

In the blink of an eye: The circadian effects on ocular and subjective indices of driver sleepiness

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Abstract

Driver sleepiness contributes substantially to fatal and severe crashes and the contribution it makes to less serious crashes is likely to be as great or greater. Currently, drivers' awareness of sleepiness (subjective sleepiness) remains a critical component for the mitigation of sleep-related crashes. Nonetheless, numerous calls have been made for technological monitors of drivers' physiological sleepiness levels so drivers can be 'alerted' when approaching high levels of sleepiness. Several physiological indices of sleepiness show potential as a reliable metric to monitor drivers' sleepiness levels, with eye blink indices being a promising candidate. However, extensive evaluations of eye blink measures are lacking including the effects that the endogenous circadian rhythm can have on eye blinks. To examine the utility of ocular measures, 26 participants completed a simulated driving task while physiological measures of blink rate and duration were recorded after partial sleep restriction. To examine the circadian effects participants were randomly assigned to complete either a morning or an afternoon session of the driving task. The results show subjective sleepiness levels increased over the duration of the task. The blink duration index was sensitive to increases in sleepiness during morning testing, but was not sensitive during afternoon testing. This finding suggests that the utility of blink indices as a reliable metric for sleepiness are still far from specific. The subjective measures had the largest effect size when compared to the blink measures. Therefore, awareness of sleepiness still remains a critical factor for driver sleepiness and the mitigation of sleep-related crashes.

Introduction

A substantial amount of research shows that sleepiness has a detrimental effect on driving performance levels (Anund et al., 2008; Smith, Horswill, Chambers, & Wetton, 2009) and results in an increased risk for crashing (Åkerstedt, Connor, Gray, & Kecklund, 2008; Connor et al., 2002). The current best evidence estimates that the population attributable risk for fatal and severe crashes associated with sleepy driving is 19% (Connor, et al., 2002; Kecklund, Anund, Wahlström, & Åkerstedt, 2012). That is, if there was a cessation of all sleep-related crashes it would result in a 19% decrease of all fatal and severe crashes. The contribution of driver sleepiness to less severe crashes is likely to be as great or greater. Additionally, many crashes are often multifactorial (Shinar, 2007) and as such a degree of sleepiness may be involved in crashes that were primarily attributed to other factors.

Efforts to reduce the incidents of sleep-related crashes are largely reliant on educational campaigns and the driver's self-awareness of sleepiness. Educational campaigns provide drivers with information about the dangers of sleepy driving and the elevated crash risk, as well as typical signs of sleepiness. Informing drivers about the signs of sleepiness seek to ensure that drivers can recognise and be aware of their own sleepiness levels (i.e., their subjective sleepiness levels). The driver's awareness of their sleepiness levels is a critical aspect for reducing the risk for having a sleep-related crash. If drivers have awareness of when they are sleepy, they can then take the appropriate action of employing a sleepiness countermeasure (e.g., a nap or rest break) when feeling sleepy.

The association between subjective sleepiness levels and physiological sleepiness levels is inconsistent and complicated. A number of studies have found that perceptions of sleepiness have

46 significant and positive relationships with physiological measures of cortical arousal levels
47 measured via electroencephalography (e.g., Dorrian, Lamond, & Dawson, 2000; Kaida et al., 2006).
48 Moreover, other studies show that increases in subjective sleepiness are positively related with
49 poorer simulated driving performance (Reyner & Horne, 1998) as well as poorer on-road driving
50 performance (Anund, Fors, Hallvig, Åkerstedt, & Kecklund, 2013). However, some studies suggest
51 that subjective and physiological measures of sleepiness do not always correlate (e.g., Tremaine et
52 al., 2010). Moreover, some studies suggest that not all drivers can adequately determine if they will
53 fall asleep during periods of extreme sleepiness (e.g., Herrmann et al., 2010; Kaplan, Itoi, &
54 Dement, 2007). These inconsistencies between subjective and physiological measures are possibly
55 due to interference effects from extraneous activities that occur during laboratory testing sessions,
56 such as: verbal interactions (Kaida, Åkerstedt, Kecklund, Nilsson, & Axelsson, 2007) and physical
57 movements with task transitions (Watling, 2012). Consequently, this has resulted in efforts to utilise
58 physiological measures of sleepiness.

