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The Impact of a View from a Window on Thermal Comfort, Emotion, and Cognitive Performance

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Abstract
Visual connection to nature has been demonstrated to have a positive impact on attention restoration, stress reduction, and overall health and well-being. Inside buildings, windows are the primary means of providing a connection to the outdoors, and nature views even through a window may have similar effects on the occupants. Given that humans recognize environments through multi-sensory integration, a window view may also affect occupants’ thermal perception. We assessed the influence of having a window with a view on thermal and emotional responses as well as on cognitive performance. We conducted a randomized crossover laboratory experiment with 86 participants, in spaces with and without windows. The chamber kept the air and window surface temperature at 28 °C, a slightly warm condition. The outcome measures consisted of subjective evaluations (e.g., thermal perception, emotion), skin temperature measurements and cognitive performance tests. In the space with versus without windows, the thermal sensation was significantly cooler (0.3 thermal sensation vote; equivalent to 0.74 °C lower), and 12 % more participants were thermally comfortable. Positive emotions (e.g., happy, satisfied) were higher and negative emotions (e.g., sad, drowsy) were lower for the participants in the window versus the windowless condition. Working memory and the ability to concentrate were higher for participants in the space with versus without windows, but there were no significant differences in short-term memory, planning, and creativity performance. Considering the multiple effects of window access, providing a window with a view in a workplace is important for the comfort, emotion, and working memory and concentration of occupants.

Keywords
Window, view, thermal comfort, emotion, cognitive performance, biophilic design
1. Introduction

While early research and the current standards mostly focused on establishing the acceptable ranges of environmental conditions to reduce negative effects (e.g., discomfort or adverse health effects) [1–6], a new perspective on indoor environmental quality (IEQ) has gained traction in building research and practices in the past few years. With increasing attention in the building community being given to enhancing positive impacts on occupants, a growing body of research extends beyond the simple acceptability of indoor conditions to their influence on health, well-being, and productivity [7–9]. In order to promote the positive effects of the built environment, it is important to identify the most relevant parameters and attributes, while understanding the interactions and tradeoffs among IEQ factors. For example, one of the factors that provides a positive effect is a connection to nature. This concept is known as “biophilia” [10,11], and it is gaining prominence in the building industry [12–14].

In the built environment, providing a connection to nature positively impacts occupants’ well-being [15,16] and satisfaction with a built space [17]. By reducing discomfort [18] and stress [19,20], biophilia thereby moderates the negative impact of job stress, which could otherwise lead to an increased probability of leaving one’s job [21]. In buildings, windows are the primary means of providing this connection to the natural outdoors. Within areas near windows, occupants likely experience strong and varied sensory stimuli from the external environment. Vision is the primary sense that humans use to process their surroundings [22]. Given that humans recognize environments through multi-sensory integration [23,24], vision may have a relevant influence on how we perceive other senses. It may have psychological and physiological interactions with other sensory perceptions, such as thermal responses [25–27]. Hence, a window view may influence how we perceive different thermal environments in a given building. Visual and thermal comfort are subjective phenomena influenced by a range of
factors that may differ when there are simultaneous inputs from other sensory systems (e.g., auditory, visual, tactile). Therefore, we must consider the possible interactions between visual and thermal perceptions. Ignoring the possible connections between these sensory systems could lead to ineffective design that could result in occupant discomfort or decreased performance, or even building performance issues such as energy waste.

While it is not known conclusively whether occupants’ thermal responses differ when there is visual connection to the outdoors, there is some prior research that suggests this could be important. Some evidence shows that a visual connection to the outdoors can have a positive impact on the occupants’ overall perceptions of the built environment, leading to flexibility in their expectations [28]. For instance, if we take this general concept and hypothesize that having a view to the outdoors could help occupants increase their satisfaction with a wider indoor temperature range, then we could relax the temperature setpoints, which would then allow a reduction in building energy consumption [29–32]. A reasonable amount of variability in the acceptable range may even be preferable for occupants [3,14]. For designers, it would be important to define the relevant parameters (i.e., view, daylight, and thermal conditions) and the interaction or tradeoffs between these parameters with regards to how they ultimately impact occupants’ comfort, well-being and cognitive performance.

2. Problem statement
Previous studies investigated the impact of visual connection to nature on people, but it is rare to find studies that focus on the effects of a view from a window alongside consideration of the thermal environment. For example, most studies:

- use artificial visual stimuli (e.g., photos, images, and video clips) to represent the natural environment for an experiment [20,33–39] or;
- include outdoor activities rather than provide visual connection to nature within the built environment [40,41], or;
- do not control or monitor other environmental qualities (e.g., thermal) [16–18,42–45].

To consider the effects of a window view in building design and control, designers and engineers need quantifiable findings from well-controlled studies to explain the sole effects of a window and its view. In this regard, additional research is necessary to address the psychological and cognitive impacts of a view from a window on occupants and the subsequent tradeoffs with thermal comfort. The current research aims to address these considerations and explore:

- How do people’s subjective appraisals of the thermal environment differ when they have visual connection to the outdoors through a window? Specifically, can occupants relax their expectations of the thermal environment or accept a wider temperature range (slightly warm or cool) when they have access to outdoor views?
- What are the emotional and cognitive effects of visual connection to the outdoors through a window? Can the view through a window improve psychological well-being and cognitive performance?
To overcome the research gaps and answer these questions, we assessed the influence of an outdoor view on occupants’ thermal comfort, emotions, and cognitive performance through a laboratory study with human participants.

