**ONE GAZE IS WORTH INFINITE WORDS**

(**STUDY ON COGNITO - ATTENTION BASED NEUROINTEGRAL MODEL**)

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**Abstract**

*As an* ***introduction****, Brunswick Lens Model of, cognition based neurointegral, decision making was the first attempt (with application of non - determinist, probabilistic processes) towards computational a probabilistic advance to neurointegral decision making (cognito conduct of human beings with cues or indicators / variables) through use of linear regression. The fundamental argument of this replicate is that a restricted set of pointers (use of assortment of indications) can be mapped aligned with a neurointegral decision objective (ultimate neurointegral decisions) all the way through a weighting design.* ***Aim*** *of this paper is to reflect upon heterodoxies and disruption neuromanagement preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making process that marks commitment to obdurate intention. The aim is to decipher an interdisciplinary - oriented neurointegral peep into dynamics of challenges in neuromanagement preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision pathways that establish a parallel connecting risk-oriented pattern with preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision-making performing as moderator.* ***Scope*** *was to include students in a study to decode the absorption quotient of Students in a classroom with reference to ergonomics and related factors. Study attempts to examine the contrast between unswerving, univocal, realistic arch in a multifaceted process of unambiguous conciliation.* ***Methodology*** *adopted is an eye tracking experiment (with cues or indicators / variables) of students to gauge cognito - ocular indices and attention during discourse of knowledge transaction.* ***Results*** *indicate that Lens Model of Brunswik (1956), descriptive conceptualization of the human decision process, does influence cognition and attention through; information in decision situation, actual decision made and optimal or correct decision which should have been made in that persnickety condition.* ***Recommendations*** *include eye tracking of all Students before commencing a course of Instruction in a Subject / Class.*

**Key Words: Brunswick Lens, Neurointegral Decision, Eye Movement and Cognito - Attention Management**

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**Preamble**

 Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions are predictable part of personage behavior with daily life being progression of Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). Idiosyncratically, researchers are engrossed in assumptions, beliefs, habits and strategy to make neurointegral decisions (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). Any iteration of cognito management as individual attempt would need elucidation of substrates, techniques in addition to unpredictable effect of poignant maneuver in lead cognitive utility operative in neurointegral decision making processes relevant and virtual to biological resources (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). Brain considers sources of information before neurointegral decision (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). With dissimilar disciplines progressing in course of typically dissimilar techniques (multisensory input) and considerable advances, query of how we blueprint neurointegral decisions has affianced researchers (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). This paper investigates neurointegral basis of Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision inexorableness (‘cloud of Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision fog’) parameters in cognito management of predictable function (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). Cognito compound structure advancement to Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making, in turn, influence cognito management; perception strappingly entrenched in managerial psychology and cognito science (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997). Amalgamation offers stimulating prospective for fabrication of near - precise models of Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making (Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Goldstein & Hogarth; 1997).

No preferred neurointegral decision is a packaging up (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy & Washington; 2022). Traditional preferred neurointegral decision models have long preliminary in appreciative (decision ‘drivership’) preferred decision making (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023) These assume that individuals are rational actors who aim to capitalize value through optimal preferred decisions (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023). Since ascent of cognito-sciences in research on complicated anthropoid capital oriented business ‘drivership’ preferred neurointegral decision making, behavioral complicated cognito-anthropoid capital has connected strides in direction of swelling psychosomatic practicality of prototypes and causal suppositions (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik ; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023) This approach has been effectual at spawning inventive exploration schemata in cognito-anthropoid oriented decision ‘drivership’ Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision dynamics (Gigerenzer; 2011, Castellan; 1977, Brunswik ; 1944 and Satpathy;2023) Within new sod of cognito - oriented business ‘drivership’, these dissimilar stratagem, conscientiously despoiled by those not conversant of its start, and incontrovertibly, those beginning may be omitted, try to find universal idiom and conjecture to better comprehend anthropoid behaviour (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik ; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023).

Rational behaviour, in this perspective, refers to individuals making consistent and logical preferred neurointegral decisions oriented on complete and accurate information (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023) Neo -classical business ‘drivership’ relies on numerical models and equilibrium - oriented frameworks to analyze decision ‘drivership’ phenomenon (Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023). It assumes that individuals have perfect information, make preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions oriented on well-defined Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions, and connect in efficient neurointegral decision interactions (Gigerenzer; 2011 and Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023). This approach provides insights into preferred (multisensory key in) Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision behaviour and has been influential in shaping (decision ‘drivership’) preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Gigerenzer; 2011 and Castellan; 1977, Brunswik; 1944 and Satpathy; 2023).

**Introduction**

Deliberations on ‘challenges in neuro - management preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision pathways’ has christened 21st Century as convoluted play turf in decision ‘drivership’ decision dynamics (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). Over decades, decision ‘drivership’ practices has metamorphosed ushering era of inter - disciplinary practices with ‘anthropoid beings’, as ‘Central Agents’ of neurointegral decision behaviour (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). Some practices are convoluted but considerable in spite of unsullied neuromanagement preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision tasks (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). These lead to espouse determined outlines, operational tools, procedures and multi - dimensional setting (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). As a final point, decision ‘drivership’ practices are wedded to neurosciences (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). If VUCA (Vulnerability, Uncertainty, Complicated and Ambiguity) has given cradle to BANI (Brittle, Anxious, Non-linear, and Incomprehensible), it is biddable that time is appropriate for endoscopic peek into challenges in neuro - management preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision pathways (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). New siblings; RUPT (Rapid, Unpredictable, Paradoxical, and Tangled) and TUNA (Turbulent, Uncertain, Novel, and Ambiguous) pose challenge (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). Innovative implications are still unreliably tacit because they have not yet been completely explored. But, it is a ground - breaking idea that is gaining recognition (Cronbach, 1975). The time is ripe to grip package with positive lens in sync with forces of chaotic conditions (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020). Promising turf of neuro-sciences offers conjectural support to this facet (Satpathy and Gera; 2020 and Satpathy and Mallik; 2020).