59 Direct physiological measures of an individual appear to have potential as a reliable measure of
60 sleepiness. One of the many physiological measures that has some potential as a measure of
61 sleepiness are ocular indices (Stern, Boyer, & Schroeder, 1994). Ocular indices that can be derived
62 include: blink rate, blink duration, blink amplitude, percentage of eyelid closure, eyelid
63 closing/opening speed or ratios of these indices. These ocular indices have the potential to be
64 recorded by technological monitors that can 'warn' drivers if they approach a certain threshold of
65 sleepiness. An advantage of ocular indices is that they can be recorded via non-contact methods,
66 including video (e.g., Dinges & Grace, 1998) or infrared reflectance oculography (e.g., Johns,
67 Chapman, Crowley, & Tucker, 2008) recording methods. These non-contact recording methods are
68 an advantage as drivers will not have to be concerned about correctly applying a sensor/s when
69 using the technological monitor.

70 One ocular index that appears to have some utility as a measure of sleepiness is blink rate. Increases
71 in the rate of blinking has been associated with increases in sleepiness (Stern, et al., 1994). For
72 instance, examinations of sleep deprived individuals reveal positive correlations between blink rate
73 and the amount of time spent awake (Barbato et al., 2007). Moreover, subjective sleepiness has
74 been positively correlated with time spent awake. Blink rates have also been found to increase
75 during a 40 minute daytime vigilance task (McIntire, McKinley, Goodyear, & McIntire, in press).
76 These studies suggest that increases in blinking rates have an association with increases in
77 sleepiness.

78 The duration of eyelid closure (i.e., blink duration) is also suggested to be a sensitive measure of
79 sleepiness. For instance, it has been found that blink durations (but not blink rate) increased
80 between morning and evening testing sessions (Caffier, Erdmann, & Ullsperger, 2003). A study
81 performed by Ingre, Åkerstedt, Peters, Anund, & Kecklund (2006) examined the changes in driving
82 performance (i.e., standard deviation of lateral position), blink duration, and subjective sleepiness
83 during a two hour morning drive. It was found that all three measures significantly increased over
84 the duration of the drive, with steeper increases of blink duration and poorer driving performance
85 occurring with the highest levels of subjective sleepiness. It has also been shown that blink
86 durations increase during simulated night-time driving with younger drivers (Anund, et al., 2008).
87 Increases in blink durations have also been found to increase during a three hour on-road morning
88 drive (Häkkinen, Summala, Partinen, Tiihonen, & Silvo, 1999).

89 *Circadian Rhythm Influences*

90 A factor that could affect subjective and physiological sleepiness levels is the endogenous circadian
91 rhythm. The circadian rhythm promotes alertness during the daytime and sleepiness during the night
92 time. Specifically, the circadian rhythm has a sinusoid function during a 24 hour period that has an
93 ascending phase that begins approximately 06:00, peaks prior to mid-day, with the descending

94 phase beginning in the early afternoon (Carskadon & Dement, 1992). As such, the descending
95 circadian phase could lead to an increase in sleepiness levels starting from early afternoon.

96 The effect of the descending circadian phase on driving performance and measures of sleepiness has
97 been noted previously. Sleep-related crashes have been found to occur more frequently during the
98 descending phase of the circadian rhythm, with late night-time driving having the highest incidence
99 rates (Connor, et al., 2002; Pack et al., 1995). Increases in physiological indices as well as
100 decrements in simulated driving performance during the descending circadian phase have also been
101 observed during afternoon (Horne & Reyner, 1996) and evening driving (Sandberg et al., 2011).
102 Last, subjective measures of sleepiness have shown to be sensitive to circadian changes both in the
103 simulated (Akerstedt et al., 2010) and on-road driving settings (Sandberg, et al., 2011).