3. Method
3.1 Experimental design
We conducted a human subjects test using a randomized crossover study design. Each subject participated in two consecutive sessions with different environmental conditions: one with windows and one without. To avoid order effect, we counterbalanced the order and randomly assigned participants to their order (first window then windowless, or first windowless then window; 43 participants in each condition). Participants completed the same measures (see Section 3.5), in the same sequence for both conditions (Figure 1-D). The experiments took place between September to October 2018.

3.2 Participants
A total of 86 participants (43 males and 43 females) took part in the experiments. We recruited participants through posted flyers and email invitations, representing a sample of undergraduate and graduate students from the University of California, Berkeley. The pre-selection process was based on the following criteria: participants needed to be at least 18 years of age, have no vision impairments (e.g., color blindness, eye disorders), no sleep disorders, and no medications or night shifts that might influence their sleep patterns. The Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects at the University of Berkeley has reviewed and approved the study protocol (2018-06-11172). All participants provided informed consent, and each participant was compensated $45 for a 1-hour orientation and 2-hour experimental session.

3.3 Test room set-up and equipment
We conducted the study in the Controlled Environmental Chamber at the University of California, Berkeley, an office-like test room, which measures 5.5 m x 5.5 m x 2.5 m (Figure 1-A and 1-C; [46,47]). The chamber has overhead lighting (5,000 K) and the air handling system maintains desired air conditions in the main chamber. The plenum-wall facing the exterior allows a continuous stream of temperature-controlled air to pass between the inner (single-pane) and outer (double-pane) glazing of the windows (2.2 m x 1.5 m, 48 % Window-to-Wall Ratio). It controls the surface temperature of the windows, and the exterior wall surface temperature around the windows. The windows are shaded by large overhangs and trees in front, allowing only diffused daylight (~ 150 lux; horizontal illuminance at the desk level) to enter the space (Figure 1-B). In order to create the two conditions (one with a window and one without), we placed a floor to ceiling curtain in the middle of the chamber. Both spaces were the same target temperature, 28 °C, a slightly warm conditions based on ASHRAE Standard 55’s thermal comfort range [2,48]. Additionally, we monitored the physical environmental conditions (air temperature, air speed, relative humidity, radiant temperature, light level, and CO2 level) and outdoor conditions (i.e., solar radiation and air temperature obtained from the weather station at the Lawrence Berkeley National Lab [49]). Appendix A summarizes the device and measurement uncertainty.
**C. Experimental conditions**

Without windows  
With windows  

**D. Procedure**

![Procedure Diagram]

**Figure 1:** A. Graphical floor plan of the climatic chamber; B. View through the windows; C. Experimental conditions: the space without windows (L) and the space with windows (R); D. Experimental procedure.
3.4 Procedure
3.4.1 The preparation for the main session
Before the day of the experiment, we offered an orientation session for participants. The goal of the orientation was to outline the experiment and to have participants practice the cognitive performance tests in order to minimize the learning effects (i.e., increase in a participant's test score from one administration to the next). Next, we invited four participants to the main experiment at a time according to their availability. During the experiment, they were required to wear a long-sleeve shirt, trousers, and closed-toe shoes with socks to reflect a 0.7 clothing insulation value [2]. The experiment lasted two hours (either 10 am to 12 pm, or 2 to 4 pm) and consisted of two consecutive sessions of 55 minutes each, including a ten-minute break in the reception area. The structure of the two sessions was identical except for the environmental manipulation (i.e., with windows or without).

3.4.2 The main session procedure
Figure 1-D describes the procedures of the experiment. On the experiment day, we randomly assigned four participants to the initial condition they would experience: two participants at the space with windows and the other two at the space without windows. After the first session, they switched to the reversed window condition for the second session. There was no odd number but we dropped the data from two participants who violated rules of experiments (e.g., drinking iced water in one of the sessions). Once they settled at the designated workstation, we helped them to attach skin temperature sensors (iButton; DS1921H-F5, Maxim Integrated, USA) at four body locations (back of the neck, right scapula, left hand, and right shin) following ISO 9886 [50]. We gave participants an initial survey that included questions about their thermal perceptions of the space, emotion, perceived stress level. Next, participants completed a creativity performance test. Following the creativity tests, we gave participants a 5-minute break at their assigned workstation. During the break, we asked them not to use any electronic devices (e.g., laptops or mobile phones). We deliberately assigned the brief break to allow participants the potential to recover their attentional capacity before the cognitive performance tests, recognizing that this effect might differ in the spaces with and without windows. According to the Attention Restoration Theory [51], engaging with nature effortlessly allows people to recover the ability of directed-attention. As it is a single-blind study where the participants do not know the main objectives and hypotheses of the study, we did not force them to look out of the window during the break if they were in that space. Rather, we hoped that by asking them not to use any electronic devices, it would naturally motivate those who had windows to look outside, as they did not have much else to do during the break. After the break, they performed the cognitive tests and completed a final survey, which was same as the initial survey including an additional survey on eye symptoms. After the survey, participants took a 10-minute break in the reception area. After this second, longer break, they repeated the same procedure in the reversed window condition.
3.5 Measures

