

Editorial: The Use of Virtual-Reality Interventions in Reducing Anxiety

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10 1. Introduction

11 Virtual-reality (VR) therapy for anxiety disorders has emerged with the advent of VR technology. Its
12 superior efficacy to waitlist and comparable efficacy to *in vivo* exposure therapy (Carl et al., 2019)
13 make VR therapy a viable psychological intervention. VR therapy offers several accessibility benefits
14 to encourage help-seeking among those who are less inclined to engage in face-to-face therapy and
15 those with mild-to-moderate and/or sub-clinical levels of anxiety who might not reach threshold for
16 clinical referral. This special issue aimed to understand the advantages and limits of VR therapy in
17 improving symptoms of anxiety. Anxiety is the anticipation of real threat (Penninx, Brenda W. J. H.
18 et al., 2021, Hamm, 2020). Anxiety is characterized by ‘muscle tension and vigilance in preparation
19 for future danger and cautious avoidance behavior’ (American Psychiatric Association, 2013), there
20 being a cognitive element, including a fear of the worst happening, and a physiological element, such
21 as heightened arousal, sweating and feeling faint (Creamer et al., 1995). The objectives of this special
22 issue were to understand:

- 23 • the theoretical significance of VR therapy for clinical and sub-clinical levels of anxiety,
 - 24 • the efficacy of VR therapy for reducing anxiety,
 - 25 • the mechanisms of response to VR therapy for reducing anxiety, and
 - 26 • the technological limits of VR therapy.
- 27

28 2. Theoretical underpinnings of VR therapy for anxiety

29 Research on virtual reality for anxiety disorders must be guided by theory because the ‘wow’ factor
30 of the technology can lead people to develop virtual environments for clinical applications
31 acontextually. An early randomized clinical trial using virtual reality for fear of heights (Rothbaum et
32 al., 1995) relied on emotional processing theory (Foa and Kozak, 1986), which suggests that
33 exposure therapy modulates a dysfunctional fear structure and provides information that is
34 incompatible with the fear-associated memory. In this issue, Jerath and Beveridge (2021) draw on
35 theories of the philosophy of mind and of global and spatial cognition to inspire future research on

36 how virtual reality can improve anxiety through the creation of massive virtual spaces, such as
37 looking at a clear sky at night. The authors suggest that anxiety is characterized by vicious cycles that
38 can be interrupted by transcendent experiences created in expansive virtual spaces, like the cosmos,
39 using slow deep breathing and biofeedback. Advances in VR technology to create massive spaces
40 through testable hypotheses would yield exciting possibilities to investigate the benefits of
41 transcendent virtual experiences.

42

43 **3. Efficacy of VR therapy**

44 VR technology holds promise for self-guided VR therapy where the user has full control over
45 increasing their exposure to threat in the absence of a therapist (Zainal et al., 2021, Premkumar et al.,
46 2021). Participants with high self-reported public-speaking anxiety increased their exposure to the
47 modifiable virtual threats over two sessions of self-guided VR therapy. Improvement in public-
48 speaking anxiety and social anxiety was shown after sessions and sustained one month after the
49 intervention. Where anxiety is brought about by chronic physical illness, such as cancer, VR therapy
50 can construct positive virtual environments. MIND asserts (2021) that “spending time in green space
51 or bringing nature into your everyday life can benefit both your mental and physical wellbeing”
52 (Naor and Maysseless, 2021). It is within this context that Wilson and Scorsone (2021) explored the
53 benefits of bringing people closer to nature through immersive VR therapy and inducing positive
54 emotions and reducing pain levels. Selecting among a wide range of nature-inspired immersive
55 audio-visual experiences to promote relaxation during treatment via chemotherapy, participants
56 receiving intravenous chemotherapy felt more calm, relaxed, and content, as well as less tense,
57 thereby improving adherence to treatment. This anxiety-reducing impact of VR therapy during
58 treatment for physical condition is true of other related conditions, such as stroke rehabilitation
59 (Standen et al., 2017).

60

61 **4. Mechanism of VR therapy**

62 There is a need to understand more precisely the mechanisms of anxiety reduction that can be
63 incorporated into VR therapies. To this end, Pfaller and colleagues (2021) highlighted the role of
64 social presence in evoking emotional responses to specific agent social interactions. Thus,
65 manipulating social presence may lead to more effective interventions in improving social
66 interaction. A further mechanism of VR therapy is to gain control over anxious thoughts through
67 attention training. Wechsler and colleagues (2021) examined the effect of external-focus attention
68 training in participants with high public-speaking anxiety. Training participants to attend to members
69 of the audience in the virtual environment increased the time they spent looking at the virtual
70 audience during a post-training public-speech and enhanced their positive affect. Thus, attending to a
71 virtual core threat is a key mechanism of VR exposure therapy.

72 There are also physiological mechanisms that alter anxiety response. Joeng and colleagues (2022)
73 examined the impact of diaphragmatic breathing (DB, increasing breathing volume and allowing
74 more air to the body) and progressive muscle relaxation (PMR, sequentially alternating muscle
75 tension and relaxation) exercises in a VR-based relaxation training program. Levels of tension after
76 PMR were lower in those who trained in VR compared to a control group. DB decreased tension in
77 the VR group, particularly when they practiced in virtual outdoor anxiety-provoking environments.
78 DB primarily strengthens the parasympathetic response, whilst also improving sustained attention

79 and decreasing negative affect (Ma et al., 2017). Thus, incorporating both physiological techniques as
80 training elements to facilitate additional coping strategies, would aid VR-based anxiety exposure
81 therapies.

82

83 **5. Technological underpinnings of VR therapy**

84 The strengths of VR therapy are hampered by the experience of cybersickness, such as dizziness and
85 motion-sickness. Controlling for cybersickness in research on VR therapy requires a validated
86 measure of cybersickness that delineates cybersickness from the target psychological symptoms of
87 the intended intervention. Whilst confirming the two-factor structure of the simulation-sickness
88 questionnaire (SSQ, study 1), Bouchard and colleagues (2021) also revealed that anxiety during
89 stress-exposure (the Trier Social Stress Test, study 2) was confounded by cybersickness. They found
90 that most items (11 out of 16) of the SSQ correlated with state anxiety during stress-exposure, and
91 these correlations were split evenly across the two factors of the SSQ. Scores on the SSQ increased
92 after stress exposure and before immersion in a virtual environment. Thus, cybersickness may be
93 confused with anxiety during administration of VR therapy and such symptoms need to be controlled
94 for when examining the efficacy of VR therapy.

95 This special issue has revealed the potential for theoretically-meaningful innovations in VR therapy.
96 The creation of new realistic virtual environments that allow the anxious person to encounter and
97 dissipate their fears in safety is an enduring strength of VR therapy.

98 **6. Conflict of Interest**

99 *The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial*
100 *relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.*

101 **7. Author Contributions**

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