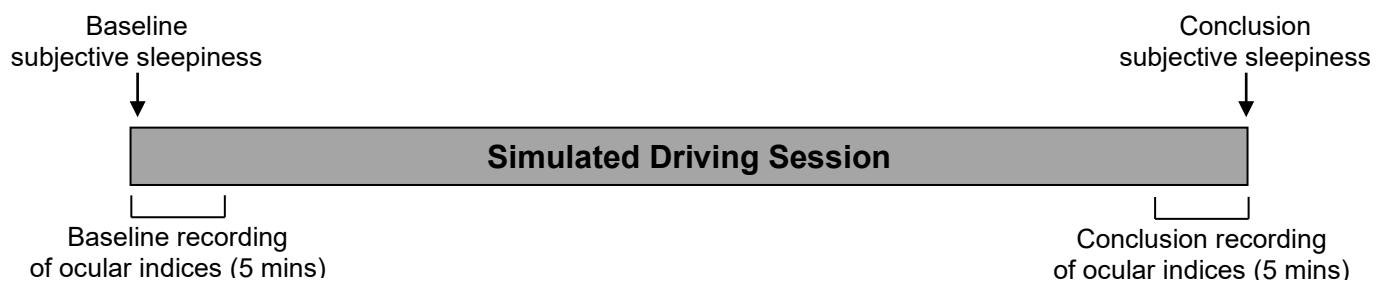
104 Extensive evaluations of the effect of the descending circadian phase on ocular indices are lacking.
105 The few studies that have examined the circadian effects on blink rates have some inconsistent
106 findings. For instance, an examination of blink rates from 10:00, 13:30, 17:00, and 20:30 only
107 found a significant increase in blinking rate at the 20:30 testing session (Barbato et al., 2000). In
108 contrast, De Padova, Barbato, Conte, & Ficca (2009) found no difference between blink rates across
109 the same testing times, even though subjective and cortical arousal levels recorded via
110 electroencephalography increased across the day. Regarding the circadian effects on blink duration,
111 increases in blink duration have been found to occur between day and night-time driving (Sandberg,
112 et al., 2011). Similarly, an overall increase in blink duration was found to occur across a simulated
113 driving testing session that spanned an entire day and night (Akerstedt, et al., 2010). However,
114 specific differences between morning and afternoon driving were not examined.

115 The cited literature suggests that ocular indices have the potential to be measures of sleepiness.
116 Although findings to date are somewhat inconsistent, overall ocular indices of blink rate and blink
117 duration are sensitive to differences in sleepiness between day and night-time testing sessions.
118 However, the sensitivity of these ocular indices between morning and afternoon testing sessions has
119 not been extensively demonstrated. Therefore, the aim of the current study was to examine the
120 circadian effects on blink rate, blink duration and subjective sleepiness levels.

121 **Method**

122 ***Designs***

123 A representation of the data collection points for the study can be seen in Figure 1. A mixed
124 factorial design was utilised to examine the study aim. The within-subjects factor was the baseline
125 and concluding measurements of subjective and ocular indices of sleepiness. The between-subjects
126 factor was the time of day of testing (i.e., morning or afternoon) to examine circadian effects.



127 Participants were randomly allocated to participate in a morning or afternoon testing session.

128 ***Figure 1. Placement of the data points for the current study.***

129

130

131

Statistical Analysis

132 As the current study had a between subjects factor (i.e., time of day of testing) it was prudent to
133 examine for differences between variables that could affect the between groups analysis. The first
134 analysis entailed a series of comparisons between the morning and afternoon groups on key
135 variables (i.e., demographic and sleep quality and sleep timing variables) that could affect
136 sleepiness levels. Any differences were considered as covariates in the main analyses. The main
137 analysis involved a series of repeated measures analysis of variance with a set of planned
138 comparisons on the ocular indices of blink rate and blink duration and subjective sleepiness with a
139 between groups variable of time of day of testing (i.e., morning or afternoon).