3.5.1 Thermal perceptions

We measured subjective thermal perceptions of participants with a survey questionnaire aimed at measuring in-the-moment thermal sensation, comfort, acceptability, and pleasure. The participants answered questions about their thermal sensation using the ASHRAE seven-point continuous scale from “cold” to “hot.” Both thermal comfort and acceptability scales also used a seven-point continuous scale from “very uncomfortable” or “very unacceptable” to “very comfortable” or “very acceptable” with an exclusion of the non-zero value as there is no neutral value for comfort or acceptability. The thermal pleasure scales ranged from “very unpleasant” to “very pleasant” [52,53]. Here, we only report the data from the final thermal comfort survey given because we are interested mainly in steady-state conditions. We also collected the skin temperature for four body parts of each participant and calculated the mean skin temperature \( t_{sk} \) under the warm condition based on the following equation from ISO 9886 [50]:

\[
\begin{align*}
t_{sk} &= 0.28 t_{neck} + 0.28 t_{scapula} + 0.16 t_{left\ hand} + 0.28 t_{skin}
\end{align*}
\] (1)

\[\text{Figure 2: The affective circumplex: emotion octant and items [55]}\]

3.5.2 Emotion

To comprehensively assess the emotional state of the participants, we used the circumplex model [54,55]. Figure 2-A describes the model which yields eight emotion categories and Figure 2-B shows the items for each octant. Specifically, the model posits a structure of emotion in which four poles (on an x–y axis) represent different emotional states, from low-arousal to high-arousal, and from negative to positive emotion. Some studies in landscape [56,57] and lighting [58] used the model to measure emotional states, and it is also one of the most widely used and
validated measure in psychological research of emotion [59]. Our survey questionnaire asked participants “To what extent do you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment?” by using a Likert scale ranging from “1” (not at all) to “5” (extremely). The acronyms in Figure 2-B will be used when discussing results.

3.5.3 Cognitive performance
To assess the impact of a window view on cognitive performance of the occupants, we used four modules of Cambridge Brain Sciences, a web-based platform for the assessment of cognitive function [60]. The modules used were Token Search (working-memory), Double Trouble (concentration), Digit Span (short-term memory), and Spatial Planning (planning). Appendix B describes each test in detail. Their selection was based on the Attention Restoration Theory [51] and related studies [41,61,62], which have shown that the participants’ experience with nature improved their concentration, short-term or working memories. We also included the planning task that requires executive function (e.g., brain-reasoning and forward-thinking), which knowledge workers would need to perform their task successfully [63]. The cognitive performance tests took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The participants who finished the tests earlier than others took rest at their workstation while waiting for everyone in the session to complete.

In addition to the Cambridge Brain Sciences’ four modules, we administered a creativity performance test. To do so, we adapted the Alternative Uses Task (AUT) that evaluates the creativity construct of divergent thinking [64]. Creativity is an essential psychological ability that both organizations and individual workers need to perform their knowledge-based tasks successfully. The AUT is the commonly used creativity test in both building science and environmental psychology research [65–69]. As an example of previous findings, these studies found an enhanced ability to think of alternative uses for a common object under the experimental conditions with more environmental stimuli or more spacious scenery. The creativity performance tests took 10 minutes to complete.

3.5.4 Eye symptoms and perceived stress level
As contemporary office tasks have become increasingly computer-based, 90% of computer workers experience Computer Vision Syndrome due to performing a sustained near-vision task [70]. Windows in the office environment may provide an opportunity for occupants to look away from electronic screens, thus relieving eye muscle fatigue [71,72]. To assess the window effect, we asked participants to complete a questionnaire asking about their level of ocular discomfort in the final survey that was administered in each experimental condition. This questionnaire [70] asks participants to rate ten elements related to multiple ocular symptoms (e.g., dry eye, blurred vision) by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “1” (not at all) to “5” (extremely).

In addition to the eye symptom measures, we also included perceived stress level ratings, the common items on questionnaires in environmental psychology that investigates the effect of exposure to natural environment [35,38]. We asked participants to rate their perceived stress level at the moment using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “1” (not at all) to “5” (extremely).
3.5.5 Potential moderator variables

Individual differences (e.g., body mass index (BMI), sex) and contextual factors (e.g., time of day, illuminance level) may affect occupants' environmental responses. The effects of these factors in indoor environmental quality research have been extensively studied [73–75], yet in previous studies, these variables have not been commonly controlled or measured. As the present study includes various psychological and cognitive outcome measures, we tried to collect any personal and contextual factors that may influence the results. Table 1 summarizes these factors.

We considered sex and order of the experimental conditions (first window then windowless, or first windowless then window), but balanced them across conditions. Previous studies found that perceptions of the environment and related psychological impacts differ across females and males. This has been found in studies of thermal comfort [76–78], visual perception [79,80], and cognitive performance [81,82]. Order effect has also been a potential moderating factor in similar experimental designs [27,61]. By randomizing and counterbalancing sex and order of the experimental conditions, we distributed these effects evenly across the experimental conditions so they did not confound the outcomes of interest for each experimental condition.

We also collected participants’ BMI, a measure of body fat based on a person’s weight and height, as previous studies demonstrate that it is correlated to the thermal response of individuals [83]. We also recorded the “time of the day” the experiment took place, as it may influence on emotional response [84]. We were not able to balance it across the experiment due to the conditions of the climatic chamber and to participants’ availability (47% of the experiments were in the morning and 53% in the afternoon). Indoor horizontal illuminance level at the desk and outdoor solar radiation level are also considered as potential moderating factors as they changed slightly across conditions due to weather conditions.

