

# Evaluating Blink Rate as a Dynamic Indicator of Mental Workload in a Flight Simulator

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**Keywords:** Blink Rate, Mental Workload, Flight Simulator.

**Abstract:** This study assesses blink rate as a potential indicator for mental workload (MWL) in a dual task scenario in a flight simulator. Prior research indicated that blink rate decreases as mental workload increases across various tasks and domains. In our study, we aimed to determine if these findings are consistent in a dual task environment within a fast jet simulator. Furthermore, we evaluated blink rate fluctuations caused by the dynamic shifts in MWL as tasks are executed, switched, or completed. To investigate this, we executed a flight simulator experiment involving ten participants. They were tasked with two distinct activities: first, classifying air and ground targets, and second, maintaining a specific flight altitude. The results validated that blink rate decreases with increasing task difficulty. However, when a secondary task imposes significant workload, blink rates did not reliably indicate the primary task's difficulty. We also found that the timing of spontaneous blinks was influenced by task completion and switches. Specifically, blink rates surged immediately after decision-making points and during transitions between tasks.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been growing interest in measuring cognitive states, especially when humans control dynamic systems. Accurate assessment of these states not only provides insights into human-machine performance but also offers new possibilities for enhancing human-machine interface (Feigh et al., 2012). For example, displays or assistance systems that adjust to their users' cognitive state could improve interaction and promote a cooperative relationship between users and machines.

A central focus of this research is the concept of mental workload (MWL). It can be described as the extent to which a limited set of cognitive resources are engaged over time while processing a task (for a full explanation, see Longo et al. (2022)). Understanding MWL is crucial because it directly affects human performance, especially in tasks that require continuous attention. In the context of adaptive systems, MWL measurements were successfully applied in assisting users based on their workload level (Brand & Schulte, 2021; Hajek et al., 2013).

Rather than relying on user feedback, MWL can be objectively gauged using physiological sensors. This subject has been extensively researched using various metrics, including heart rate, pupil dilation, and EEG alpha waves (Ayres et al., 2021; Charles & Nixon, 2019). Of these metrics, blink rate (BR) has emerged as an effective measure due to its balance between simplicity of measurement and sensitivity to MWL, as reported by several studies (Da Tao et al., 2019). Compared to more complex sensors such (e.g., fNIRS, EEG), BR can be easily obtained with a basic camera and image processing. In the following section, we review relevant studies dealing with the relationship between BR and MWL.

### 1.1 Blink Rate and MWL

In an early study, Holland and Tarlow (1972) demonstrated in a memory and mental arithmetic test that blink rate decreased with increasing task difficulty. Interestingly, they observed that BR increased before participants made mistakes.

Boehm-Davis et al. (2000) showed in a simulated radar track classification task that blink rate decreased

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in a time frame of 1.5s before a classification event compared to a baseline. This suggested that blink rate rebounds after high MWL situations and could also be an indicator of task progress.

Faure et al. (2016) reported in a driving task experiment that blink frequency decreased with increasing task load of the primary driving task but within a fixed driving task difficulty, the addition of auditory secondary tasks increased blink frequency. Therefore, it is not clear if blink frequency is only sensitive to tasks with visual demands.

In addition, there are some challenges when using blink rate as an indicator for MWL. First, blinks are not continuous signals, which complicates processing (Cho, 2021; Siegle et al., 2008). Second, blink rate was also reported as an indicator of fatigue and time on task, which could be a confounding factor for MWL measurement (Maffei & Angrilli, 2018; Stern et al., 1994). However, it could also be argued that blink rate does not measure MWL but rather activation and engagement in a visual task which happens to correlate well with performance and reported MWL in visual tasks.

## 1.2 Contributions

In this study, we aimed to evaluate if blink rate for MWL measurement is applicable to adaptive systems in a cockpit environment. This entails the following research questions:

**What is the general relationship between BR and MWL in single and dual visual task settings?**

Based on the results of other studies, we expect BR to be sensitive to MWL in a cockpit task environment. However, no reviewed study has tested the relationship between MWL and blink rate in a dual task setting with two visual tasks. Since most cockpit tasks are visual, we aim to evaluate (1) the sensitivity of BR as a MWL measurement and (2) if the BR-MWL correlation still holds in single compared to a dual task setting.

