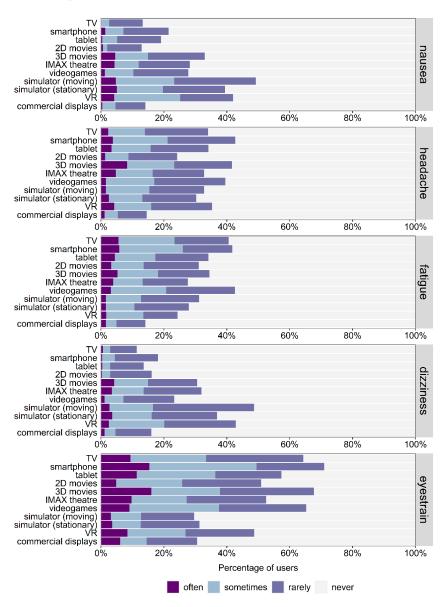
## Symptom frequency, VIMSSSQ scores, device avoidance, and sex

The frequency of each VIMS-related symptom for each of the visual devices is shown in Figure 4. The mean scores for the VIMSSQ subscales nausea, dizziness, fatigue, headache, and eyestrain as well as the VIMSSQ total score are shown in Figure 5 for female and male participants. Detailed statistical information including percentiles for each VIMSSQ subscale are given in Table 1. Independent samples t tests (degrees of freedom corrected for unequal variances, Holm-corrected alpha level, Cohen's d as effect size) were calculated to investigate

284

274 sex-related differences with regards to the VIMSSQ subscales. Females reported significantly 275 higher scores for the VIMSSQ subscales dizziness, t(278) = 2.625, p = .025, headache, t(309) =276 4.327, p < .001, d = .47, d = .30, fatigue, t(296) = 2.476, p = .025, d = .27, eyestrain, t(291)277 =3.120, p = 002, d = .35, and the total score, t(291) = 3.577, p < .001, d = .40,. No significant 278 difference showed for the VIMSSQ subscale nausea, t(257) = 1.660, p = .086, d = .19. 279 Overall, 29.5% of all users indicated that the presence of VIMS-related symptoms caused 280 them to stop (or significantly reduce) the use of certain visual devices. The most common 281 devices that users try to avoid include 3D movies (14.3%), smartphones (5.3%), IMAX theatres 282 (4.3%), video games (3.4%), simulators (4.0%), and VR (2.8%). 283

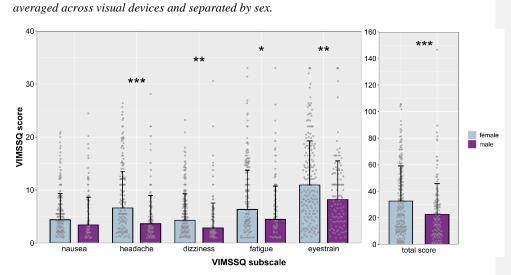
Figure 4
 Relative frequency of reported symptoms for each of the visual devices averaged across sex



*Note*. Participants who never have used a particular visual device were removed to enhance comparability across devices, resulting in different sample sizes for TV (n = 309), smartphone (n = 293), tablet (n = 272), 2D movies (n = 310), 3D movies (n = 288), IMAX theatre (n = 256), videogames (n = 252), simulator moving (n = 189), simulator stationary (n = 298), VR (n = 119), and commercial displays (n = 262).

Figure 5

Mean scores for the VIMSSQ subscales nausea, headache, dizziness, fatigue, and eyestrain



Note. Error bars represent SD. Single dots represent individual scores for each participant.

298 \*p < .05, \*\*p < .01, \*\*\*p < .01.

Table 1
 Descriptive statistics for the VIMSSQ subscales separated by sex

			FEMALE (	n=195)				
VIMSSQ	M	SD	Range	P10	P25	Med	P75	P90
Nausea	4.39	4.96	0 - 20.9	0.00	0.00	3.00	6.29	11.50
Headache	6.62	6.91	0 - 26.4	0.00	0.00	4.71	11.00	17.95
Dizziness	4.29	4.99	0 - 23.22	0.00	0.00	2.75	6.94	12.31
Fatigue	6.35	7.39	0 - 33.00	0.00	0.00	3.67	11.00	16.30
Eyestrain	10.94	8.34	0 - 33	0.00	3.90	9.62	16.75	22.66
Total score	32.59	26.52	0 - 105.6	2.75	11.00	26.40	49.19	71.50
			MALE (n	= 126)				
VIMSSQ	M	SD	Range	P10	P25	Med	P75	P90
Nausea	3.42	5.22	0 – 24.44	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.30	11.50
Headache	3.65	5.33	0 - 28.11	0.00	0.00	1.47	4.93	10.31
Dizziness	2.84	4.71	0 - 30.56	0.00	0.00	1.05	4.09	7.62
Fatigue	4.44	6.29	0 - 33	0.00	0.00	1.22	6.81	12.70
Eyestrain	8.19	7.30	0 - 33	0.00	2.44	6.94	12.43	16.50
Total score	22.54	23.23	0 - 146.67	0.00	6.70	16.50	30.25	51.56
			TOTAL (N	(= 322)				
VIMSSQ	M	SD	Range	P10	P25	Med	P75	P90
Nausea	4.00	5.07	0 - 24.44	0.00	0.00	2.10	6.29	11.90
Headache	5.44	6.49	0 - 28.11	0.00	0.00	2.75	8.25	15.12
Dizziness	3.71	4.92	0 - 30.56	0.00	0.00	2.00	5.50	11.00
Fatigue	5.62	7.02	0 - 33.00	0.00	0.00	2.88	9.90	15.68
Eyestrain	9.87	8.80	0 - 33.00	0.00	3.00	8.80	14.58	20.61
Total score	28.62	25.68	0 - 146.67	1.83	9.17	22.00	41.95	66.00

Note. Med = Median, P10 = 10<sup>th</sup> Percentile, P25 = 25<sup>th</sup> Percentile, P75 = 75<sup>th</sup> Percentile, P90 =

302 90th Percentile

301

## Scale reliability and factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the VIMSSQ subscales nausea, dizziness, fatigue, headache, and eyestrain (frequency of use and avoidance items were omitted) to examine the factor structure of the VIMSSQ. Bivariate distributions between each variable did not suggest the presence of nonlinearity. To account for ordinal nature of the items comprising each subscale, Spearman rank-ordered correlations (N = 322) were utilized for the factor analysis and were all significant (Table 2).