Table 1: Potential factors may moderate the effect of the experimental conditions (i.e., with or without windows) on the outcome measures.

| Factor                          | Balanced Factor | Observed Factor | Outcome variables |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Order of the experimental       | X               |                 | ALL               |
| conditions                      |                 |                 |                   |
| Sex                             | X               |                 | ALL               |
| Horizontal Illuminance at desk  |                 | X               | ALL               |
| Outdoor solar radiation level   |                 | X               | ALL               |
| Time of the day                 |                 | X               | Emotion           |
| Body Mass Index (BMI)           |                 | X               | Thermal perceptions |
3.6 Statistical analysis

We tested the effects of the experimental conditions (i.e., with or without windows) on the outcome measures (e.g., thermal perceptions, emotion and cognitive performance) with permutation tests. Permutation tests are non-parametric tests that do not rely on a model (i.e., parametric assumptions and given distribution) [85]. The permutations randomly switch (with probability 0.5) the window and windowless label within each participant, and then we look at the mean difference between the window and windowless condition for each permutation. The \( p \)-value is the number of the permutation mean differences that are larger than the observed mean difference. For the permutation tests, we used the Asymptotic General Symmetry Test that paired results from the same individual with and without the window condition (i.e., repeated measure) and then analyzed the difference between the conditions for each individual. To assess if the potential moderator variables (Section 3.5.5) influenced the effect of the window vs. windowless experimental conditions, we used the Asymptotic General Independence Test, which treats the moderator variable groups (e.g., male versus female) as independent samples, and tests if there is a difference in the effect of the experimental conditions between the moderator variable groups. After we calculated the \( p \)-values from the permutation tests, we applied the Bonferroni correction factor to the critical alpha levels of each outcome family to control the familywise error rate. The family Bonferroni correction reduces type I error (risk of finding spurious effect) but it increases type II error (risk of missing real effect). We used this conservative approach to increase the confidence of the discovered effects, by dividing the critical \( p \)-value for significance (0.05) by the number of tests in each family of the outcome measures. For example, we set the critical alpha value as 0.0125 (0.05/4) for the thermal perception questions as it has four tests. For the emotion questions, we set the critical alpha value as 0.00625 (0.05/8) as it has eight tests. We did not apply the correction factor to the cognitive performance results as each test is independent of each other, and the selection of each test was based on the previous literature that supports the significant effects of nature on the five cognitive functions. In addition, we did not find any strong reason to avoid type I error as having a window in a space may not cause any serious negative impact on the cognitive function of the occupants. To test effect sizes, we reported \( r \) values [86]. According to previous literature, we can interpret effect size using the thresholds for a recommended negligible (< 0.2), small (0.2 - 0.5), moderate (0.5 - 0.8), and large effect (> 0.80) [87]. There are some debates related to the thresholds which we will discuss in Section 5.5. We used the statistical software R [88] and the R package “coin” [89] to perform the permutation tests.

4. Results

4.1 Environmental conditions

We monitored IEQ physical factors (i.e., thermal, lighting, and air quality) to ensure that the environmental conditions of the two spaces (i.e., with and without windows) were considered to be identical. We measured the operative temperature at three levels (0.1, 0.6, and 1.1 m) of each space, and calculated the numerical average, which represents the thermal condition of seated
occupants [2]. The average operative temperatures were the same ($M_{\text{window}} = 28.0 \, ^\circ C$, $SD_{\text{window}} = 0.2 \, ^\circ C$; $M_{\text{windowless}} = 28.0 \, ^\circ C$, $SD_{\text{windowless}} = 0.1 \, ^\circ C$). The difference between the two spaces per session was less than 0.3 °C ($M_{\text{windowless-window}} = 0.0 \, ^\circ C$, $SD_{\text{windowless-window}} = 0.1 \, ^\circ C$). We also measured horizontal illuminance levels at the desk (i.e., task plane, 0.73 m from the floor) to assess the lighting condition of each space over the experiments [90]. While the windowless condition had continuous illuminance level ($M = 450 \, \text{lux}$, $SD = 0.1 \, \text{lux}$), the illuminance level of the window condition changed slightly across experiments ($M = 461 \, \text{lux}$, $SD = 39.5 \, \text{lux}$). It was due to the temporal effect of diffused daylight each day, but the values did not vary much across the experiments and were within the recommended indoor lighting level [90]. The sky conditions during the experiments were mostly clear and sunny (outdoor solar radiation; $M = 541 \, \text{W/m}^2$, $SD = 120 \, \text{W/m}^2$). The prevailing mean outdoor temperatures ranged from 14 °C to 17 °C ($M = 15.7 \, ^\circ C$, $SD = 0.8 \, ^\circ C$). The other measured thermal (i.e., relative humidity, air speed) and air quality (i.e., CO₂ level) factors did not vary significantly across the experiments and were within allowable ranges for indoor environments [1,2]. Appendix A summarizes the measured values.

4.2 Thermal perceptions

At the slightly warm ambient condition (28 °C), the participants reported feeling slightly cooler in the window condition compared to when they were in the windowless condition (Figure 3-A). Participants’ mean thermal sensation vote (TSV) was 0.3 lower in the window condition ($Z = -2.72$, $p = 0.006$, $r = 0.29$). Further, 12 % more participants were thermally comfortable in the window condition ($Z = 2.99$, $p = 0.003$, $r = 0.32$; Figure 3-B). 7% more of participants felt that the thermal environment in the window condition was pleasant ($Z = 2.95$, $p = 0.003$, $r = 0.32$; Figure 3-D) even though the thermal environment of the two spaces were identical (See Appendix C for additional graphs). After the Bonferroni correction ($p < 0.0125$; 0.05/4), the results of thermal acceptability of participants were not statistically different. We found that 5% more participants, a relatively small number, reported acceptance of the thermal environment of the window condition compared to that of the windowless condition ($Z = 2.33$, $p = 0.02$, $r = 0.25$; Figure 3-C). The results of participants’ mean skin temperature measurements showed no statistically significant differences ($Z = 1.69$, $p = 0.09$, $r = 0.18$) between the window condition ($M = 33.76$, $SD = 2.47$) and the windowless one ($M = 33.78$, $SD = 2.48$), thus indicating that the physiological conditions influenced by the thermal conditions of the two spaces were not significantly different.