Investigation on complicated preferred neurointegral decision making has spread from complicated ‘preferred’ neurointegral decision behaviorist attentiveness to ‘cognitive ‘advance that focus on complex neurointegral decision processes (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). In neural computational replication, each intricate neurointegral decision for phase of complicated preferred neurointegral decision task is represented by nodule of neural motion (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). Complicated preferred choice relate to neural proposition with intensification of shift and convoluted chosen neurointegral decision origin. This is for neural shift to conquer convoluted preferred choice to be concluded (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991, Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). A way to explore computational neurointegral decision making is to scrutinize positioning of Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision behaviour leading to decision point (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). Ocular movements are central measure of complicated neurointegral decision (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). Eye movements are indissolubly connected to optical deliberation as both are prime tools for choosing shares of chromatic projection for enriched perceptual and rational processing (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020).

**Brunswick’s Framework: Scan**

Brunswick pre-dates emergence of neuromanagement (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 and 2012). This ‘lens’ is an attempt at explaining goal seeking behaviour in absence of rational neurointegral decision etc (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012). Brunswik recognized that rational decision (structure-monism, development of albedo -perception, duplicity principle in theory of color perception, experiments on developmental psychology of thinking , perception and quantitative determination) was impossible to use and explain how preferred decisions are being made (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012). All these take back to fluid intelligence discussion; whether or not it is defendable? Which is the space that one should be exploring?  Integrating argument and offering reasonable explanation for decision making, in absence of rational processes being used, (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 and 2012 does not absolve neurointegral decision makers from decisions are still being made (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012)  But how? What we do know is that rational neurointegral decision is not being used (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012). Hence, hypothesis that could be being offered is by way of an explanation (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012). This is what researchers think is going on, and have some logic / long standing empirical evidence for support (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012).  That empirical evidence is limited should come as no revelation because behavioral studies are rare (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012). So drawing on general conjecture of neurointegral decision making (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012), neuromanagement is not just a substance of pragmatism; but inevitability (Dhami; 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008 & 2012).

**Eye Movements**

Investigating eye movements is a gauge based on condition that substantiation of point of reference of complicated neurointegral decision behaviour is replicating computational neurointegral decision for epoch of complicated decision configuration (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991, Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). Role of eye movements, premeditated or spontaneous effect, help in gaining, possessing and tracing visual inducements, for phase of complicated neurointegral decision formation (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). Current proof suggests that orientation of eye movement itself may not be an essential constituent (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020). To a certain extent, it can be a result of intensification in contact to incitement as an influential factor in complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision formation (Kowler, Pizlo, Zhu, Erkelens, Steinman, & Collewijn; 1991 and Satpathy, Das, Panda and Gankar; 2020).

Origin of neuro - decision ‘drivership’ has been laced with ‘Agents’ of complication (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Preferred neurointegral decision has always been mired with paradoxes (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Within framework of neuro - probabilistic functionalism in Brunswik’s Lens decisions framework, anthropoid-centered approaches are order of the Century (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Innovations and advances in neurointegral decision formation offer array of issues, questions and opportunities for experimentation (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Whether neurointegral decision (decision ‘drivership’ innovations) is optimal, favorable or advantageous is always subject to ‘Triantaphyllou Effect’ (Reference - Run analysis for performance values of alternatives  requirements for human-computer interface in varying milieu caused by ambiguity and indistinctness; Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Since incursion of neuro - biology research (Triantaphyllou effect) has betrothed stride on path of cumulative mental expediency of models and fundamental assumptions (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). To add credence is neuro - probabilistic functionalism in Brunswik’s Lens - oriented neurointegral decisions (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). This paper recognises ‘neurointegral decision’ (number of preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions increases, so does complicatedness of knowing what is best (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). Instead of increasing freedom to have what we want, paradox of preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision suggests that having too many preferred decisions limits preferred decision; Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021). This paper explores perspective in anthropoid cognition and quantum formalism to explore possibilities, narrow down solutions and discuss future developments (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Sahoo; 2021).

Traditional decision ‘drivership’ models have limitations when it comes to capturing complicated ties of real-world decision ‘drivership’ neurointegral decision making. This is particularly in unpredictable environments (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy; 2022). In practice, individuals frequently face cognitive limitations, imperfect information, and bounded rationality, which deviate from assumptions of rational behaviour (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy; 2022 and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Saufi; 2021). Heterodox theories emerge as alternative frameworks that challenge assumptions of rational behaviour and propose ways of perceptive preferred neurointegral decision making (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy; 2022). One prominent heretical conjecture is Behavioural Decision ‘drivership’, which explain deviations from rational behaviour (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy; 2022). It recognizes that individuals are prone to cognitive biases, heuristics, and emotional influences that affect preferred decision making processes (Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy; 2022 and Hammond; 2006 & Satpathy and Saufi; 2021).

**Aim and Objective(s)**

*‘Perception, then, emerges as that relatively primitive, partly autonomous, institutionalized, ratio morphic subsystem of cognition which achieves prompt and richly detailed orientation habitually concerning the vitally relevant, mostly distal aspects of the environment on the basis of mutually vicarious, relatively restricted and stereotyped, insufficient evidence in uncertainty-geared interaction and compromise, seemingly following the highest probability for smallness of error at the expense of the highest frequency of precision. That’s a simplification.’*

*….. Frank Rosenblatt*

Rapid pace of technological advancements in digital era has brought forth convergence of transformative forces: digital transformation and artificial intelligence (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). There is imperative need to understand issues and challenges research in turf of decision management with center of concentration on preferred neurointegral decision making (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). This paper aims to survey concept of flowing perspicacity in perspective of preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision-making and how unpredictability influences decision ‘drivership’ behaviour (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). There is need to unscrambling dynamics of fluid preferred neurointegral decision intelligence in face of unpredictability with heterodoxian neuro - business ‘drivership’ perspective (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Need is to explore relationship between fluid intelligence and decision ‘drivership’ behaviour, unravel underlying ocular processes, provide insight into mechanisms that contribute to decision ‘drivership’ success (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Aim is to reflect upon heterodoxian and disruption Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision process that mark commitment to obdurate intention (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Aim is to decipher interdisciplinary peep into dynamics of challenges in Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision pathways (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011).