**Can blink rate be associated with changing MWL due to task progress?** We evaluate if the timing of spontaneous blinks is related to the dynamics of the task environment and associated changes in MWL. Boehm-Davis et al. (2000) reported that, in a single-task experiment, blink rate rebounds after a task has been completed. Therefore, we would expect to observe a fluctuating BR during task execution, such as rebounds after task completion or at switching between two tasks. If there is a valid relationship, this could be used to improve the timing of adaptations in adaptive systems, which is difficult to determine. Adaptations at the wrong moment can

heavily disrupt the workflow of the user. Also, physiological measures with high time constants (measures that react slowly to changes in the task environment, e.g., heart rate) can not provide cognitive state estimation in a timely manner.

To address these questions, we conducted a flight simulator study. In the following, we describe the experimental design and subsequently discuss our results.

## 2 EXPERIMENT

The experiment was conducted in a research fighter jet simulator at the HuMiCS Lab (“Humans, Missions, and Cognitive Systems Laboratory”) of the University of the Bundeswehr in Munich (see Figure 1). The experimental design was inspired by an early study by Boehm-Davis et al. (2000) and transferred into a military aviation domain. Furthermore, we added a secondary task condition to evaluate our research questions.



Figure 1: Jet simulator cockpit at the HuMiCS Lab. Setup consists of a throttle, stick, three touch display and a projected outside view with a head-up display overlay.

### 2.1 Design

We created a 2x2x2 design with the following conditions:

**Primary Task Type.** In the first task type (T1), participants classified air tracks based on altitude and velocity as *hostile* versus *not hostile* (see Figure 2). Participants had a decision matrix that indicated high speed and high altitude to be hostile, while all other combinations should be classified as *not hostile*. The second task type (T2) was the classification of ground targets based on incoming sensor images. Images of military vehicles should be classified as hostile as

opposed to civilian vehicles (see Figure 3 for an example).

**Primary Task Difficulty.** Difficulty was varied by the ambiguity of the targets. At low difficulty (*Low*), target classes could be easily identified, e.g., a single tank on the sensor image in *T1* or instant high speed and high altitude in *T2*. At high difficulty (*High*), target classes were ambiguous, and sensor data were cluttered by distractors, e.g., multiple different vehicles on the sensor data and accelerating air targets in speed and altitude. Note that the difficulty was only varied by how easily a target could be classified and not by a higher number of targets.

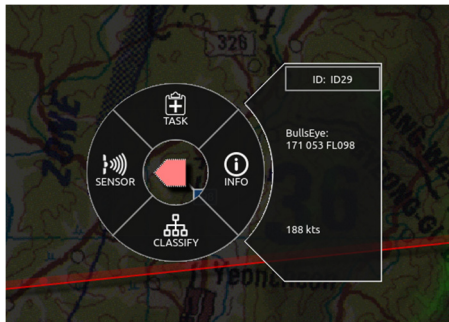


Figure 2: Display for air track classification in T1.

**Secondary Task Present.** As a secondary task, participants were asked to fly a fighter jet at a specified altitude of 4000ft MSL. The primary task was briefed to be more important than the secondary task. There were two conditions: Secondary task present (Dual-Task, *DT*) or absent (Single-Task, *ST*).



Figure 3: Sensor Picture for T2 with high difficulty containing several different vehicles.

## 2.2 Participants & Procedure

Ten participants took part in the study (1 female, mean age=24.5y). All participants were students of aerospace-related studies at the University of the Bundeswehr in Munich but had no prior experience in flying with the used research simulator. At the beginning, participants were briefed about the experimental procedure and provided their consent with data collection in written form.