4.3 Emotion

Overall, participants reported LAP emotion during the experiment such that LAP emotion ratings were higher than all other emotions (Figure 3-E). When comparing the window to the windowless condition, as indicated in Table 2, participants reported small but statistically significant ($p < 0.00625$; 0.05/8), higher positive emotions (P) and lower negative emotions (LAN and N). The window condition did not have a significant main effect on HAP, LAP, HAN, HA or LA.
Table 2: Effect of being in the space with windows versus without on emotion: Z-statistics, statistical significance (p-value; permutation test), and effect size (r).

| Octant                                | Z     | p-value      | Effect size (r) |
|----------------------------------------|-------|--------------|-----------------|
| High-arousal positive (HAP)            | 2.32  | 0.02         | 0.25 (small)    |
| Positive (P)                           | 3.37  | 0.0007 *     | 0.36 (small)    |
| Low-arousal positive (LAP)             | 2.17  | 0.03         | 0.23 (small)    |
| Low-arousal (LA)                       | -1.57 | 0.12         | 0.17 (negligible)|
| Low-arousal negative (LAN)             | -3.27 | 0.001 *      | 0.35 (small)    |
| Negative (N)                           | -3.01 | 0.003 *      | 0.32 (small)    |
| High-arousal negative (HAN)            | 0.17  | 0.86         | 0.02 (negligible)|
| High-arousal (HA)                      | 1.70  | 0.09         | 0.18 (negligible)|

Note. * Statistical significance after the Bonferroni correction (p < 0.00625; 0.05/8)

4.4 Cognitive performance

Participants performed better on two (i.e., working memory and concentration) of the four Cambridge Brain Sciences’ modules given when they were in the window condition. The scores of the other two tests (i.e., short-term memory and planning), and the creativity test (i.e., divergent thinking test), did not show any significant differences between the two experimental conditions. Figure 4-A summarizes the mean percentage improvements in the cognitive performance scores by having a window.

The participants’ score of working memory tests were 6% higher in the window condition (Median = 10, MAD = 3.00) compared to the windowless one (Median = 9, MAD = 1.48) at the 0.009 level of significance (Z = 2.60, p < 0.01, r = 0.31). The participants’ score of concentration tests were 5% higher in the window condition (Median = 52, MAD = 10.38) compared to the windowless one (Median = 49, MAD = 11.86) at the 0.03 level of significance (Z = 2.18, p = 0.03, r = 0.26). The scores for the short-term memory (Z = 0.31, p = 0.75, r = 0.04) and planning tests (Z = - 0.63, p = 0.53, r = 0.08) were not significantly different between the two window conditions.

The results from the divergent thinking test did not show a significant difference between the two window conditions (Z = 0.07, p = 0.94, r = 0.01). Results indicate that there was no main effect of window condition on the ability of divergent thinking of participants.
Figure 3: Mean of the thermal perceptions (A to D) and the emotion ratings (E) with the standard error mean bars in the final surveys. Bonferroni-corrected significance levels: * $p < .0125$ (0.05/4) for the thermal perception results, * $p < .00625$ (0.05/8) for the emotion results; Effect size ($r$): negligible (<0.2), small (0.2-0.5), moderate (0.5-0.8), and large (>0.80). A.
**Thermal sensation; B. Thermal comfort; C. Thermal acceptability; D. Thermal pleasure; E. Emotion octants with sampled items: HAP = high-arousal positive; P = positive; LAP = low-arousal positive; LA = low-arousal; LAN = low-arousal negative; N = negative; HAN = high-arousal negative; HA = high-arousal.**

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**Figure 4:** A. Mean of the percentage improvements by having a window in the cognitive performance tests with the standard error mean bars; B. Mean of the eye symptom scores and perceived stress level with the standard error mean bars in the final surveys; statistical significance: * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001; Effect size (r): negligible (<0.2), small (0.2-0.5), moderate (0.5-0.8), and large (>0.80).

4.5 Eye symptoms and perceived stress level

Participants reported experiencing less ocular symptoms (e.g., dry eye, blurred vision) in the condition with the window compared to the windowless one (Figure 4-B). The mean eye symptom scores of the window condition (M = 2.2, SD = 0.71) were 10% lower compared to the windowless one (M = 2.42, SD = 0.77) at the 0.002 level of significance (Z = -3.08, p < 0.01, r = 0.33). Figure 4-B describes the mean of perceived stress level with the standard error mean bars in the final survey. The reports from participants regarding perceived stress level did not show a significant difference between window conditions (Z = 1.34, p > 0.05, r = 0.14).

4.6 Potential moderator variables

To understand the contribution of potential moderator variables (i.e., individual differences and contextual conditions) on the effect of the experimental conditions (i.e., with or without windows), we conducted permutation tests using the Asymptotic General Independence Test. We analyzed the effect of the order of the experimental conditions (first window then windowless, or first windowless then window), time of day, horizontal illuminance level at the desk, outdoor solar radiation level, and participants’ sex and BMI on the window effects. We also applied the Bonferroni correction factor when analyzing the moderator variables on each outcome family.
(i.e., \( p < 0.0125 \) for thermal perception and \( p < 0.00625 \) for emotion). For brevity, we only summarize significant moderator variables in the following paragraphs.