Scope examines range, dimensions and predictability of substrates underlying neurointegral decision pathways (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Methodology incorporates attempt to replicate ideology of biology in influence of neurointegral algorithms in shaping decision strategy (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Ocular tracking have been explored towards obtaining deductions in decision ‘drivership’ preferred neurointegral decisions on 03 (three) participants (N = 03). Paper addresses issues in neurointegral decision making signature(s). Objective is to screen ideology of bionetwork in behavioral replicas within neuro - probabilistic functionalism endoscopy in Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011). Purpose is to reject traditional assumptions and evaluate factors and neural - agents that cast stimulus on neurointegral decision (Castellan; 1977 and Kowler; 2011).

**Methodology**

Can apparatuses reflect? Can AI do deep-seated investigation? How does AI pick up the pace of elementary explorations? *‘Neuroleadership is a concept in which neurosciences and organizational practices are linked. Its aim is to improve leadership effectiveness based on a thorough understanding of how the human brain works. Therefore, it addresses the brains of leaders, but also of workers and even consumers. Work activities take on a whole new meaning if you look at them from neurosciences. Neuroleadership focuses on finding new perspectives for aspects such as decision-making, collaboration and teamwork, emotion regulation, problem solving, and change processes. All those activities can be approached differently if interpreted from the knowledge provided by neurosciences. It's important to make it clear that trying to understand the brain, in the framework of work, has nothing to do with trying to manipulate it. What is sought is to create the conditions for everything to work better. Neuroleadership is a scientific-based discipline that focuses not only on the mental processes of the individual but also on how they influence and are influenced by the environment.’ .........* Santiago Vitola.

Cognitive architectures can be useful as a way ‘to explore different aspect of cognition’ (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher & Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957, Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Few neurocognitive models are simple (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Though implemented in spear neurons, it’s not clear how biologically logical they are (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton & Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Thalamus-cortical path idea is influential and may in point of fact be basis of a lot (if not all) of cognition (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). We relate (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012) Brunswick’s Lens apparatus to identify pieces of information and data, within realm of probabilistic functionalism, to synchronize various advancements and up-gradations in designing ‘diagram of cues’ oriented on inter - related pointers; eye (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002, Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002).

Methodology examines challenges which include personified, enacted, entrenched and biological under - defined range, dimensions and predictability of biological substrates underlying cognition processes (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Methodology incorporates review and conceptual framework of turf research in neuro - probabilistic functionalism endoscopy (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012). Brunswick’s neurointegral decisions tone (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002 include attempt with empirical part (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). As regards methodology, paper draws from ocular tracking experiment with replicative efforts on neurointegral studies (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Methodology is calibrated juxtaposition of conjectural and investigational contributions with spotlight on capability to balance oscillation with reference to eye dynamics (Zhao, Gersch, Schnitzer, Dosher and Kowler; 2012, Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce & Friedman; 2002). Tobii hand held eye tracker equipment with software has been used. Experiments were carried out and data obtained at NTNU University, Taipei (Taiwan).

**Experimental Results and Discussion**

(***Please refer to Tables and Graphs / Charts appended at the end of this paper***)

**Cognition** refers to mental processes and activities related to acquiring, processing, storing, and using information. It encompasses wide range of mental functions, including perception, memory, language, problem-solving, and decision-making. In context of this research, cognition involves studying how subjects at perceive, process, and utilize information in academic pursuits. Understanding how subjects perceive, process, and utilize information in academic pursuits involves delving into various aspects of cognition. Here are some key elements to consider when studying these cognitive processes:

Perceptual Processing: Perception is initial step in cognitive processing. Subjects perceive information through senses, primarily sight and hearing. They interpret visual and auditory stimuli from lectures, textbooks, presentations, and other educational materials. Researchers can explore how subjects perceive and make sense of complex visual or auditory information.

Attention Focus: Attention plays crucial role in academic learning. Researchers can investigate how subjects allocate attention when studying, attending lectures, or working on assignments. This includes understanding what factors influence attention, such as interest, motivation, and cognitive load.

Memory Formation: Memory is central to acquisition and utilization of information. Subjects encode information into memory, and later retrieval is essential for successful academic performance. Research can explore how subjects process and store information in short-term and long-term memory, as well as factors that impact memory consolidation and retrieval.

Cognitive Strategies: Subjects employ various cognitive strategies to enhance learning. These strategies can include note-taking, summarization, mnemonic techniques, and concept mapping. Research can investigate which strategies subjects use, how effective they are, and how these strategies evolve as subjects progress in academic careers.

Metacognition: Metacognition refers to thinking about one's thinking. It involves self-awareness and self-regulation of cognitive processes. Research can examine how subjects monitor and evaluate learning, set goals, and adjust strategies accordingly. Metacognitive skills are essential for effective study habits and problem-solving.

Information Integration: In education, subjects often need to integrate information from various sources, such as readings, lectures, and discussions. Research can examine how subjects synthesize information from different courses or disciplines and how they transfer knowledge across contexts.

Motivation and Emotion: Emotional states and motivation can significantly impact cognition. Research can examine how subjects' motivation levels and emotional states, such as stress or anxiety, influence cognitive processes, attention, and information utilization. Understanding these factors help in designing interventions to improve learning outcomes.

Technology and Learning: Consider role of technology in modern education. How do subjects use digital resources, online platforms, and educational technology tools to access, process, and utilize information? Research can examine impact of digital distractions and effectiveness of online learning environments.

Individual Differences: Recognize that individual subjects may have different cognitive styles, abilities, and prior knowledge. Research can examine how these individual differences affect ways subjects perceive, process, and utilize information in their academic pursuits.

Methods for Studying Cognition: To study these aspects of cognition among subjects, researchers typically employ combination of methods, including surveys, experiments, interviews, observations, and cognitive assessments. Collecting both quantitative and qualitative data can provide comprehensive understanding of how subjects engage with academic information. Techniques like eye-tracking, cognitive testing, and neuroimaging can be employed to gather data on how subjects perceive, process, and remember information and how their attention resources are allocated during learning tasks.