310 Table 2311 Spearman correlations between VIMSSQ subscale measures

	VIMSSQ subscale					
	Nausea	Headache	Dizziness	Fatigue	Eyestrain	
Nausea	1.00					
Headache	.59	1.00				
Dizziness	.58	.53	1.00			
Fatigue	.34	.56	.42	1.00		
Eyestrain	.44	.69	.45	.63	1.00	

*Note.* All correlations are significant at p < .001.

Due to violations of the multivariate normality assumption as assessed by Mardia's Test (skewness coefficient = 622.76, p<.001; kurtosis coefficient = 29.57, p<.001), a Weighted Least Squares (WLS) estimation method was chosen (Flora & Curran, 2004). All factor models were estimated using the lavaan Package (Rosseel, 2012) on the statistical software R (version 4.0.2; R Core Team, 2020). Results suggested a one-factor solution for the set of 5 VIMSSQ subscales (Eigenvalue: 3.27), with a reasonable model fit for the latent factor accounting for 57% of the variance (root-mean-square residuals = .07). All variables had factor loadings of at least .68 and communality values within the range of .46 (VIMSSQ-N) and .77 (VIMSSQ-H). Specifically, it

was found that for every 1-*SD* increase in the latent factor, VIMSSQ-N, VIMSSQ-H, VIMSSQ-D, VIMSSQ-F, and VIMSSQ-ES subscales are predicted to increase by .68, .88, .71, .73 and .77, respectively. A moderate to high MacDonald's omega of .87 demonstrated good scale reliability of the VIMSSQ.

#### VIMSSQ and other variables

Mean scores for participants' susceptibility to traditional motion sickness, migraines, and dizziness are shown in Table 4. Independent samples t tests showed that females reported higher scores than males with respect to the MSSQ-adult subscale, t(288) = 5.051, p < .001, d = .57, and the MSSQ-child subscale, t(279) = 2.32, p = .021, d = .27. Non-parametric tests (Wilcoxon) showed that females also reported significantly higher scores than males with regards to migraines, W = 14931.0, p < .001, dizziness, W = 13271.0, p = .032, and syncope, W = 14557.0, p < .001. Correlations were calculated for each of the VIMSSQ subscales, the MSSQ-child and MSSQ-adult, migraine, dizziness, and age. Results are given in Table 5 and indicate that VIMS and MS are significantly correlated with each other. Interestingly, we found significant, negative correlations between age and all VIMSSQ subscales, indicating that VIMS is less severe with increasing age.

Table 4
 Mean (SD) scores for MSSQ, migraine, and dizziness separated by sex

			Measure		
Sex	MSSQ child	MSSQ adult	Migraine	SWID4	Syncope
sex	$(n = 293)^a$	$(n = 293)^a$	(n = 321)	(n = 321)	(n = 321)
Female	8.34 (6.76)	6.83 (6.01)	1.68 (1.73)	0.26 (0.69)	0.28 (0.46)
Male	6.62 (5.85)	3.68 (4.67)	1.00 (1.41)	0.16 (0.67)	0.09 (0.28)
p value <sup>b</sup>	< .001	.021	< .001	.033	< .001

Note. a MSSQ data for 29 participants were incomplete and could not be calculated;

 $^{\mathrm{b}}$  Significance level for sex comparisons (t test for MSSQ, Wilcoxon tests for migraine and

341 dizziness)

339

340

342

344

345

343 **Table 5** 

Correlations between VIMSSQ, MSSQ, migraine, dizziness, and age

			VIMSSO	) subscale		
Measure	Nausea	Headache	Dizziness	Fatigue	Eyestrain	Total score
MSSQ child <sup>a</sup>	.38**	.28**	.31**	.19**	.28**	.35**
MSSQ adult <sup>a</sup>	.47**	.39**	.29**	.27**	.37**	.44**
Migraine <sup>b</sup>	.16*	.36**	.14	.19**	.29**	.30**
SWID4 <sup>b</sup>	.16*	.14	.22**	.05	.14	.16*
Syncope <sup>b</sup>	.11	.26**	.24**	.18*	.22**	.25**
Age <sup>c</sup>	24**	36**	17**	26**	40**	37**

*Note.* <sup>a</sup> Pearson correlations (n = 293), <sup>b</sup> Spearman correlations (n = 322), <sup>c</sup> Age information for

346 three participants were missing; Pearson correlations (n = 319). \*p < .05, \*\*p < .01

#### **Discussion: Survey study**

The results of the online survey delivered insights into the frequency and severity of different VIMS-related symptoms associated with each device. We found that eyestrain is the most common symptom reported by users, whereas nausea and dizziness are experienced less frequently across all visual devices. Oculomotor issues such as eyestrain have been known to be one of the primary symptoms of VIMS, and this family of symptoms is typically more prominent than gastrointestinal disturbances in VIMS compared to traditional motion sickness (Keshavarz et al., 2014; K. M. Stanney & Kennedy, 1997). Thus, it seems plausible that eyestrain was the most common symptom when using visual devices.