BMI moderated the effects of the experimental conditions on thermal pleasure. In comparing the window to windowless condition (\( Z = 2.67, p = 0.008, r = 0.29 \)), the overweight participants (i.e., BMI > 25) reported that the thermal environment in the window condition is more pleasant (\( M_{\text{difference}} = 1.12 \)) than the under-weight or normal-weight participants (\( M_{\text{difference}} = 0.23 \)). The moderator variables did not, however, influence the window effects on the other thermal perception metrics (i.e., thermal sensation, thermal comfort, and thermal acceptability) or on emotion.

The order of the experimental conditions did not moderate the effect of the experimental conditions on thermal perceptions, emotion and cognitive performance but we found the order effect on the results of eye symptoms and perceived stress level. In comparing the window to the windowless condition (\( Z = -2.85, p = 0.004, r = 0.31 \)), the participants who had the windowless condition first reported experiencing much fewer eye symptoms in the window condition (\( M_{\text{difference}} = 0.40 \)) than the participants who had the window condition first (\( M_{\text{difference}} = 0.03 \)). Similarly, in comparing the window to windowless condition (\( Z = -2.76, p = 0.006, r = 0.30 \)), the participants who had the windowless condition first reported experiencing a higher perceived level of stress in the window condition (\( M_{\text{difference}} = 0.33 \)) compared to the participants who had the window condition first (\( M = 0.11 \)). These indicate that each participants’ experience in the first session may have influenced the result of eye symptoms and perceived stress level in the second session. In addition, we found there were learning effects (i.e., increase in a participant's test score from one administration to the next) in the results of the concentration test (\( Z = 2.07, p = 0.04, r = 0.25 \)) and the planning test (\( Z = 2.54, p = 0.01, r = 0.31 \)). This indicates that the two practice rounds of the cognitive performance tasks did not fully help the participants overcome the learning effect in the two tasks. Although these findings do not affect the validity of the main results of the study, because the order of the experimental conditions and the session number was counterbalanced and randomized, they have important implications for the experimental design of future studies investigating eye symptoms, perceived stress level, and some cognitive performance (i.e., concentration and planning performance) through within-subject experiment design (i.e., repeated measure).

5. Discussion

5.1 Effects of the outdoor view from the window on thermal perceptions

The findings from the study indicated that in a slightly warm environment (28 °C), participants with a visual connection to the outdoors through a window felt cooler (with a mean difference of 0.3 in the TSV), more comfortable and pleasant (with a mean difference of 0.4 in the thermal comfort and thermal pleasure ratings) compared to those without a window. This finding suggests that people close to windows are more forgiving of small thermal comfort deviations, which could imply that one could slightly relax the constraints of thermal comfort for the area closest to the perimeter. We calculated the equivalent temperature difference of the 0.3 TSV.
based on the Griffith method that uses 0.4/K as a regression gradient [91,92], equivalent to an interval of 2.5K between the TSV scale. Based on the calculation, we could interpret our findings (0.3 TSV difference) that having a window has an equivalent 0.74 °C (1.33 °F) cooling effect on the participants.

To understand the energy saving potential of increasing the cooling setpoints by 0.74 °C, we refer to two studies exploring the energy saving benefits of extending air temperature setpoints [29,93]. Based on simulated results (varying the temperature setpoints to yield the average heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC) energy saving potentials), increasing the cooling setpoint by 0.74 °C can achieve an average savings of approximately 8% in cooling energy and 6.5% of total HVAC energy for a medium-sized office building in San Francisco, and 6% of total mechanical system energy saving in typical Singapore buildings. Even though the values would differ depending on the climate, building layout and the HVAC system types, it roughly shows the potential energy benefits of lowering the TSV by providing visual connection to the outdoors through windows.

We still do not have a full explanation for why participants felt cooler and more comfortable in a space with windows, however, we think three aspects may explain our findings:

- **A window as a source of distraction.** Some of the participants said that the window helped them shift their focus from their thermal discomfort to the much richer sensory stimuli seen through the window (i.e., an outdoors view, including trees). Therefore, having stimuli to shift the attention of an occupant from discomfort could increase overall thermal comfort.

- **Psychological adaptation.** By looking out the window, people understand that the external environment is sunny and warm, so this might be associated with an expectation of the indoor temperature being warmer as well. In other words, altered perception of and reaction to sensory information because of past experience and expectations [94] can increase one’s ability to “forgive” environmental conditions that in other cases may be deemed unacceptable [28]. This psychological dimension of thermal adaptation is also a key factor of the adaptive thermal comfort model [3].

- **Compensation effect of indoor environmental factors.** Some researchers have found that indoor environmental factors may compensate for one another [95,96]. For instance, a high-quality factor (i.e., having a window) can compensate for the possible negative effect of a low-quality factor (e.g., an unpleasant thermal environment) to a certain extent.

### 5.2 Effects of the outdoor view from the window on occupant emotions

Participants’ self-reports of emotion seen in both the initial survey and the final survey indicated that the positive effect of having exposure to windows was instantaneous and also remained constant throughout the hour-long study. We do not know how long this positive effect would last in practice. Some field studies have found increased satisfaction with the workplace when occupants have a window in their space [97], have access to windows [98,99], or are satisfied with their external view [100]. However, these findings are often insufficient to generalize about
any long-term effects of windows as they did not: 1) control other environmental qualities or contextual factors (e.g., time of day); or 2) have a sample size that can represent the general population [101].