Benefits of Understanding Cognition: Ultimately, by gaining insights into how subjects perceive, process, and utilize information, educators and institutions can develop effective teaching strategies, support mechanisms, and curricular designs to enhance subject learning and success.

Key Advantages: Understanding cognition among subjects offers several significant benefits for educators, institutions, and subjects themselves.

Improved Teaching Strategies: By gaining insights into how subjects perceive, process, and utilize information, educators can tailor teaching methods to align with subjects' cognitive processes. This leads to effective instructional strategies, enhanced engagement, and improved learning outcomes.

Personalized Learning: Understanding individual differences in cognition allows to provide personalized learning experiences. By recognizing subjects' strengths and weaknesses, instructors can offer targeted support and adapt content to meet individual needs, fostering inclusive learning environment.

Enhanced Curriculum Design: Cognition research informs curriculum development. Institutions can design courses and programs that align with how subjects learn best, promoting deeper understanding, critical thinking, and knowledge retention.

Efficient Resource Allocation: Institutions can optimize allocation of resources, such as technology, instructional materials, and support services, based on an understanding of how subjects use resources to support cognitive processes.

Identification of At-Risk Subjects: Cognitive research help identify subjects who may be at risk of academic challenges early in education. This allows for timely intervention and support to prevent dropouts or academic underachievement.

Effective Study Skills: By teaching subjects about cognitive processes, metacognition, and effective study strategies, educators empower subjects to become self-regulated learners. This equips them with valuable skills that improve academic performance and overall success.

Reduction in Stress and Anxiety: Understanding how cognitive factors like stress and anxiety affect learning can lead to development of stress-reduction and mental health support programs. Reducing these barriers to learning can have positive impact on subjects' well-being and academic progress.

Enhanced Assessment: An understanding of cognition lead to development of better assessment methods. This includes assessments that align with how subjects learn and demonstrate their knowledge, reducing biases and promoting fair evaluation.

Research-Based Policies: Policymakers can use cognitive research to inform decision-making, leading to evidence-based policies that support subject success and overall effectiveness of education institutions.

Continuous Improvement: Ongoing research into cognition and learning ensures that educational practices remain current and effective. Institutions can adapt to changing subject needs and advances in pedagogical research to continuously improve educational offerings.

Positive Learning Environment: Knowledge of cognition can contribute to the creation of a supportive and engaging learning environment. This can enhance subject motivation, satisfaction, and sense of belonging within institution.

Global Competitiveness: Graduates of institutions that prioritize understanding cognition may possess stronger critical thinking, problem-solving, and adaptability skills, making them competitive in global job market.

Analyzing subjects' gaze patterns, distractions, and note-taking habits during lectures provide valuable insights into attention allocation strategies. Understanding where subjects direct visual attention and how distractions affect their information processing is crucial in this context. Examining multitasking behaviours, the impact of study environments, and subjects' time management strategies during study sessions sheds light on their ability to allocate attention effectively outside of lectures. These factors play a significant role in information processing during self-guided study. Correlating attention allocation patterns with learning outcomes, cognitive load, and retention/recall capabilities allows assessing how attention strategies affect subjects' academic performance and cognitive processes. Individual differences, motivation levels, and cognitive strategies significantly influence how subjects allocate attention during learning. Understanding these factors provides nuanced view of attention allocation. Developing and testing interventions to enhance subjects' attentional allocation during lectures and study sessions is essential. These interventions may include mindfulness techniques, digital detox programs, or guidance on effective note-taking.

In realm of education, cognition, which encompasses wide spectrum of mental processes such as perception, memory, language, problem-solving, and decision-making, constitutes a pivotal element. For academic researchers, cognition entails examination of how subjects within learning institutions perceive, process, and employs information in pursuit of academic endeavours. Understanding intricate dynamics of subjects' information perception, processing, and utilization necessitates a comprehensive exploration of cognitive components, including perceptual processing, attentional focus, memory formation, cognitive strategies, metacognition, information integration, motivation, technology usage, and individual differences. To investigate facets of cognition in education, researchers commonly employ combination of research methods, ranging from surveys and experiments to interviews, observations, and cognitive assessments. This multifaceted approach facilitates collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, further enhanced by specialized techniques like eye-tracking and neuroimaging to gain insights into how subjects perceive, process, and retain information and how they allocate attention during learning tasks.

The significance of understanding cognition extends to various advantages it offers for educators, institutions, and subjects alike. These advantages encompass refinement of teaching strategies, provision of personalized learning experiences, enhancement of curriculum design, optimization of resource allocation, early identification of at-risk subjects, cultivation of effective study skills, reduction of stress and anxiety barriers to learning, development of fair and effective assessment methods, formulation of research-based policies, continuous improvement of educational practices, creation of a positive learning environment, and elevation of graduates' global competitiveness in job market. Moreover, subfields focusing on attention allocation, metacognitive strategies, and comprehensive cognitive process research provide nuanced insights into effective teaching and learning practices that stand to benefit subjects and educational institutions.

Exploring allocation of subject attention and information processing is another critical research area within broader context of understanding cognitive processes in higher education. To comprehensively grasp this domain, researchers employ diverse range of research methods, encompassing surveys, observational studies, and neuroimaging techniques. These methods allow for examination of subjects' attention allocation patterns during lectures and study sessions, shedding light on strategies, distractions, and neurobiological underpinnings of attention. Furthermore, analyzing factors influencing attention allocation, including individual differences, motivation levels, and cognitive strategies, offers nuanced understanding of cognitive facet. The development and testing of interventions, such as mindfulness techniques and digital detox programs, aim to enhance subjects' attentional allocation, both during lectures and self-guided study sessions. Longitudinal studies, tracking changes in attentional behaviours as subjects’ progress through academic programs, provide valuable insights into development of attentional skills. Ethical considerations, especially when employing neuroimaging or collecting sensitive data on subjects' behaviours and attention, are integral to research process. Additionally, by discussing research implications and recommendations, research contributes to improvement of teaching methods and study environments, ultimately enhancing attention allocation and information processing in education.