We also found that females reported significantly higher VIMS scores compared to males across all symptoms but nausea. Sex-related differences in VIMS (Flanagan et al., 2005; Klosterhalfen et al., 2006) and traditional motion sickness (Dobie et al., 2001; K. M. Stanney et al., 2003) have been documented in previous studies. The reason for these differences are not well known; hormonal aspects have been discussed as a potential cause, as the menstruation cycle has been shown to affect women's susceptibility to motion sickness (Golding et al., 2005; Grunfeld & Gresty, 1998; Hemmerich et al., 2019). It has also been speculated that females may be more open and more willing to report VIMS compared to men (Ladwig et al., 2000), but scientific evidence supporting this claim is weak (Dobie et al., 2001). Note, however, that Cohen's effect sizes indicate that the sex-related differences found for the VIMSSQ subscales are rather weak or moderate at best. Furthermore, we found negative correlations between age and the VIMSSQ subscales, suggesting that users report less VIMS with increasing age. This finding is surprising, as laboratory research showed that older adults typically report more VIMS compared to younger adults (Brooks et al., 2010; Keshavarz, Ramkhalawansingh, et al., 2018).

However, our findings could be due to the fact that older adults tend to use fewer visual displays than younger adults and use them less frequently, which could explain the overall lower VIMS scores. It could also be possible that older adults report less VIMS due to habituation as a result of continuous exposure to visual devices. More thorough and systematic studies are needed to better understand the relationship between VIMS and age.

Moderately strong correlations between the VIMSSQ scores and other related concepts such as the susceptibility to traditional motion sickness, dizziness, and migraine were found. These correlations suggest that the susceptibility to VIMS is indeed linked to the susceptibility to traditional motion sickness, but that these two phenomena are also independent from each other to some extent, highlighting the need to develop a tool that can specifically predict an individual's susceptibility to VIMS.

With regards to the general usage of visual devices, we found that TV, 2D movies, and smartphones are the most frequently used visual devices for dynamic visual content. In contrast, VR glasses were not commonly used and more than 60% of all participants have never used VR glasses before. This finding is somewhat surprising, given that VR devices are becoming more popular in various domains, such as entertainment, research, or teaching, and have become more affordable and accessible to a broader population. However, our findings suggest that VR is yet to become mainstream and is still a novelty to the majority of survey participants. Around 30% of participants indicated that VIMS-related symptoms make them reduce or fully avoid the use of certain visual devices, particularly 3D movies. This demonstrates that VIMS is indeed a severe issue that interrupts almost a third of users and requires them to adjust their behaviour.

Interestingly, the only sex-related difference with regards to the usage of devices showed for videogames, with males playing significantly more videogames than females, supporting

previous studies that showed similar sex differences for video game usage (Ogletree & Drake, 2007; Terlecki et al., 2011). No other differences between males and females showed with respect to the usage of visual displays.

The scale reliability of the VIMSSQ was high as indicated by MacDonald's Omega and was similar to previous findings (Golding & Keshavarz, 2017). A one-factorial solution for the VIMSSQ was found to be the best fit, suggesting that all subscales of the VIMSSQ indeed measure the latent construct of VIMS susceptibility. Of note, headache and eyestrain had a stronger influence on overall VIMS susceptibility compared to dizziness, fatigue, and nausea. As a next step, we empirically tested the efficacy of the VIMSSQ questionnaire to predict VIMS provoked in an experimental study. The next section will describe the validation process for the VIMSSO.

## Part 2: Validating the VIMSSQ - Experimental study

Methods

## 406 Participants

Twenty-three healthy younger adults (15 females,  $M_{age} = 25.26$  years, SD = 3.89) participated in an experimental study at The KITE Research Institute, the research arm of the Toronto Rehabilitation Institute at the University Health Network (UHN). The study complied with the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Institutional Review Board at UHN. Participants were naïve with respect to the purpose of the study. Written consent was obtained prior to the beginning of the study and participants were reimbursed for their time commitment.

Study design, stimuli, and experimental procedure

Commented [KB1]: Brandy: I added more details about the study, please check carefully and edit if needed

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

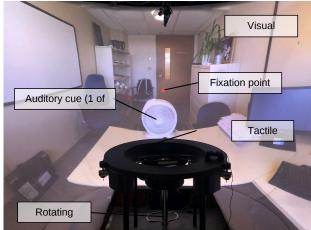
437

The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of multisensory cues on the perception of illusory self-motion, or vection. As vection and VIMS are known to often co-occur (see Keshavarz et al., 2015, for an overview), we saw this study as an appropriate choice to validate the VIMSSQ. Participants were seated in a rotatable chair in the center of a domeshaped laboratory (KITE's StreetLab) with five projectors creating a large, curved image with a field-of-view of 240° horizontally and 110° vertically surrounding them. Participants were exposed to a revolving stimulus that induced the sensation of self-motion along the yaw axis (circular vection). The stimulus contained visual, auditory, and/or tactile cues (see Figure 6): the visual cues consisted of a photorealistic virtual office scene, the auditory cues contained three stationary sound sources (continuous sound of a fan, telephone, and printer) placed within the same virtual office scene, and the tactile cues were provided via a circular handrail within reach that rotated around the participants. All participants were exposed to trials that either included a single sensory input (visual-only, auditory-only, tactile-only), a combination of two (audiovisual, audio-tactile, visual-tactile), and a combination of all three sensory cues (audio-visualtactile). Additionally, the visible field-of-view (FOV) was systematically manipulated by occluding the periphery of the projection screen to 0° (no visual cues), 45° (small FOV), 120° (medium FOV), and 240° (large FOV). Thus, a 2 x 2 x 4 factorial design including the withinsubjects factors visual cues (no visual cues, small FOV, medium FOV, large FOV), auditory cues (present, absent), and tactile cues (present, absent) was chosen, resulting in 16 trials with different sensory cue combinations. Each trial was 45s long (2.5s acceleration phase, 40s constant circular motion, 2.5s deceleration) and was repeated four times, resulting in a total of 64 trials with a combined duration of approximately 45 minutes. Participants were asked to focus on a fixation point superimposed at the center of the screen. Between trials, the screen was

blackened and participants were asked to verbally rate vection intensity and duration. Trials were separated into 4 different blocks (16 trials each, randomized order) with a short rest break between the blocks. The vection results and their relationship to multisensory cues are presented and discussed elsewhere (Murovec et al., 2020).