In the current study, the general pattern of results showed that positive emotion (P) was higher, and negative and low-arousal negative emotions (N and LAN) were lower for participants in the window condition compared to the windowless one. Different from the results of other negative emotions, participants’ levels of high-arousal negative emotion (HAN; e.g., angry) were not significantly impacted by the window condition. It may be because participants did not have a high enough level of high-arousal negative emotion (i.e., $M_{\text{window}} = 1.28, SD_{\text{window}} = 0.48; M_{\text{windowless}} = 1.33, SD_{\text{windowless}} = 0.48$) to see an effect of having a window.

5.3 Effects of the outdoor view from the window on cognitive performance
Among the four cognitive performance tests that the participants completed, the results showed only a statistically significant difference in working memory and concentration tests when participants were in the window versus the windowless condition. These results are similar to previous studies and the theory of the restorative effects of nature [40,43,62], which shows an improvement in working memory and concentration when occupants experience a connection with nature. The results of the current study show that visual connection to nature even through a window (and only 55 minutes exposure) can provide results that are congruent with showing a video or photos of natural scenes [33,102], or even when participants have a more immersive experience with nature, such as a back-packing trip or walking in the forest [40,41].

However, it should be noted that the current study did not find any effect on short-term memory or planning ability. This partially contradicts findings from previous studies [98]. It may be due to the slight thermal discomfort setting of the current. Some studies found that moderately higher temperatures incurred significantly reduced cognitive performance [103]. However, the effect of moderate heat stress on cognitive performance is still controversial [104]. Therefore, we cannot conclude that the visual connection through a window has a positive impact on the various cognitive abilities of the occupants of the space, but it does enhance the working memory and concentration.

5.4 Effects of the outdoor view from the window on perceived stress level
Perceived stress level were also not significantly different between the two conditions, in contrast to the Stress-reduction theory [20,36,105], which suggests that humans can reduce stress by viewing a nature scene. This may be due to the activities (i.e., surveys, cognitive performance tests) that we provided in the study, which may not have induced a high enough level of stress to see a change. Further, the short-term exposure to the window condition may have limited the ability to observe subtle shifts in stress levels.

5.5 Study limitations
One of the limitations of the current study is the potential contribution of non-visual effects from daylight on the outcome variables. Due to the nature of windows, which transmit both daylight and a view to the outdoors, we were not able to completely control the transmission of daylight in the window condition and therefore separate these effects entirely. This is a confounding
factor also present in studies looking at the effect of daylight on people [27]. We instead allowed relatively small daylight effects (~150 lux, roughly 30% of the total illuminance level at desk) from the windows while keeping a very similar level of horizontal illuminance between the two conditions. In order to understand if non-visual effects of daylight contributed to the findings, another study should be done. The new study could compare the results from 1) a space with diffused daylight through a translucent window or a skylight (no visual connection to the outdoors) and a space with windows or 2) a windowless condition with a circadian lighting panel (which produces a similar color temperature and spectral distribution as sunlight) and a space with windows. Analyzing the non-visual effects was not the main focus of this set of experiments, so we reserved the idea for further study.

We assessed the effect of a window view in a slightly warm condition (28 °C) only. Even though our findings provide relevant insights into buildings in warm areas, our findings do not provide a full picture of how having a window would impact the thermal perceptions in other conditions. In order to fully understand the window effect on thermal responses, we should conduct several more lab studies that include slightly cooler conditions as well as more gradual temperatures for slightly warm conditions (e.g., 26 °C, 27 °C, etc.) to determine if the window effect remains the same magnitude.

Our findings are based on the windows of the chamber that provided a natural view that consists of mostly trees that were very close to the window and a sunny sky in the Bay Area. If the window view had different contents (e.g., buildings and an overcast sky) and luminance patterns, the effects of the window could be either decreased or increased. Some studies found that people preferred natural, dynamic, but distant views compared to human-made, still, close views [106–108]. Future studies are necessary to assess the acceptable or minimum quality of the window view content that would cause the “window effect” and its magnitude.

The current study tested a very short-term exposure (55 minutes) to the different window conditions in the lab study settings due to the limitations of time and budget. The major findings of the study demonstrate that a short exposure to the window has positive effects on the thermal, emotional, and cognitive perceptions of the occupants. However, in order to investigate the prolonged effects of a visual connection to the outdoors, which is more relevant to the everyday exposure of office workers, a longitudinal study at a field site would provide more detailed results that could more clearly support changes in office building design and control.

Lastly, the effects of a window in the study were all small (ranging from 0.29 to 0.36) based on Ferguson’s thresholds for effect size [87], which is a conservative value compared to Cohen’s thresholds for effect size [86]. This may bring up a concern about the practical utility of the reported effect sizes. However, the use of thresholds for effect size is still controversial. Some researchers demonstrated that Cohen’s thresholds were too low, which produced inflated effects in the study findings [87]. On the other hand, others argue that Cohen’s thresholds are too conservative and sometimes underestimate the potential of the effects in social science research [109]. Before evaluating the effect sizes, we should also consider the intent of the study and how extreme or artificial effects were tested in psychological research. The current study was
designed to detect the effects of having a visual connection to nature through a window without exposing the participants to extreme or unnatural conditions, so that the conditions would be closer to the subtle differences that people find in their everyday life in the built environment. In this regard, the statistically significant but small effect size still provides meaningful knowledge relevant to the building industry. In addition, the results demonstrated a positive impact on multiple aspects (thermal comfort, emotion, cognitive performance, and eyestrain) for the occupants. Hence, considering that the effect size in isolation may not be relevant for indoor environmental quality research, it often interacts with and compensates for multiple different psychological factors.