Metacognitive strategies in higher education present yet another compelling avenue of research. The primary objectives encompass identifying and comprehending metacognitive strategies employed by successful subjects and designing and evaluating instructional interventions to impart strategies and bolster learning outcomes. Achieving these objectives necessitates the recruitment of a diverse sample of high-achieving subjects, employing a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, including interviews, surveys, and think-aloud protocols. These methods help identify metacognitive strategies such as goal setting, monitoring, self-regulation, time management, and adaptation based on feedback. Quantitative assessments, employing validated scales and questionnaires, gauge level of metacognitive awareness among successful subjects. Development and implementation of targeted metacognition training interventions, coupled with controlled experiments to evaluate effectiveness, constitute essential components of this research. Moreover, data analysis and reflection contribute to refining training programs. By discussing implications and recommendations, research aims to assist educators and institutions in incorporating metacognitive training into higher education curricula, thereby facilitating improved learning outcomes while adhering to ethical considerations throughout all stages of research.

Finally, conducting comprehensive cognitive process research in education necessitates consideration of various key elements. These encompass defining research objectives, questions, and hypotheses clearly, establishing participant selection criteria, adhering to ethical standards, selecting appropriate research methods and designs, determining suitable sampling strategies, developing or selecting relevant data collection instruments, defining and operationalizing cognitive processes and variables of interest, outlining data collection procedures, formulating a robust data analysis plan, identifying and addressing potential confounding variables, considering the research environment's impact, ensuring data validity and reliability, deciding between longitudinal and cross-sectional studies, incorporating mixed methods approach, implementing secure data management practices, upholding ethical standards in participant interactions, interpreting findings within existing literature and theories, assessing generalizability, discussing practical implications for educators, institutions, and policymakers, and planning for research diffusion. By meticulously considering these key elements, researchers can design rigorous studies that contribute to deeper understanding of cognitive processes in higher education.

Conducting longitudinal studies helps track changes in subjects' attentional behaviours and information processing as they progress through academic programs. This long-term perspective offers valuable insights into development of attentional skills. Analyzing collected data using appropriate statistical methods and interpreting findings in the context of existing literature in cognitive psychology and education is crucial for drawing meaningful conclusions. Discussing implications of research findings for educators and institutions, and providing recommendations for improving teaching methods and study environments, contributes to enhancing attention allocation and information processing in education.

The main objective of this research is to identify and understand metacognitive strategies used by successful subjects in higher education. Additionally, it aims to design and evaluate instructional interventions to teach these strategies and enhance learning outcomes. First step has been to trade in data into SPSS Statistics 29 software. Descriptive statistics were then carried out. For comparisons between groups, the t-student test for independent samples, t-student test for paired samples and one-way ANOVA have been used after checking the respective assumptions. The respective non-parametric tests have been used if the assumptions were not met. Pearson's correlations have been used to study the association between the variables. Initially, descriptive statistics were carried out on the variables under study, the results of which are shown in the table.

**Attention** is a complex cognitive process, and its quantification modeling has been a topic of interest in various fields, including psychology, neuroscience, and artificial intelligence. While there isn't a single quantification formula that fully describes attention, there are several quantification models and theories that attempt to capture different aspects of attention. Attention is a critical cognitive process that plays a fundamental role in learning and academic performance. It involves focusing mental resources on specific stimuli or tasks while ignoring distractions. In educational settings, understanding how subjects allocate and manage attention during lectures and study sessions is essential for optimizing learning experiences. This complex and multifaceted research area encompasses various aspects, including selective attention, sustained attention, and divided attention. This paper explores the factors influencing subjects' attention allocation, advantages of effective attention allocation, recommendations for improving attention strategies, and practical applications of understanding subject attention.

Filter Theory: This model suggests that attention acts as filter that selectively processes certain information while ignoring or attenuating other information. It can be represented as a convolution or multiplication of sensory input and attention weights.

Feature Integration Theory: Proposed by Anne Treisman, this suggests that attention helps integrate features of an object (e.g., colour, shape) into coherent perceptual whole. Quantification models here involve feature binding and binding errors.

Resource Allocation Theory: This theory posits that attention is a finite resource that can be distributed among different tasks or sensory inputs. The quantification concept of resource allocation can be modelled using principles from economics, such as utility functions.

Capacity Models: These models describe attention as having limited capacity, often measured in terms of bits of information. Quantification formulations use concepts from information theory to model attention capacity and its allocation.

Neural Network Models: Neural networks, particularly recurrent neural networks (RNNs) and convolution neural networks (CNNs) have been used to model attention mechanisms in brain / eye(s). Attention mechanisms in these models often involve learnable parameters (e.g., attention weights) and can be fine-tuned using gradient-based optimization.

Biophysical Models: These models attempt to describe underlying neural mechanisms of attention, including role of neurotransmitters and neural firing rates. They involve differential equations and computational neuroscience approaches.

Attention Mechanisms in Deep Learning: Attention mechanisms, such as transformer architecture and its variants (e.g., BERT, GPT), have been pivotal in natural language processing and computer vision tasks. These models use quantification formulations for attention mechanisms, including self-attention and cross-attention mechanisms.

Reinforcement Learning with Attention: In reinforcement learning, attention mechanisms are used to model how agents focus on relevant parts of environment (Brunswik Concept) to make decisions. These models involve quantification formulations related to policy optimization and value estimation.

Psychometric Functions: Psychophysicists use quantification functions like sigmoid curves to model how attention affects perception and decision-making in psychophysical experiments.

Bayesian Models: Bayesian frameworks can be used to model probabilistic nature of attention. For example, attention can be seen as process of updating beliefs about environment based on sensory evidence and prior knowledge.

In ***summary***, quantification of attention is a multidisciplinary field encompassing various models and theories. Choice of quantification approach depends on specific aspect of attention being studied and context in which it is applied, whether it's psychology, neuroscience, artificial intelligence, or other fields. These models and theories provide valuable insights into how attention operates in human brain / eye(s) and how it can be implemented in artificial systems to improve performance in various tasks.

Attention Economy Model: This model views attention as finite resource that individuals allocate among various tasks, activities, or information sources.