After that, eye-tracking cameras for blink detection were adjusted and calibrated using a standard point calibration procedure. Then, the participants conducted two training missions encountering task types T1 and T2 at both levels of difficulty. In the third training mission, the secondary task was trained without any other task present. Participants were encouraged to ask questions during training since no questions were allowed in the subsequent experimental tasks. In total, each training mission lasted 15 minutes.

After training, the experimental tasks were conducted in sequence. After each mission, participants were asked to fill out a NASA-TLX questionnaire. Order of conditions was randomized and different for each participant to compensate both effects of training and fatigue influence. The Total duration of the experiment was approximately 2 hours.

## 2.3 Data Analysis

During the missions, we logged the following data:

**Gaze Tracking.** We measured gaze with a commercial camera-based eye-tracking system (SmartEye 4-camera system, 0.3 MP). The system measures at a frequency of 60 Hz and classifies gaze samples into either fixation, saccade, or blink. For this study, blinks were analyzed in post-processing. Saccades were used to measure gaze switches between cockpit displays and outside windows.

**Subjective Workload.** Participants answered a simplified NASA-TLX to report subjective workload. In the simplified NASA-TLX, no weights are assigned to the different dimensions.

**Task Progress.** Time points of classification were logged when participants pressed the corresponding button in the cockpit. Time points of task switches were logged in the DT condition when participants gaze switched from inside the cockpit to outside.

The data were analyzed using Python Pandas. The plots were generated using the Seaborn library and

error bars always indicate the standard deviation divided by the square root of the sample size<sup>3</sup>.

### 3 RESULTS

We first evaluate the general relationship between blink rate and MWL and proceed to compare ST to DT conditions. Then, we present the results on the relationship between blink rate and task situations.

#### 3.1 Blink Rate, Task Difficulty and Mental Workload

Figure 4 shows the participants' subjective rating of MWL via the NASA-TLX questionnaire across all experimental conditions. The figure displays the non-weighted mean values of all TLX dimensions for each participant, with error bars. In general, the task difficulty aligns well with the experimental design, with exception from the "DT High" condition for the air track classification task (T1), which was rated as causing a lower workload than the "DT Low" condition. Generally, participants reported lower MWL in the air track task T1.

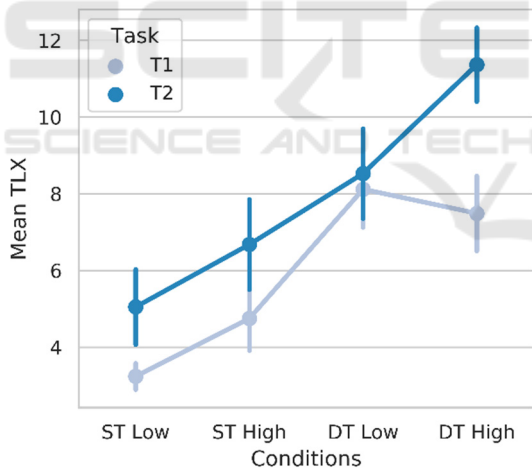


Figure 4: Mean NASA-TLX results over all conditions.

Figure 5 shows the mean BR (average blink rate per mission) across all conditions (n=10 per condition). The mean blink rate dropped considerably when comparing ST to DT conditions in both task types, T1 and T2. The primary task difficulty slightly reduced mean BR within ST (T1: -0.8, T2: -0.99), but there was no change within DT conditions.

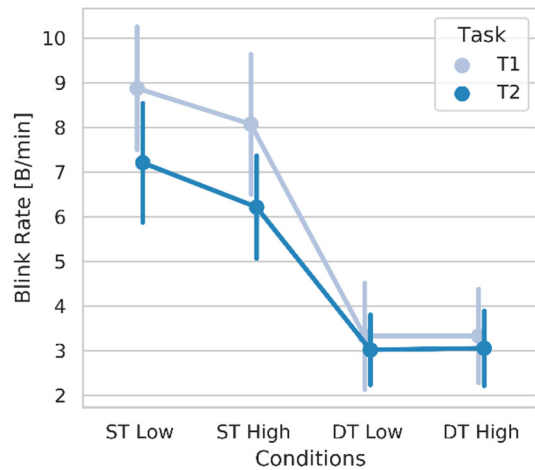


Figure 5: Mean BR over experimental conditions.