6. Conclusions
This study investigated the thermal perception and emotional and cognitive impacts of having a view to the outdoors via a window in a working environment. To our knowledge, it was the first to investigate the main effect of an outdoor view from a window on thermal perceptions. We also examined the effect of having a window on occupant emotions and cognitive performance, which previous studies have not studied in a controlled experimental environment. Across all the areas that we examined (i.e., thermal perceptions, emotion, and cognitive performance), our findings consistently show statistically significant, but practically small, improvements in these variables by providing occupants with a visual connection to the outdoors through a window in a short period time (55 minutes). However, results showed that windows with a view did not have an effect on short-term memory, planning, or divergent thinking in the settings we studied.

The findings have three important implications: 1) they demonstrate that people close to a window may be more forgiving of small thermal comfort deviations, which can result in potential energy savings through setpoint adjustments; 2) having a window enhances psychological well-being by enhancing positive emotion and reducing negative emotions; and 3) providing visual connection to the outdoors supports working-memory and concentration that may be directly related to a worker’s productivity. Considering the multiple effects of window access, we see that providing a window in a workplace is important for the comfort, well-being, and productivity of occupants. A novel finding of the study shows that a positive effect on thermal perceptions may be at play when windows are present and could provide an effective design solution that enhances the comfort of the occupants, while saving energy in the built environment, especially for cooling-dominated climates.

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Appendix A

The environmental conditions in both spaces and the sensors (with the accuracy).

| Parameter                          | Measurements                                                                 | Device                      | Measurement uncertainty |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|
|                                    | With windows                                                                 | Without windows             |                         |
| Operative temperature              | $M = 28.0 \degree C, SD = 0.21 \degree C$                                  | $M = 28.0 \degree C, SD = 0.15 \degree C$ | ±0.35 °C                |
| Relative humidity                  | $M = 34.8 \%$, $SD = 2.5 \%$                                                | $M = 34.6 \%$, $SD = 2.7 \%$ | ±2.5 %                  |
| Air speed                          | $M = 0.02 \text{ m/s}$, $SD = 0.00 \text{ m/s}$                            | $M = 0.02 \text{ m/s}$, $SD = 0.00 \text{ m/s}$ | ±0.02 m/s               |
| Horizontal illuminance             | $M = 461 \text{ lux}$, $SD = 39.52 \text{ lux}$                            | $M = 450 \text{ lux}$, $SD = 0.1 \text{ lux}$ | ±5%                     |
| CO$_2$                             | $M = 650 \text{ ppm}$, $SD = 130 \text{ ppm}$                              | $M = 680 \text{ ppm}$, $SD = 124 \text{ ppm}$ | ±25 ppm; ±3%            |
| Outdoor solar radiation            | $M = 541 \text{ W/m}^2$, $SD = 120 \text{ W/m}^2$                         |                            |                         |
|                                    | $Min. = 271 \text{ W/m}^2$, $Max. = 726 \text{ W/m}^2$                    |                            |                         |
| Prevailing mean outdoor temperature*| $M = 15.7 \degree C$, $SD = 0.8 \degree C$                                | $Min. = 14.0 \degree C$, $Max. = 17.0 \degree C$ | ±0.5 °C                 |

* Prevailing mean outdoor air temperature is calculated based on the arithmetic average of the mean daily outdoor temperatures over some period of days [2]. In this chart, we calculated the temperature based on the mean daily outdoor temperature of seven days before the day in question.

Appendix B

Cognitive tests.

| Test              | Reference image | Outcome measure                                                                 | Scoring method                                                                 |
|-------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Token Search [110]| ![Reference Image](image1.png) | Working Memory: the ability to temporarily hold information in memory, and manipulate or update it based on demands | Participants do not have a time limit, but the test will end after three errors. Outcome measure is the maximum level completed (e.g. the problem with the most tokens that the user completed). |
| Test | Description | Methodology |
|------|-------------|-------------|
| **Double Trouble** [111] | Response Inhibition: the ability to concentrate on relevant information in order to make a correct response despite interference | Participants have 90 seconds to solve as many problems as possible. The primary outcome measure is the number of correctly answered problems, minus incorrect ones. |
| **Digit Span** [112] | Short-term memory: the ability to temporarily store information in memory | Participants do not have a time limit, but the test will end after three errors. The primary outcome measure is the maximum level (i.e. the problem with the highest number of digits) that the player completed. |
| **Spatial Planning** [63] | Planning: the ability to act with forethought and sequence behavior in an orderly fashion to reach specific goals | Participants have three minutes to solve as many problems as possible. The primary outcome measure is the overall score, calculated by subtracting the number of trials made from twice the minimum number of trials required. |

**Appendix C**

A. The distribution of the Thermal Sensation Vote (TSV) of participants; B. The percentages of the participants who were thermally comfortable or uncomfortable in the experimental conditions; C. The percentages of the participants who reported that the experimental conditions were acceptable or unacceptable; D. The percentages of the participants who felt that the experimental conditions were pleasant or unpleasant.
A. Thermal sensation

Sample size (n) = 86
p = 0.006 *
Effect size (r) = 0.29
Mean difference = 0.30

Number of the participants

-3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3
Cold Cool Slightly cool Neutral Slightly warm Warm Hot

With windows
Without windows

B. Thermal comfort

C. Thermal acceptability

D. Thermal pleasure

Percentages (%)

Without windows With windows Without windows With windows Without windows With windows

Comfortable Uncomfortable Acceptable Unacceptable Pleasant Unpleasant

44 56 55 45 43 57
45 56 60 40 50 50

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