Neural Network Models: In context of artificial intelligence and deep learning, attention mechanisms have been integrated into neural network architectures.

Statistical Models for Visual Attention: In computer vision, researchers have developed statistical models to simulate human visual attention.

Quantification Psychology: Researchers in quantification psychology have developed quantification models to describe how attention influences perception and decision-making.

Information Theory: Information theory concepts, such as entropy and mutual information, have been applied to study of attention. These concepts help quantify amount of information conveyed by different stimuli and how attention affects processing of information.

Bayesian Models of Attention: Bayesian approaches have been used to model attention in various contexts. Bayesian models consider attention as probabilistic process, where prior beliefs and sensory evidence are combined to estimate probability of attending to different stimuli.

Reinforcement Learning: In context of reinforcement learning, attention mechanisms can be integrated into algorithms to enhance agent's ability to focus on relevant information in environment. This is used in tasks such as image captioning and natural language understanding.

It's important to note down that quantification of attention can vary significantly depending on specific context and application. Researchers from fields such as psychology, neuroscience, computer science, and cognitive science continue to develop and refine quantification models to better understand and simulate attention in various domains. These models are instrumental in advancing understanding of human cognition and in developing applications in artificial intelligence and human-computer interaction.

Factors Influencing Subject Attention: Several factors hinder subjects from effectively allocating attention during lectures.

Environmental Distractions: Environmental factors such as noise, uncomfortable seating, and visual distractions divert subjects' attention away from lecture content (Steele, 2005).

Technological Distractions: The use of digital devices for non-academic purposes during lectures can significantly disrupt attention.

Lack of Engagement: Passive or monotonous lectures lead to disengagement and reduced attention from subjects.

Cognitive Overload: Overwhelming subjects with excessive information lead to cognitive overload and decreased attention.

Lack of Relevance: Subjects disengage if they perceive lecture content as irrelevant to goals.

Physical Discomfort: Physical discomfort, such as fatigue or hunger, diverts attention away from lecture material.

Lack of Interactivity: Lectures that lack opportunities for subject interaction hinder attention.

Stress and Anxiety: High levels of stress or anxiety limit subjects' ability to allocate attention effectively.

Lack of Motivation: Subjects who lack intrinsic motivation struggle to maintain attention.

Cognitive Fatigue: Extended lectures without breaks lead to cognitive fatigue.

Learning Disabilities: Subjects with learning disabilities may struggle to allocate attention effectively.

**Table – 1**

**Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum Point and Maximum Point : For Gaze Point X and Gaze Point Y**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | Gaze Point X | Gaze Point Y |
| **Mean** | 639 | 441 |
| **Stand Dev** | 220.5812 | 178.0818 |
| **Minimum** | 2 | 200 |
| **Maximum** | 888 | 886 |

**Table – 2**

**Spearman’s Rank Correlation between Gaze Point X and Gaze Point Y**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Coefficient (rs):** | 0.034154 | | |
| **N:** | 5629 | | |
| **T Statistic:** | 2.56348 | | |
| **DF:** | 5627 | | |
| **p Value** | 0.010389 | | |
| **Correlation Coefficient between X and Y** | | 0.034154 |

**Table – 3**

**T-test (Gaze point X Vs Gaze point Y)**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means** |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | *Gaze Point X* | *Gaze Point Y* |
| **Mean** | 638.7930361 | 440.7571505 |
| **Variance** | 48664.71 | 31718.76635 |
| **Observations** | 5629 | 5629 |
| **Pearson Correlation** | 0.034153725 |  |
| **Hypothesized Mean Difference** | 0 |  |
| **df** | 5628 |  |
| **t Stat** | 53.30275091 |  |
| **P(T<=t) one-tail** | 0 |  |
| **t Critical one-tail** | 1.64512442 |  |
| **P(T<=t) two-tail** | 0 |  |
| **t Critical two-tail** | 1.960385586 |  |

**Table – 4**

**Spearman’s Rank Correlation between Occurrence Duration and Gaze Point Y**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Spearman's between duration and X** |  | |
| **Coefficient (Rs):** | | 0.155688977 |
| **N:** | | 5630 |
| **T Statistic:** | | FALSE |
| **DF:** | | 5628 |
| **p Value** | | 1 |

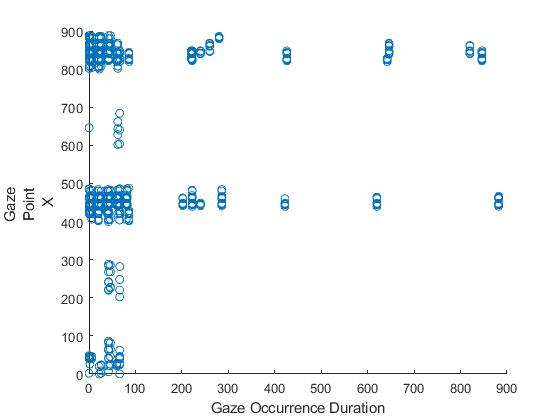
**Table – 5**

**Spearman’s Rank Correlation between Occurrence Duration and Gaze Point Y**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Spearman's between duration and Y** |  |
| **Coefficient (Rs):** | 0.252295921 |
| **N:** | 5630 |
| **T Statistic:** | 19.56000293 |
| **DF:** | 5628 |
| **p Value** | 1.76451E-82 |