The correlation between reported MWL and blink rate is displayed in Figure 6, and shows a strong negative correlation ( $r = -0.9$ ,  $p < 0.003$ ) between mean NASA-TLX scores and mean blink rate in each experimental condition.

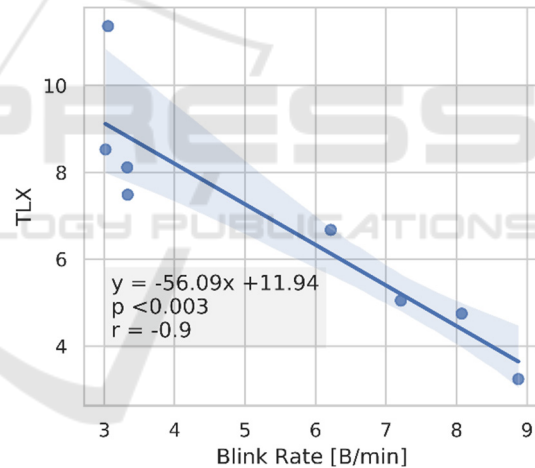


Figure 6: Regression plot of mean subjective MWL rating versus blink rate. Data points refer to the mean of one experimental condition over all participants.

These results indicate that there is a negative correlation between mean BR and workload. Since the study only had 10 participants, we also analyzed the BR for each participant across the experimental conditions, which is shown in Figure 7 containing the individual mean BR per trial.

<sup>3</sup> [https://seaborn.pydata.org/tutorial/error\\_bars.html](https://seaborn.pydata.org/tutorial/error_bars.html)

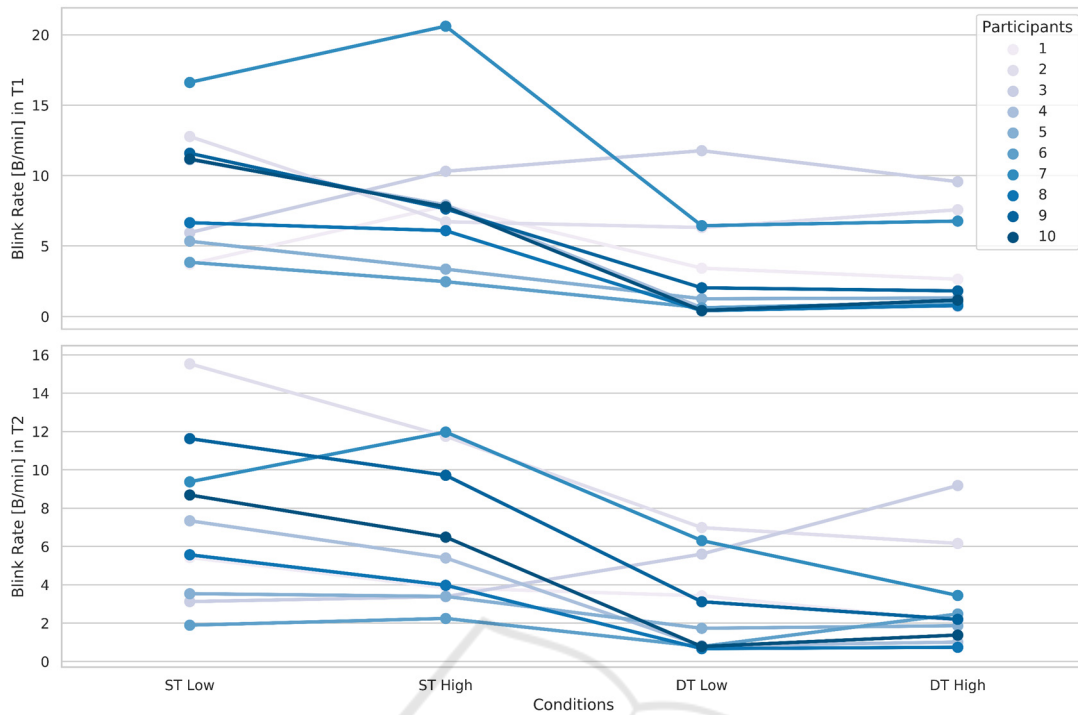


Figure 7: Individual BR in T1 and T2 of all participants.