#### Figure 6

Picture of the experimental setup showing the visual, auditory, and tactile stimuli.



Prior to the experiment,

participants filled out the same questionnaires used for the online survey, including the VIMSSQ, the avoidance question, the MSSQ-short, the Migraine Screen Questionnaire, the SWID4, and the single binary item concerning the susceptibility to vasovagal syncope. Note that the response format for the avoidance question was modified to match the VIMSSQ response format (0 = never, 1 = rarely, 1 = sometimes, 3 = often). Following the experiment (i.e., after the last trial), VIMS symptomology was measured using the Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ; Kennedy et al., 1993). The SSQ contains 16 items associated with VIMS, such as nausea, dizziness, fatigue, or blurred vision, that have to be rated on a scale from 0 (not at all) to 3

(*severe*). Three subscales (nausea, disorientation, oculomotor) as well as a total score can be generated using specific factor weightings suggested by Kennedy et al. (1993).

## Results

All participants reported elevated levels of VIMS after the experiment as measured by the SSQ subscales nausea (M = 22.81, SD = 19.02), oculomotor (M = 28.34, SD = 19.01), disorientation (M = 36.92, SD = 39.95), and the total score (M = 32.85, SD = 24.37). The results for the VIMSSQ subscales and the total score, the MSSQ-short, the Migraine Screen Questionnaire, and the SWID4 are given in Table 6. With regards to avoidance, 39.1% of the participants reported that they occasionally avoid visual devices due to VIMS (17.4% rarely, 21.7% sometimes), whereas the majority of the participants do not avoid using visual devices (60.9%). Four of the 23 participants (17.4%) experienced syncope in the past.

**Table 6**465 *Mean and SD for all questionnaire data* 

	Female	(n = 15)	Male $(n = 8)$		
Measure	M	SD	М	SD	
VIMSSQ Nausea	4.98	6.25	1.30	1.60	
VIMSSQ Headache	6.25	5.34	2.09	1.90	
VIMSSQ Dizziness	3.95	4.09	0.78	0.93	
VIMSSQ Fatigue	5.68	5.95	1.99	3.70	
VIMSSQ Eyestrain	8.37	6.20	5.21	4.35	
VIMSSQ total score	29.23	19.05	11.36	7.76	
Migraine	1.60	2.00	1.13	2.00	
SWID	0.27	1.00	0.00	0.00	
MSSQ-child	9.69	7.61	4.66	3.30	
MSSQ-adult	7.98	5.33	2.50	2.13	

Linear regression models were calculated to estimate the amount of VIMS variance (measured by the SSQ total score) explained by different predictive variables. That is, the VIMSSQ total score, the MSSQ-short subscales child and adult, the Migraine Screen Questionnaire total score, the SWID4 total score, the avoidance tendency score, and the syncope score were included in the regression model. A stepwise forward approach was chosen. Correlations between the SSQ and the predictive factors are shown in Table 7.

Table 7
 Correlations (Pearson) between the SSQ total score and the predictor variables

			Pred	dictor vari	able		
	VIMSSQ	avoidance	MSSQ	MSSQ	Migraina	SWID	Syncope
	total score	avoidance	child	adult	Migraine		
SSQ	.60**	.69**	.38*	.49**	.46*	.11	.36*

Note: \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

Prior to the stepwise procedure, an initial baseline regression model was constructed to examine the raw relationship between the VIMSSQ total score and the SSQ total score (Figure 5). This model was found to be significant, F(1, 21) = 11.52, p = .003, accounting for 35.4% (multiple  $R^2$ ) of the variance in VIMS symptomology. Specifically, it was found that the SSQ total score is predicted to increase by .595 *SD* units for every 1 *SD* increase in the VIMSSQ total score. The model that explained the largest amount of variance contained the VIMSSQ total score, avoidance, and syncope as predictors, accounting for 59% (adjusted  $R^2$ ) of the total variance in the SSQ total score. This model was shown to be a significant improvement from the baseline model, F(2, 19) = 7.85, p = .003. The standardized regression coefficients indicated that avoidance had the strongest influence on the SSQ total score, followed by the VIMSSQ total score and syncope, where every 1 *SD* increase in these variables predicted an increase in the SSQ total score of .506, .381, and .196, respectively. No other variables significantly increased the explained variance further.

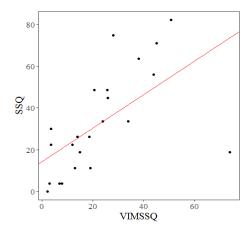
**Commented [KB2]:** Brandy: please check John's comment about this sentence:

The other thing about this statement is if you look at fig 5, then a 1SD increase in VIMSSQ would surely produce a bigger increase in SSQ? 1 SD of VIMSSQ is F 19.05 or M 7.76 (Table 6). If you move say 10 or more VIMSSQ units on x axis, you can eyeball it and see the increase in SSQ must be more like a 10 or more point increase in SSQ on y axis. Maybe I have misunderstood something here and we are talking SDs of SSQ or z-scores? Or ratios?? Might be worth checking elsewhere where moves in SD units are used in the text?

I assume that you wanted to say that a SD of avoidance score increased the SSQ score by .506 SD of the SSQ? Please edits this section accordingly.

#### Figure 5

Scatterplot displaying the relationship between the SSQ total score and the VIMSSQ total score (multiple  $R^2 = 0.354$ )



## **Discussion: Experimental study**

The results of the experimental study demonstrated that the VIMSSQ is a valuable tool to predict the occurrence of VIMS, particularly when combined with other questionnaires; the VIMSSQ alone explained 34% of VIMS variance as measured by the SSQ total score, and this score increased to 59% when questions about avoidance tendencies and syncope experiences were added. In contrast, adding the MSSQ (child and adult) or questions about migraines and dizziness did not increase the amount of explained variance.