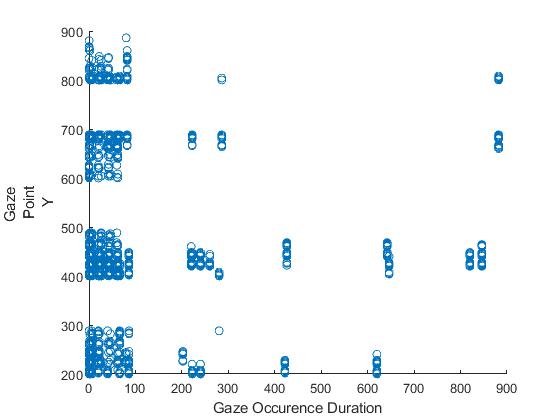
**Fig - 1**

**Scatter Plot Occurrence Duration and Point X**



**Fig – 2**

**Scatter Plot Occurrence Duration and Gaze Point Y**



**Table – 6**

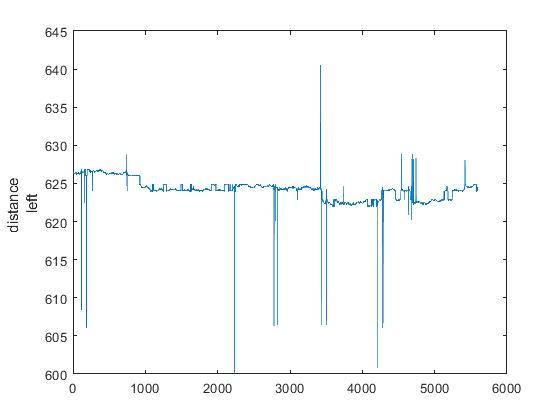
**ANOVA Test Between Distance Left And Distance Right**

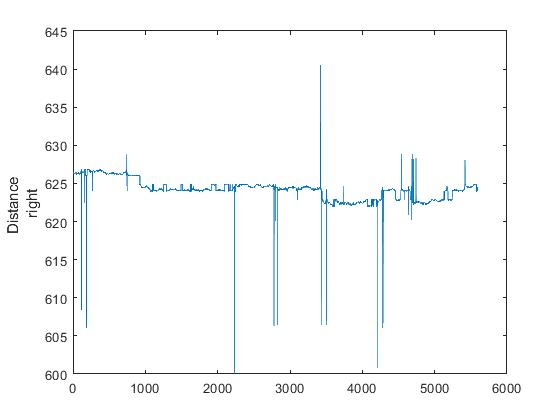
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Summary** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *Groups* | *Count* | *Sum* | *Average* | *Variance* |  |  |
| Distance Left | 5596 | 3492817 | 624.1631 | 2.826316 | | |  |  |
| Distance Right | 5596 | 3492817 | 624.1631 | 2.826316 |  |  |
| **ANOVA** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *Source of Variation* | *SS* | *df* | *MS* | *F* | *P-value* | *F crit* |
| Between Groups | 2.86E-09 | 1 | 2.86E-09 | 1.01E-09 | 0.999975 | 3.84229 |
| Within Groups | 31626.47 | 11190 | 2.826316 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total | 31626.47 | 11191 |  |  |  |  |

**∴** Distance between left and right , after calculating the distance between them

mean, SD minimum point and maximum point are calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Mean | 624.2 |
| SD | 1.681015 |
| minimum | 0 |
| Maximum | 33.94113 |





**Table - 7**

**Descriptive Statistics of Variables**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sub | Variable | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
| 1 | Recording Time | 203 | 2 | 688 | 371.67 | 204.57 |
| Duration | 203 | 0 | 260 | 154.39 | 114.10 |
| Gaze Point X | 180 | 840 | 888 | 861.41 | 7.67 |
| Gaze Point Y | 180 | 402 | 804 | 456.12 | 77.03 |
| Distance Left | 173 | 608.44 | 626.88 | 626.24 | 1.50 |
| Distance Right | 180 | 0 | 626.88 | 601.89 | 121.42 |
| 2 | RecordingTime | 203 | 0 | 888 | 393.55 | 328.10 |
| Gaze Duration | 203 | 0 | 280 | 106.48 | 125.37 |
| Gaze Point X | 168 | 826 | 888 | 874.86 | 11.38 |
| Gaze Point Y | 168 | 266 | 684 | 410.46 | 55.26 |
| Distance Left | 167 | 606.08 | 626.88 | 626.10 | 3.13 |
| Distance Right | 168 | .00 | 626.88 | 622.37 | 48.40 |
| 3 | Recording Time | 203 | 400 | 2088 | 913.46 | 550.90 |
| Gaze Occurrence Duration | 203 | 22 | 280 | 62.49 | 62.42 |
| Gaze Point X | 203 | 0 | 886 | 618.69 | 378.80 |
| Gaze Point Y | 203 | 288 | 448 | 420.09 | 20.06 |
| Distance Left | 203 | 626.20 | 626.84 | 626.45 | .20 |
| Distance Right | 203 | 626.20 | 626.84 | 626.45 | .20 |
|  | RecordingTime | 609 | 0 | 2088 | 559.56 | 461.85 |
| Gaze Duration | 609 | 0 | 280 | 107.79 | 110.69 |
| Gaze Point X | 551 | 0 | 888 | 776.09 | 259.35 |
| Gaze Point Y | 551 | 266 | 804 | 428.93 | 58.15 |
| Distance Left | 543 | 606.08 | 626.88 | 626.27 | 1.93 |
| Distance Right | 551 | 0 | 626.88 | 617.18 | 75.01 |

As for the Gaze Occurrence Type, the distribution is as follows (Table).

**Table – 8**

**Subject Frequencies**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Gaze Occurrence**  **Type** | **Subject 1** | | **Subject 2** | | **Subject 3** | |
| **Frequency** | **%** | **Frequency** | **%** | **Frequency** | **%** |
| Unclas | 44 | 21.7 | 73 | 36.0 | 0 | 0 |
| Saccade | 51 | 25.1 | 23 | 11.3 | 18 | 8.9 |
| Fixation | 108 | 53.2 | 107 | 52.7 | 185 | 91.1 |

The effect of Gaze Occurrence Type on Gaze Occurrence Duration, Gaze Point X and Gaze Point Y was then tested for each Subject. The most appropriate test would have been the One-Way ANOVA parametric test, but as the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances were not met, the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test was used for Subjects 1 and 2, and the Mann-Whitney non-parametric test for Subject 3.

**Table – 9**

**Effect of Gaze Occurrence Type on Duration**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Subject | Gaze Uccurrence  Type | Test Statistics | p | Mean Rank |
| 1 | Unclas | 179.65\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 53.97 |
| Saccade | 42.82 |
| Fixation | 149.50 |
| 2 | Unclas | 125.62\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 58.74 |
| Saccade | 44.09 |
| Fixation | 143.96 |
| 3 | Unclas | 7.91\*\*\* | < 0.001 | - |
| Saccade | 111.00 |
| Fixation | 9.5 |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

In **Subject 1**, There were statistically significant differences in Gaze Occurrence Duration as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 179.65; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.88). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group (Z = 11.63; p < 0.001) and Occurrence Type of Saccade group (Z = 9.89; p < 0.001), showing significantly higher mean rank.