The mean BR values in the low difficulty conditions vary greatly among individuals from 2 to almost 16 blinks per minute. This variance is decreasing with increasing difficulty. A second observation is that the change in BR is not consistent for each participant. There is one outlier (P3) who has an inverse relationship between BR and task difficulty in T2. Another outlier is P7, whose BR change “Low” and “High” difficulty in the ST condition is also inverse compared with the expected trend. Although, the data of these two participants is not clear, all other participants show the expected relationship between the *mean* values of BR and MWL.

### 3.2 Dynamic Changes of MWL

Our second investigation focused on how BR and changing MWL due to task progress (e.g., task completion) are associated. For this, we chose to analyze two distinct time points. We start with classification events, during which participants assigned an ID to targets by pressing a button on the cockpit interface.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 show a comparison of different blink rates for each condition in both tasks. “Average” represents the mean overall BR, which was already discussed in the previous section. As a relevant event, we chose the moment of classifying a

target as hostile or not-hostile. Based on this, we computed blink rate for the following time frames: 5 seconds preceding classification (“Before Classification”) and 5 seconds post-classification (“After Classification”).

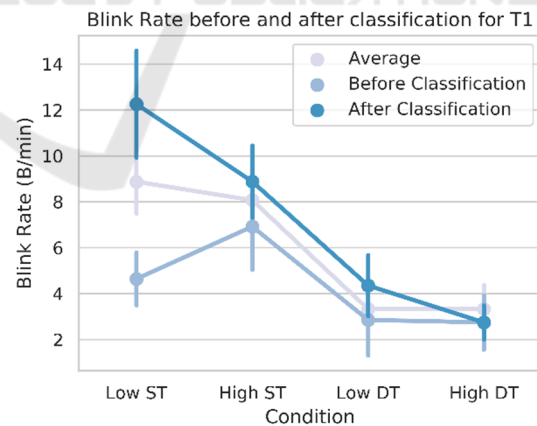


Figure 8: Comparison of average BR to BR in timeframes near classification ( $t\pm 5s$ ) in the air track task T1.

The results in the Low ST condition for Task T1 (see Figure 8) indicate that there is a large difference in blink rate before and after classification, which confirms the results from Boehm-Davis et al. (2000). However, the BR in the other three conditions shows that this difference decreases as overall task difficulty

increases. In the High DT condition, there is no difference in BR before and after classification.

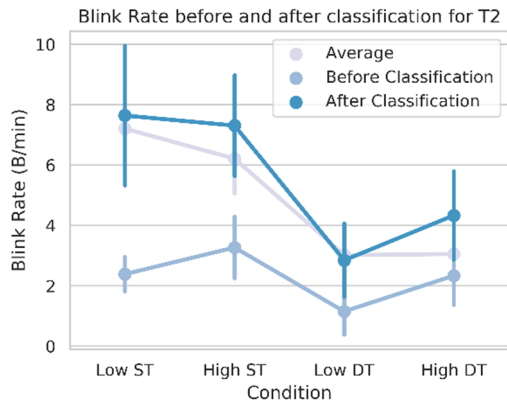


Figure 9: Comparison of average BR to BR in timeframes near classification ( $\pm 5s$ ) in the ground track task T2.

In task T2 (see Figure 9), the difference in time before and after a classification exists in all conditions, but it also decreases with increasing task difficulty and the presence of a secondary task.