These results are in support of previous findings, suggesting that the VIMSSQ can be useful in predicting the occurrence of VIMS (Golding & Keshavarz, 2017; Keshavarz et al., 2019). For instance, a study by Keshavarz et al. (2019) measured the level of VIMS in older and younger adults who participated in a simulated driving study. The VIMSSQ was administered before the drive and was compared to the level of reported VIMS as measured via the Fast

Motion Sickness Scale (FMS, Keshavarz & Hecht, 2011). Results showed that the VIMSSQ worked equally well for younger and older adults and that the VIMMSQ subscale nausea alone was able to predict approximately a third of the variance in the FMS data. When other variables were added, the predictive power increased to more than 40% of the variance.

#### **General Discussion and Conclusion**

The aim of the resent paper was to introduce the VIMSSQ as a questionnaire that can estimate an individual's susceptibility to VIMS. Thus, the present paper described the development process of the VIMSSQ, gathered data from a large sample in order to establish first normative data that could be used as a benchmark, and demonstrated in an experimental study that the VIMSSQ can be a useful tool predicting the occurrence of VIMS as measured by the SSQ. Together with our previous work on the VIMSSQ (Golding & Keshavarz, 2017; Keshavarz et al., 2019), we are gaining confidence in recommending the use of the VIMSSQ in combination with other scales and questions to detect those users of visual devices who might be at elevated risk of experiencing VIMS. Notably, the VIMSSQ seems superior to other existing questionnaires (e.g., MSSQ) in predicting the occurrence of VIMS.

Despite the promising results, additional investigations, particularly with larger participant samples across various populations and various experimental settings (e.g., different visual displays, different stimuli), are highly desirable to further determine the predictive power of the VIMSSQ. For instance, the scatterplot shown in Figure 5 depicts an "outlier" with a very high VIMSSQ score (above 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the norm). Removing this participant from the regression model substantially increased the explained variance of the SSQ to 75%. Thus, studies with larger samples sizes are recommended to establish a more robust model of the VIMSSQ's predictive power. In addition, future studies should also compare the VIMSSQ to different VIMS

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

measures that are more tailored to certain visual devices. Although the SSQ is the most commonly used questionnaire for assessing VIMS, it was originally designed for the use of driving and flight simulators. More recent studies questioned the appropriateness of the SSQ for instance in the context of VR, suggesting that modified versions of the SSQ might be more useful (Sevinc & Berkman, 2020). Thus, we recommend to further investigate the predictive power of the VIMSSQ for alternative measures of VIMS.

One of the main disadvantages of the VIMSSQ is that it is quite lengthy and can be somewhat overwhelming for participants. Thus, a short version of the VIMSSQ was recently proposed and tested (Golding et al., submitted). The short version of the VIMSSQ has a similar structure to the VIMSSQ (i.e., same five symptoms), but does not differentiate between the different visual devices. Instead, users are asked to rate the occurrence of nausea, headache, dizziness, fatigue, and eyestrain for all visual displays together (ranging from 0 = never to 3 = neveroften), resulting in a total of 5 symptom items. The avoidance question from the VIMSSQ was retained, making the short version of the VIMSSQ a 6-item long questionnaire. In the experimental study by Golding et al. (submitted), 30 participants were exposed to a nauseating visual stimulus and filled out the short version of the VIMSSO together with the same set of questionnaires described in the present study (e.g., migraine, SWID4, syncope, MSSQ). Similar to the present findings, the VIMSSQ-short explained approximately 34% of the total variance of VIMS as measured by the VIMSSQ, and this number increased to 56% when other questionnaires were added. This is first proof that a short version of the VIMSSQ might be similarly effective to the long version of the VIMSSQ. However, a direct comparison between the VIMSSQ long and short version is needed in the future and should be conducted with a larger sample size.

550		Key points
551	-	Visually induced motion sickness (VIMS) is a common issue when using visual devices
552	-	Most common symptoms include eyestrain, fatigue, headache, dizziness, and nausea
553	-	Two studies were conducted to develop and validate the Visually Induced Motion
554		Sickness Susceptibility Questionnaire (VIMSSQ)
555	_	The VIMSSQ can be a valuable tool to estimate individual susceptibility to VIMS

556	References
557	Adamovich, S. V., Fluet, G. G., Tunik, E., & Merians, A. S. (2009). Sensorimotor Training in
558	Virtual Reality: A Review. NeuroRehabilitation, 25(1), 29. https://doi.org/10.3233/NRE-
559	2009-0497
560	Bates, J. (1992). Virtual Reality, Art, and Entertainment. Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual
561	Environments, 1(1), 133–138. https://doi.org/10.1162/pres.1992.1.1.133
562	Bos, J. E. (2015). Less sickness with more motion and/or mental distraction. <i>Journal of</i>
563	Vestibular Research: Equilibrium & Orientation, 25(1), 23–33.
564	https://doi.org/10.3233/VES-150541
565	Bos, J. E., Bles, W., & Groen, E. L. (2008). A theory on visually induced motion sickness.
566	Displays, 29(2), 47–57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.displa.2007.09.002
567	Bos, J. E., de Vries, S. C., van Emmerik, M. L., & Groen, E. L. (2010). The effect of internal and
568	external fields of view on visually induced motion sickness. Applied Ergonomics, 41(4),
569	516–521. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2009.11.007
570	Bosser, G., Caillet, G., Gauchard, G., Marçon, F., & Perrin, P. (2006). Relation between motion
571	sickness susceptibility and vasovagal syncope susceptibility. Brain Research Bulletin,
572	68(4), 217–226. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainresbull.2005.05.031
573	Bronstein, A. M., Golding, J. F., Gresty, M. A., Mandalà, M., Nuti, D., Shetye, A., & Silove, Y.
574	(2010). The social impact of dizziness in London and Siena. Journal of Neurology,
575	257(2), 183–190. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-009-5287-z
576	Brooks, J. O., Goodenough, R. R., Crisler, M. C., Klein, N. D., Alley, R. L., Koon, B. L., Logan,
577	W. C., Ogle, J. H., Tyrrell, R. A., & Wills, R. F. (2010). Simulator sickness during