140

Participants

141 Participants were recruited with an email sent throughout the intranet of a Queensland university. In
142 total, 26 participants were involved in the study. The gender split was 19 females and 7 males; the
143 mean age of the participants was $M = 23.77$ years ($SD = 2.32$; range = 20-28). Participants had been
144 licenced for $M = 5.65$ years ($SD = 2.46$; range = 2-10) with the participants driving on average 14,
145 028.01 kilometres per year over the last three years ($SD = 14,028.01$; range = 1,040-70,000). In the
146 previous three years six participants reported that they had been involved in a crash (i.e., where they
147 were the driver and there was damage to property or persons). Participants were paid \$100 AUD for
148 their involvement in the study.

149

Exclusion criteria

150 A number of exclusion criterions were set. Participants were excluded if they were a shift worker,
151 had travelled overseas in the past month, had a habitual bedtime later than 12 midnight, had
152 significant health problems, took prescription medications or illicit drugs, had sleeping difficulties
153 (Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index score of < 5 : Buysse, Reynolds, Monk, Berman, & Kupfer, 1989),
154 or had excessive daytime sleepiness (Epworth Sleepiness Scale of > 10 : Johns, 1991).

155

Measures

156

Demographic information

157 The demographic information collected included participant age and gender. Traffic-related
158 demographic data, such as the duration of licensure, a measure of driving exposure (i.e., number of
159 hours driven per week), and the amount of crashes in the last three years was also collected.

160

Sleepiness Questionnaire

161 The sleepiness questionnaire was used by the current study as a measure to determine if any
162 differences between the morning and afternoon groups existed. The sleepiness questionnaire was
163 comprised of several published questionnaires, including the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI:
164 Buysse, et al., 1989) a measure of sleep quality, the Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS: Johns, 1991) a
165 measure of daytime sleepiness, the Sleep Timing Questionnaire (STQ: Monk et al., 2003) a measure
166 of habitual sleep and wake times that are combined to form a stability measure. Participants were
167 also required to provide a list of the signs of sleepiness that lets them know they are sleepy.
168 Previous work (i.e., Kaplan, et al., 2007) has suggested that limited knowledge of the signs of
169 sleepiness can affect self-perception of sleepiness levels.

170

Karolinska Sleepiness Scale

171 The Karolinska Sleepiness Scale (KSS; Åkerstedt & Gillberg, 1990) is a self-report measure of the
172 level of subjective sleepiness an individual is experiencing. Individuals are required to indicate on a
173 nine point Likert scale how sleepy they are currently feeling. The modified version of the KSS
174 (Reyner & Horne, 1998) includes verbal anchors for every step (1 = “extremely alert”, 2 = “very
175 alert”, 3 = “alert”, 4 = “rather alert”, 5 = “neither alert nor sleepy”, 6 = “some signs of sleepiness”, 7
176 = “sleepy, no effort to stay awake”, 8 = “sleepy, some effort to stay awake”, and 9 = “very sleepy,
177 great effort to keep awake, fighting sleep”). The question posed to the participants is “Right now
178 how sleepy are you feeling?” The KSS is a reliable and valid measure of subjective sleepiness,
179 when compared with objective physiological measures (Gillberg, Kecklund, & Åkerstedt, 1994;
180 Kaida, et al., 2006).

181 *Ocular Indices of Sleepiness*

182 The physiological measurement of ocular activity was recorded with electrooculography (EOG) and
183 was sampled at 256 Hz (i.e., 512 samples per second). Disposable self-adhesive electrodes were
184 placed above and below the eyes. The skin area where the electrode was to be placed was lightly
185 abraded until an impedance of five k Ω was achieved; as per guidelines for physiological recordings
186 (Leary, 2007).