Secondly, we conducted an analysis for task switches in the dual task scenario. The time of a task switch  $t_{TS}$  was defined as the moment the participants' saccades between cockpit screen and the outside view. We used this switch of focus to identify the current task. Outside view was associated with the altitude tracking task while focus on the cockpit screen was linked to the primary task.

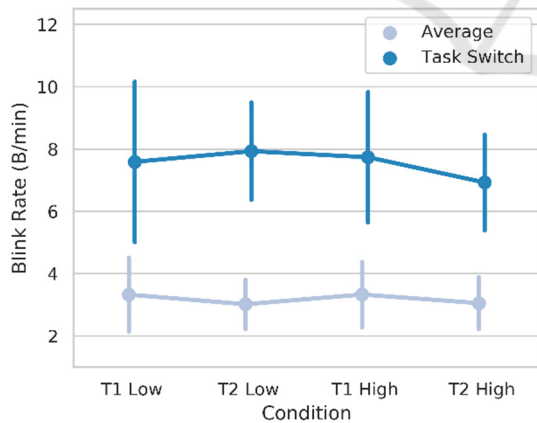


Figure 10: Comparison of average BR to BR in timeframes near task switch ( $t \pm 1s$ ) in all DT conditions.

Figure 10 shows the average blink rate in the vicinity of a task switch (time frame  $\pm 1s$ ), compared to the cumulative average blink rate throughout each trial. The data underscore that blinks are frequent during task transitions, supporting the notion that

blinks predominantly occur post-task completion or during switches.

### 3.3 Discussion

In the following, we discuss our general findings and the limitations of our experiment.

#### 3.3.1 General Findings

The results from the experiment confirmed the findings of the reviewed studies: blink rate decreases with increasing task load. The strongest effects were observed when comparing ST and DT scenarios. Within the DT settings, BR did not reflect the changing difficulty of the primary task. This suggests that there is a limit to the sensitivity in cases where the visual task load is high and participants' blink rate does not decrease further. It remains an open question whether this corresponds to a MWL limit in visual tasks. Individual BR data also showed that baseline BR is different among participants. Therefore, individual calibration should be considered for the design of robust measurement systems.

BR also showed effects regarding the dynamic changes of MWL due to task progress. In the low difficulty ST conditions of T1 and T2, there was a large difference between average blink rate before and after a classification event. Similarly, BR was significantly higher within a short time frame at task switches, also indicating that spontaneous blinks are inhibited during task execution and rebound in the moments between tasks. This relationship could be utilized in adaptive systems to identify opportune moments to interrupt a user. The moment a user finishes a task might be an optimal point to disrupt them, since they are not committed to another task in the cockpit yet.

#### 3.3.2 Limitations

Our experimental design did not perfectly align with the subjective MWL reports. The air track task T1 at high difficulty was regarded as almost equally workload-inducing as at the easy difficulty level. Another confounding factor of the experimental design was that the DT conditions took significantly longer than the ST conditions. This could be problematic as BR increases with time-on-task and fatigue. In addition, we were not able to design a completely counterbalanced study with the low number of participants. Individual BR results showed that the correlation between BR and difficulty was not present for some participants. A possible explanation is the different order of experimental conditions or

individual capabilities. In conclusion, future experimental design should therefore focus on equal time-on-task and a higher number of participants as well as a sufficient training before the experimental trials.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

This study demonstrated that blink rate is indeed a sensitive measure for MWL and should be considered as a reliable measure in visual task settings. Using BR has the great advantage, that blinks can be robustly detected with low-tech equipment, presenting a good trade-off between effort and sensitivity for MWL estimation in real-world applications. Apart from mean MWL measurement, our results also indicated that the moments of blinking are not necessarily random but rather indicate task progress, which could be valuable for the application in adaptive systems. Future research should focus on integrating BR estimation into an adaptive policy by evaluating strategies that act upon both MWL estimation and dynamic changes of user BR. For this, the main challenge is two-fold: First, we must show that the BR measurement is robust enough to allow for a reliable classification of MWL across a broad spectrum of situations and users. Second, we must evaluate, if adapting a system based on this measure is useful to the user.

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