578	driving simulation studies. Accident Analysis & Prevention, 42(3), 788–796.
579	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2009.04.013
580	Bubka, A., Bonato, F., & Palmisano, S. (2007). Expanding and contracting optical flow patterns
581	and simulator sickness. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 78(4), 383-386.
582	Cobb, S. V. (1999). Measurement of postural stability before and after immersion in a virtual
583	environment. Applied Ergonomics, 30(1), 47-57.
584	Cobb, S. V. G., Nichols, S., Ramsey, A., & Wilson, J. R. (1999). Virtual Reality-Induced
585	Symptoms and Effects (VRISE). Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual Environments,
586	8(2), 169–186. https://doi.org/10.1162/105474699566152
587	Curry, C., Li, R., Peterson, N., & Stoffregen, T. A. (2020). Cybersickness in Virtual Reality
588	Head-Mounted Displays: Examining the Influence of Sex Differences and Vehicle
589	Control. International Journal of Human–Computer Interaction, 36(12), 1161–1167.
590	https://doi.org/10.1080/10447318.2020.1726108
591	D'Amour, S., Bos, J. E., & Keshavarz, B. (2017). The efficacy of airflow and seat vibration on
592	reducing visually induced motion sickness. Experimental Brain Research, 235(9), 2811-
593	2820. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-017-5009-1
594	Dobie, T., McBride, D., Dobie, T., Jr, & May, J. (2001). The effects of age and sex on
595	susceptibility to motion sickness. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 72(1),
596	13–20.
597	Domeyer, J. E., Cassavaugh, N. D., & Backs, R. W. (2013). The use of adaptation to reduce
598	simulator sickness in driving assessment and research. Accident Analysis & Prevention,
599	53, 127–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2012.12.039

600	Duh, H. BL., Lin, J. J., Kenyon, R. V., Parker, D. E., & Furness, T. A. (2002). Effects of
601	characteristics of image quality in an immersive environment. Presence: Teleoperators
602	and Virtual Environments, 11(3), 324–332.
603	Duh, H. BL., Parker, D. E., & Furness, T. A. (2004). An independent visual background
604	reduced simulator sickness in a driving simulator. Presence: Teleoperators and Virtual
605	Environments, 13(5), 578–588.
606	Flanagan, M. B., May, J. G., & Dobie, T. G. (2005). Sex differences in tolerance to visually-
607	induced motion sickness. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 76(7), 642-646.
608	Flora, D. B., & Curran, P. J. (2004). An Empirical Evaluation of Alternative Methods of
609	Estimation for Confirmatory Factor Analysis With Ordinal Data. Psychological Methods
610	9(4), 466–491. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.9.4.466
611	Frank, L. H., Casali, J. G., & Wierwille, W. W. (1988). Effects of visual display and motion
612	system delays on operator performance and uneasiness in a driving simulator. Human
613	Factors, 30(2), 201–217.
614	Frey, A., Hartig, J., Ketzel, A., Zinkernagel, A., & Moosbrugger, H. (2007). The use of virtual
615	environments based on a modification of the computer game Quake III Arena® in
616	psychological experimenting. Computers in Human Behavior, 23(4), 2026–2039.
617	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2006.02.010
618	Golding, J. F. (1998). Motion sickness susceptibility questionnaire revised and its relationship to
619	other forms of sickness. Brain Research Bulletin, 47(5), 507-516.
620	Golding, J. F. (2006). Predicting individual differences in motion sickness susceptibility by
621	questionnaire. Personality and Individual Differences, 41(2), 237–248.
622	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.01.012

623	Golding, J. F., & Gresty, M. A. (2005). Motion sickness. Current Opinion in Neurology, 18(1),
624	29–34.
625	Golding, J. F., & Gresty, M. A. (2015). Pathophysiology and treatment of motion sickness:
626	Current Opinion in Neurology, 28(1), 83–88.
627	https://doi.org/10.1097/WCO.0000000000000163
628	Golding, J. F., Kadzere, P., & Gresty, M. A. (2005). Motion sickness susceptibility fluctuates
629	through the menstrual cycle. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 76(10), 970-
630	973.
631	Golding, J. F., & Keshavarz, B. (2017). Predictors of Visually Induced Motion Sickness
632	Susceptibility [Oral presentation]. 6th International Conference on Visually Induced
633	Motion Sensations VIMS 2017, Toronto, Canada.
634	Golding, J. F., & Patel, M. (2017). Meniere's, migraine, and motion sickness. Acta Oto-
635	Laryngologica, 137(5), 495-502. https://doi.org/10.1080/00016489.2016.1255775
636	Grunfeld, E., & Gresty, M. A. (1998). Relationship between motion sickness, migraine and
637	menstruation in crew members of a "round the world" yacht race. Brain Research
638	Bulletin, 47(5), 433–436.
639	Hemmerich, W. A., Shahal, A., & Hecht, H. (2019). Predictors of visually induced motion
640	sickness in women. Displays, 58, 27–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.displa.2018.11.005
641	Hill, K. J., & Howarth, P. A. (2000). Habituation to the side effects of immersion in a virtual
642	environment. Displays, 21(1), 25–30. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0141-9382(00)00029-9
643	Kennedy, R. S., Lilienthal, M. G., Berbaum, K. S., Baltzley, D. R., & McCauley, M. E. (1989).
644	Simulator sickness in U.S. Navy flight simulators. Aviation, Space, and Environmental
645	Medicine, 60(1), 10–16.