187 Prior to extracting the ocular indices a 0.5 Hz high pass filter and a 10 Hz low pass filter were
188 applied to the signal. An eye blink was defined as a sharp high amplitude wave that was greater
189 than 100 μ V and was also visually confirmed as blinks on the EOG signal. The properties of each
190 blink was calculated from the start, peak and end point of the blink. Blink durations were measured
191 in milliseconds at half the blink amplitude of the down- and upswing to mitigate problems from
192 concurrent eye movements during an eye blink. Measuring blink durations at half the amplitude is
193 consistent with previous work (e.g., Ingre, et al., 2006; Sandberg, et al., 2011). The time periods
194 selected for the EOG data was five minutes at the beginning of the drive (baseline) and five minutes
195 immediately before stopping driving (conclusion). The ocular indices were all averaged over both
196 these five minute periods for the baseline and conclusion time periods. Increases in blink rate and
197 blink duration are indicative of greater sleepiness.

198 *Driving Stimulus*

199 The driving stimulus used for the current study was the Hazard Perception test. Hazard perception is
200 the skill to anticipate that a traffic scenario may result in a dangerous/hazardous situation, requiring
201 a reaction from the driver to avoid an incident (McKenna & Crick, 1991). The Hazard Perception
202 test requires the participants to watch a series of video clips and to indicate with a mouse click if
203 they identify a hazardous situation. The video footage was of real on-road driving, recorded from
204 the driver’s perspective (during daylight hours). Hazard Perception is the only driving skill that has
205 a consistent relationship with crash involvement, with faster hazard perception associated with
206 decreased on-road crash occurrences (e.g., Drummond, 2000; Hull & Christie, 1992; Pelz & Krupat,
207 1974; Pollatsek, Narayanaan, Pradhan, & Fisher, 2006). Hazard perception is an important driving
208 skill as it has criterion validity with actual on-road crashes.

209 To be consistent with current road safety recommendations (i.e., “Stop, Revive, and Survive”
210 campaign) the maximum duration of the Hazard Perception test was two hours. The current study
211 was solely interested in the effects of sleepiness on subjective and ocular indices, not the
212 impairment of performance from sleepiness. As such, the Hazard Perception test was used as a
213 driving stimulus only in the current study. The effect of sleepiness on Hazard Perception
214 performance can be found in previous work (i.e., Smith, et al., 2009). The hazard perception video
215 was displayed on a 17 inch monitor with a 4:3 ratio aspect.

216

217

218 **Procedure**

219 Ethical and Health and Safety clearances were obtained from the Queensland University of
 220 Technology Human Research Ethics Committee and Health and Safety Division respectively. The
 221 study protocol required participants to wake up at 05:00 on the testing day. They also could not
 222 consume any caffeine or alcohol until after participating in the study. On arrival at the testing
 223 laboratory, all participants were given written and oral information regarding the study procedure.
 224 All participants signed a written consent form prior to their participation. After obtaining signed
 225 consent the EOG electrodes attached to the participant. All participants received the instruction to
 226 stop driving once they believed they were too sleepy to drive safely on the road. The participants'
 227 subjective sleepiness was assessed immediately before they began the driving simulation. The
 228 participants spoke into a microphone to let the researcher know that they believed they were too
 229 sleepy to drive safely. The researcher noted the duration of the participants driving session then
 230 entered the testing room and assessed the participants' subjective sleepiness once more. The
 231 participants completed the driving simulation in a light, noise, and temperature-controlled
 232 environment, which was devoid of all time cues.

233 **Results**234 **Examining between groups differences**

235 To examine if any differences were present between the morning and afternoon groups for the
 236 demographic and sleep variables a series of comparisons were performed and can be seen in Figure
 237 1. As shown none of the variables were significantly different between morning and afternoon
 238 testing groups. There was no significant difference between the number of males or females
 239 participating in morning or afternoon testing groups $\chi^2(1) = 0.19, p = .67$. Therefore, the main
 240 analysis proceeded without having to add any covariates.