646	Kennedy, Robert S., Drexler, J., & Kennedy, R. C. (2010). Research in visually induced motion
647	sickness. Applied Ergonomics, 41(4), 494–503.
648	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2009.11.006
649	Kennedy, Robert S., Lane, N. E., Berbaum, K. S., & Lilienthal, M. G. (1993). Simulator
650	Sickness Questionnaire: An Enhanced Method for Quantifying Simulator Sickness. The
651	International Journal of Aviation Psychology, 3(3), 203–220.
652	https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327108ijap0303_3
653	Keshavarz, B. (2016). Exploring Behavioral Methods to Reduce Visually Induced Motion
654	Sickness in Virtual Environments. In S. Lackey & R. Shumaker (Eds.), Virtual,
655	Augmented and Mixed Reality (Vol. 9740, pp. 147-155). Springer International
656	Publishing. http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-3-319-39907-2_14
657	Keshavarz, B., & Hecht, H. (2011). Validating an Efficient Method to Quantify Motion Sickness.
658	Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 53(4), 415-
659	426. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018720811403736
660	Keshavarz, B., & Hecht, H. (2014). Pleasant music as a countermeasure against visually induced
661	motion sickness. Applied Ergonomics, 45(3), 521–527.
662	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2013.07.009
663	Keshavarz, B., Hecht, H., & Lawson, B. D. (2014). Visually induced motion sickness:
664	Characteristics, causes, and countermeasures. In K. S. Hale & K. M. Stanney (Eds.),
665	Handbook of Virtual Environments: Design, Implementation, and Applications (2nd ed.,
666	pp. 648–697). CRC Press.

667	Keshavarz, B., Philipp-Muller, A. E., Hemmerich, W., Riecke, B. E., & Campos, J. L. (2018).
668	The effect of visual motion stimulus characteristics on vection and visually induced
669	motion sickness. Displays. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.displa.2018.07.005
670	Keshavarz, B., Ramkhalawansingh, R., Haycock, B., Shahab, S., & Campos, J. L. (2018).
671	Comparing simulator sickness in younger and older adults during simulated driving under
672	different multisensory conditions. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology
673	and Behaviour, 54, 47-62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2018.01.007
674	Keshavarz, B., Riecke, B. E., Hettinger, L. J., & Campos, J. L. (2015). Vection and visually
675	induced motion sickness: How are they related? Frontiers in Psychology, 6.
676	https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00472
677	Keshavarz, B., Saryazdi, R., Campos, J. L., & Golding, J. F. (2019). Introducing the VIMSSQ:
678	Measuring susceptibility to visually induced motion sickness. Proceedings of the Human
679	Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting, 63(1), 2267–2271.
680	https://doi.org/10.1177/1071181319631216
681	Klosterhalfen, S., Pan, F., Kellermann, S., & Enck, P. (2006). Gender and race as determinants
682	of nausea induced by circular vection. Gender Medicine, 3(3), 236–242.
683	Klüver, M., Herrigel, C., Preuss, S., & Hecht, H. (2015). Comparing the Incidence of Simulator
684	Sickness in Five Different Driving Simulators. Proceedings of the Driving Simulation
685	Conference Europe 2015, 87–94.
686	Ladwig, K. H., Marten-Mittag, B., Formanek, B., & Dammann, G. (2000). Gender differences of
687	symptom reporting and medical health care utilization in the German population.
688	European Journal of Epidemiology, 16(6), 511–518.
689	https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1007629920752

690	Láinez, M. J., Castillo, J., Domínguez, M., Palacios, G., Díaz, S., & Rejas, J. (2010). New uses
691	of the Migraine Screen Questionnaire (MS-Q): Validation in the Primary Care setting and
692	ability to detect hidden migraine. MS-Q in Primary Care. BMC Neurology, 10(1), 39.
693	https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2377-10-39
694	Lawson, B. D. (2014). Motion sickness symptomatology and origins. In K. S. Hale & K. M.
695	Stanney (Eds.), Handbook of Virtual Environments: Design, Implementation, and
696	Applications (2nd ed., pp. 531-599). CRC Press.
697	Loomis, J. M., Blascovich, J. J., & Beall, A. C. (1999). Immersive virtual environment
698	technology as a basic research tool in psychology. Behavior Research Methods,
699	Instruments, & Computers, 31(4), 557–564. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03200735
700	Massetti, T., da Silva, T. D., Crocetta, T. B., Guarnieri, R., de Freitas, B. L., Bianchi Lopes, P.,
701	Watson, S., Tonks, J., & de Mello Monteiro, C. B. (2018). The Clinical Utility of Virtual
702	Reality in Neurorehabilitation: A Systematic Review. Journal of Central Nervous System
703	Disease, 10. https://doi.org/10.1177/1179573518813541
704	Moss, J. D., & Muth, E. R. (2011). Characteristics of Head-Mounted Displays and Their Effects
705	on Simulator Sickness. Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and
706	Ergonomics Society, 53(3), 308-319. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018720811405196
707	Murovec, B., Spaniol, J., Campos, J. L., & Keshavarz, B. (2020, October 6). The role of visual,
708	auditory, and tactile cues in the perception of illusory self-motion (vection). 3rd
709	Interdisciplinary Navigation Symposium, Virtual Conference.
710	Muth, E. R., Stern, R. M., Thayer, J. F., & Koch, K. L. (1996). Assessment of the multiple
711	dimensions of nausea: The Nausea Profile (NP). Journal of Psychosomatic Research,
712	40(5), 511–520.

713 Ogletree, S. M., & Drake, R. (2007). College Students' Video Game Participation and 714 Perceptions: Gender Differences and Implications. Sex Roles, 56(7), 537–542. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-007-9193-5 715 Palmisano, S., Bonato, F., Bubka, A., & Folder, J. (2007). Vertical Display Oscillation Effects on 716 717 Forward Vection and Simulator Sickness. Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 78(10), 951-956. https://doi.org/10.3357/ASEM.2079.2007 718 719 Peck, K., Russo, F., Campos, J. L., & Keshavarz, B. (2020). Examining potential effects of 720 arousal, valence, and likability of music on visually induced motion sickness. 721 Experimental Brain Research. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00221-020-05871-2 722 Prothero, J. D., Draper, M. H., Furness, T. A., 3rd, Parker, D. E., & Wells, M. J. (1999). The use 723 of an independent visual background to reduce simulator side-effects. Aviation, Space, 724 and Environmental Medicine, 70(3 Pt 1), 277-283. Radianti, J., Majchrzak, T. A., Fromm, J., & Wohlgenannt, I. (2020). A systematic review of 725 immersive virtual reality applications for higher education: Design elements, lessons 726 727 learned, and research agenda. Computers & Education, 147, 103778. 728 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.103778 729 Rine, R. M., Schubert, M. C., & Balkany, T. J. (1999). Visual-vestibular habituation and balance training for motion sickness. Physical Therapy, 79(10), 949-957. 730 731 Rizzo, A. A., Wiederhold, M., & Buckwalter, J. G. (1998). Basic issues in the use of virtual 732 environments for mental health applications. Studies in Health Technology and 733 Informatics, 58, 21-42.

734	Rizzo, M. "Skip." (2014). Clinical virtual reality. In K. S. Hale & K. M. Stanney (Eds.),
735	Handbook of Virtual Environments: Design, Implementation, and Applications (2nd ed.,
736	pp. 1159–1204). CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group.
737	Rosseel, Y. (2012). lavaan: An R Package for Structural Equation Modeling. <i>Journal of</i>
738	Statistical Software, 48(1), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v048.i02
739	Sevinc, V., & Berkman, M. I. (2020). Psychometric evaluation of Simulator Sickness
740	Questionnaire and its variants as a measure of cybersickness in consumer virtual
741	environments. Applied Ergonomics, 82, 102958.
742	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2019.102958
743	Smither, J. AA., Mouloua, M., & Kennedy, R. (2008). Reducing Symptoms of Visually
744	Induced Motion Sickness Through Perceptual Training. The International Journal of
745	Aviation Psychology, 18(4), 326-339. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508410802346921
746	Stanney, K., Fidopiastis, C., & Foster, L. (2020). Virtual Reality Is Sexist: But It Does Not Have
747	to Be. Frontiers in Robotics and AI, 7. https://doi.org/10.3389/frobt.2020.00004
748	Stanney, K. M., Hale, K. S., Nahmens, I., & Kennedy, R. S. (2003). What to Expect from
749	Immersive Virtual Environment Exposure: Influences of Gender, Body Mass Index, and
750	Past Experience. Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics
751	Society, 45(3), 504-520. https://doi.org/10.1518/hfes.45.3.504.27254
752	Stanney, K. M., & Kennedy, R. S. (1997). The Psychometrics of Cybersickness. Commun. ACM
753	40(8), 66–68. https://doi.org/10.1145/257874.257889
754	Stanney, K. M., Kennedy, R. S., Drexler, J. M., & Harm, D. L. (1999). Motion sickness and
755	proprioceptive aftereffects following virtual environment exposure. Applied Ergonomics
756	<i>30</i> (1), 27–38.

757	Stanney, K. M., Mourant, R. R., & Kennedy, R. S. (1998). Human Factors Issues in Virtual
758	Environments: A Review of the Literature. <i>Presence</i> , 7(4), 327–351.
759	https://doi.org/10.1162/105474698565767
760	Stanney, K. M., Salvendy, G., Deisinger, J., DiZio, P., Ellis, S., Ellison, J., Fogleman, G.,
761	Gallimore, J., Singer, M., Hettinger, L., Kennedy, R., Lackner, J., Lawson, B., Maida, J.,
762	Mead, A., Mon-Williams, M., Newman, D., Piantanida, T., Reeves, L., Witmer, B.
763	(1998). Aftereffects and sense of presence in virtual environments: Formulation of a
764	research and development agenda. International Journal of Human-Computer
765	Interaction, 10(2), 135–187. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327590ijhc1002_3
766	Terlecki, M., Brown, J., Harner-Steciw, L., Irvin-Hannum, J., Marchetto-Ryan, N., Ruhl, L., &
767	Wiggins, J. (2011). Sex Differences and Similarities in Video Game Experience,
768	Preferences, and Self-Efficacy: Implications for the Gaming Industry. Current
769	Psychology, 30(1), 22–33. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-010-9095-5
770	Yen Pik Sang, F. D., Billar, J. P., Golding, J. F., & Gresty, M. A. (2003). Behavioral methods of
771	alleviating motion sickness: Effectiveness of controlled breathing and a music audiotape.
772	Journal of Travel Medicine, 10(2), 108–111.
773	Yen Pik Sang, F. D., Golding, J. F., & Gresty, M. A. (2003). Suppression of sickness by
774	controlled breathing during mildly nauseogenic motion. Aviation, Space, and
775	Environmental Medicine, 74(9), 998–1002.
776	

777	Biographies
778	Behrang Keshavarz is a Scientist at The KITE Research Institute-University Health Network and
779	an Assistant Professor (adjunct) at the Department of Psychology at Ryerson University,
780	Toronto, Canada. He received his PhD in General and Experimental Psychology from the
781	Johannes Gutenberg University Mainz, Germany, in 2012.
782	
783	Brandy Murovec is a PhD student at The KITE Research Institute-University Health Network
784	and the Department of Psychology at Ryerson University, Toronto, Canada. She received her
785	Masters of Arts in Psychology from Ryerson University, Canada, in 2020.
786	
787	Niroshica Mohanathas is a PhD student at The KITE Research Institute-University Health
788	Network and the Department of Psychology at the University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada. She
789	received her Masters of Arts in Psychology from the University of Toronto, Canada, in 2020.
790	
791	John F. Golding is a Professor at the Department of Psychology at the University of Westminster
792	in London, UK. He received his PhD in Experimental Psychology from Oxford University, UK,
793	in 1980.