241 **Table 1. Examination of difference between morning and afternoon groups with demographic,**
 242 **sleep related, and testing outcomes**

	Time of Day of Testing		Significance test
	Morning (n = 13)	Afternoon (n = 13)	
Data Source	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	t-test (p)
Age	24.38 (1.98)	23.15 (2.54)	1.38 (.18)
Years licenced	6.39 (1.98)	4.92 (2.75)	1.56 (.13)
Km/year driven	6889.23 (5671.95)	15760.00 (18036.02)	-1.69 (.10)
PSQI	3.31 (0.75)	2.92 (0.95)	1.14 (.27)
ESS	6.69 (2.32)	6.77 (1.79)	-0.10 (.93)
STQ stability score	.66 (.49)	.72 (.36)	-0.25 (.81)
Signs of Sleepiness	5.08 (1.80)	4.23 (1.01)	1.48 (.15)
Baseline KSS	6.54 (0.78)	6.77 (0.60)	-0.85 (.41)
Driving duration	34.58 (14.47)	37.69 (20.92)	-0.44 (.66)

243

244 **Ocular and subjective analyses**

245 The means standard deviations and outcomes from the planned comparisons can be seen in Table 2.
 246 Regarding the morning testing sessions there were significant increases in the blink duration and
 247 subjective sleepiness indices. In contrast, during the afternoon sessions only a significant increase
 248 was found for the subjective sleepiness index. The blink rate analysis showed no significant
 249 differences between baseline and the conclusion measurements for the morning or afternoon
 250 sessions.

251
252**Table 2. Means, standard deviations, and planned comparison results for the ocular and subjective indices.**

	Time of Day of Testing					
	Morning (n = 13)			Afternoon (n = 13)		
	Baseline	Conclusion	Significance test	Baseline	Conclusion	Significance test
Data Source	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean Diff (p)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean Diff (p)
Mean blink duration	96.80 (10.02)	117.11 (29.62)	-20.31 (.01)	108.98 (13.44)	117.49 (20.63)	-8.51 (.20)
Mean blink rate	129.15 (38.59)	138.46 (49.77)	9.31 (.32)	111.00 (54.54)	104.23 (62.99)	6.77 (.47)
Subjective sleepiness	6.54 (0.77)	8.00 (0.41)	1.46 (< .001)	6.77 (0.60)	8.31 (0.48)	1.54 (< .001)

253

254 **Discussion**

255 The current study sought to examine the circadian effects on ocular and subjective sleepiness
 256 indices. Overall, the subjective sleepiness measure was sensitive to changes in sleepiness during the
 257 simulated driving task in the morning and afternoon sessions. In contrast, the ocular indices had
 258 some sensitivity to changes in sleepiness during the morning but no sensitivity during the afternoon
 259 driving sessions.

260 During morning and afternoon testing sessions significant increases were found to occur for the
 261 subjective sleepiness measure. This result is consistent with previous work, such that subjective
 262 sleepiness has been found to be the most sensitive measure of increasing sleepiness during
 263 simulated (Akerstedt, et al., 2010) and on-road driving studies (Sandberg, et al., 2011). This finding
 264 that participants could monitor their subjective perceptions of their sleepiness levels and could retire
 265 from the simulated driving task before falling asleep is encouraging for road safety.

266 Several studies have suggested that many individuals cannot sufficiently gauge if they will fall
 267 asleep when sleepy (e.g., Herrmann, et al., 2010; Kaplan, et al., 2007). However, these studies have
 268 typically been conducted when the participants are experiencing extreme levels of sleepiness and
 269 are 'fighting' sleep onset to maintain wakefulness. While sleep onset can be determined with a
 270 moderate degree of certainty from physiological measures, subjectively this is not the case.
 271 Previous work suggests that during the process of falling asleep the subjective perceptions of sleep
 272 onset is blurred and uncertain (Bonnet & Moore, 1982). The results from the current study and
 273 others (e.g., Akerstedt, et al., 2010; Sandberg, et al., 2011) suggests that subjective perceptions of
 274 sleepiness are adequate to gauge an individual's sleepiness level. However, subjective perceptions
 275 may have less sensitivity when experiencing an extreme level of sleepiness such as when fighting
 276 sleep onset.

277 The current study found no effect for blink rate during the simulated driving task for the morning or
 278 afternoon sessions. This finding is consistent with previous work that has found blink rates did not
 279 increase during daytime testing (e.g., Barbato, et al., 2000; De Padova, et al., 2009). Similarly, on-
 280 road driving assessments show blink rate does not increase over the duration of the drive
 281 (Häkkinen, et al., 1999). Previous work suggests that blink rate does increase with long duration
 282 testing sessions and increases in sleepiness (Stern, et al., 1994), but high perceptual demands can
 283 negate these increases in blink rate (Recarte, Pérez, Conchillo, & Nunes, 2008). It is likely that the
 284 Hazard Perception test has a high perceptual demand as proficient hazard perception requires high
 285 levels of visual searching (Underwood, Crundall, & Chapman, 2002). As such the perceptual

286 demands of the Hazards Perception test may have negated any increases in blink rate due to
287 increasing sleepiness.

288 The sensitivity of the blink duration index to detect increasing sleepiness was mixed. Specifically,
289 during the morning session the blink duration measure significantly increased from baseline to the
290 conclusion of the simulated drive. However, during the afternoon testing session no statistical
291 difference was found from baseline to the conclusion of the simulated drive. It is possible that the
292 descending circadian phase could have contributed to the lack of statistical difference result for the
293 blink duration measure. When the descending circadian phase begins increases in physiological
294 (Carskadon & Dement, 1992) and subjective sleepiness (Akerstedt, et al., 2010) occur. This
295 increase in sleepiness could have limited the range for which an increase in sleepiness could occur.
296 The mean difference from the blink duration planned comparisons support this interpretation. As
297 the morning session mean difference (-20.31) was greater than the afternoon session mean
298 difference (-8.51).

299 Continued evaluations are however needed to determine the utility of blink duration as a sensitive
300 measure of sleepiness. While the current study did not find any difference in blink duration in the
301 afternoon sessions, other studies have found increases in blink duration to occur during night-time
302 testing when the descending circadian phase has even greater strength (e.g., Anund, et al., 2008;
303 Sandberg, et al., 2011). During the afternoon testing other alertness promoting aspects may have
304 affected the obtained results. For instance, motivation to perform has been shown to effect
305 physiological indices other than ocular indices (Hsieh, Li, & Tsai, 2010) and participants could
306 have been more motivated during afternoon sessions. However, this is unlikely as all participants
307 received the same instructions from the experimenter.

308 ***Limitations and Future Research***

309 A limitation of the current study was that the exact position of the participant's circadian phase was
310 not assessed. Participants that had circadian phases that were slightly different from one another
311 could have affected the obtained results. The current study's exclusion criteria required participants
312 to have a habitual bedtime before midnight and as such would have limited the circadian phase
313 variability between participants. Future research could more closely control for the differences
314 between participants circadian phases. For instance, autographic monitoring of sleep-wake times
315 can give an estimate of circadian phase positioning when used with the appropriate biomathematical
316 model of sleep-wake. Additionally, the current study used young adults for it participants and
317 previous work suggests that ocular indices may vary between younger and older participants (e.g.,
318 De Padova, et al., 2009). Future research could assess the sensitivity of ocular indices for sleepiness
319 with older participants. Last, a number of other ocular indices (e.g., blink amplitude, eyelid closing
320 velocity, etc) need evaluating for their utility as a sleepiness indicator, future work could include
321 these measures as well.

322 ***Conclusion***

323 Driver sleepiness contributes substantially to fatal and severe crash incidents. Drivers' awareness of
324 their sleepiness levels (subjective sleepiness) remains a critical component for the mitigation of
325 sleep-related crashes. Several physiological indices of sleepiness show potential as a reliable
326 measure of drivers' sleepiness levels, including ocular indices. The current study sought to examine
327 the circadian effects on ocular and subjective indices while participants completed a simulated
328 driving task. Overall, the subjective sleepiness index was more sensitive to increases in sleepiness
329 levels. In contrast, only the ocular index of blink duration was sensitive to increasing sleepiness
330 during morning testing sessions. Further testing of these and other ocular indices are necessary
331 before a suitable physiological measure of sleepiness can be introduced as a mainstream monitor of
332 driver sleepiness levels.

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