In **Subject 2,** there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Occurrence Duration as a function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 125.62; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.62). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group (Z = 9.92; p < 0.001) and Occurrence Type of Saccade group (Z = 7.68; p < 0.001), showing significantly higher mean rank.

In **Subject 3**, there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Occurrence Duration as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (Z = 7.91; p < 0.001; r = 0.56). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from the Gaze Occurrence Type of Saccade group, showing a significantly lower mean rank.

**Table – 10**

**Effect of Gaze Occurrence Type on Gaze Point X**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Subject | Gaze  Occurrence Type | Test Statistics | p | Mean Rank |
| 1 | Unclas | 5.67 | 0.059 | 79.29 |
| Saccade | 104.01 |
| Fixation | 86.88 |
| 2 | Unclas | 14.68\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 59.79 |
| Saccade | 79.87 |
| Fixation | 94.27 |
| 3 | Unclas | 0.58 | 0.561 | - |
| Saccade | 111.00 |
| Fixation | 9.5 |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

In **Subject 1,** there were no statistically significant differences in Gaze Point X as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 5.67; p = 0.059; ηH = 0.02).

In **Subject 2,** there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Point X as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 14.68; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.08). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group (Z = 3.80; p < 0.001), showing significantly higher mean rank(Table).

In **Subject 3,** there were no statistically significant differences in Gaze Point X as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (Z = 0.58; p = 0.561; r = 0.06).

**Table – 11**

**Effect of Gaze Occurrence Type on Gaze Point Y**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Subject | Gaze Occurrence  Type | Test  Statistics | p | MeanRank |
| 1 | Unclas | 32.78\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 120.69 |
| Saccade | 116.21 |
| Fixation | 72.49 |
| 2 | Unclas | 9.41\*\* | 0.009 | 105.09 |
| Saccade | 83.93 |
| Fixation | 77.31 |
| 3 | Unclas | 3.72\*\*\* | < 0.001 | - |
| Saccade | 53.08 |
| Fixation | 106.76 |

Note. \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

In **Subject 1**, there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Point Y as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 32.78; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.17). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group (Z = 3.90; p < 0.001) and Occurrence Type of Saccade group (Z = -4.97; p < 0.001), showing significantly lower mean rank.

In **Subject 2**, there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Point Y as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (H (2) = 9.41; p = 0.009; ηH = 0.04). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group (Z = -3.07; p = 0.006), showing significantly lower mean rank.

In **Subject 3**, there were statistically significant differences in Gaze Point Y as function of Gaze Occurrence Type (Z = 7.91; p < 0.001; r = 0.56). Gaze Occurrence Type of Fixation group differed significantly from Gaze Occurrence Type of Unclas group, showing significantly higher mean rank.

Next, for all the groups, we tested whether there were statistically significant differences between Gaze Point X and Gaze Point Y, using Student's t-tests for paired samples. Assumption of normality was not tested because samples consist of more than 03 participants, according to Central Limit Theorem, they tend towards normality.

**Table – 12**

**Differences between Gaze Point X and Y**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Subject | t | p | Gaze Point X | | Gaze Point Y | |
| Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| 1 | 69.85\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 861.41 | 7.67 | 456.12 | 77.03 |
| 2 | 96.54\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 874.86 | 11.38 | 410.46 | 55.26 |
| 3 | 7.67\*\*\* | < 0.001 | 618.69 | 378.80 | 420.09 | 20.06 |

Note. \*\*\* p < 0.001

Statistically significant differences were found between Gaze Point X and Gaze Point Y in :-

Subject 1 (t (180) = 69.85; p < 0.001; d = 5.21),

Subject 2 (t (168) = 96.54; p < 0.001; d = 7.45)

Subject 3 (t (203) = 7.67; p < 0.001; d = 0.54), with Gaze Point X always showing a higher mean than Gaze Point Y

Pearson's correlations were used to test the association between the variables under study.

**Table – 13**

**Association Between Variables Under Study /** (**Subject 1**)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1. RecordingTime |  | -- |  |  |  |  |  | |  |
| 1. Gaze OccurrenceType |  | -0.61\*\*\* | -- |  |  |  |  | |  |
| 1. Gaze OccurrenceDuration |  | -0.78\*\*\* | 0.89\*\*\* | -- |  |  |  | |  |
| 1. Gaze PointX |  | 0.34\*\*\* | 0.02 | -0.05 | -- |  |  | |  |
| 1. Gaze PointY |  | 0.36\*\*\* | -0.49\*\*\* | -0.49\*\*\* | -0.06 | -- |  | |  |
| 1. Distance Left |  | -0.01 | 0.17\* | 0.09 | 0.24\*\* | -0.43\*\*\* | -- | |  |
| 1. Distance Right |  | -0.18\* | 0.35\*\*\* | 0.27\*\*\* | -0.13 | -0.51\*\*\* | 1.00\*\*\* | | -- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | |  |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

The results indicate that Recording Time is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Type (r = - 0.61; p < 0.001), Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = -0.78; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.18; p = 0.017). It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point X (r = 0.34; p < 0.001) and Gaze Point Y (r = 0.36; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Type was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = 0.86; p < 0.001), Distance Left (r = 0.17; p = 0.022) and Distance Right (r = 0.35; p < 0.001). It was negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.47; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Duration is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.49; p < 0.001) and positively and significantly associated with Distance Right (r = 0.27; p < 0.001). Gaze Point X is positively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = 0.24; p = 0.002).Gaze Point Y is negatively and significantly associated with Distance Leftt (r = -0.43; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.51; p < 0.001).

**Table – 14**

**Association between Variables / (Subject 2)**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | |  |  | 5 | 6 |  |
| Recording Time |  | -- |  |  |  |  | |  | |  |
| Gaze Occurrence Type |  | -0.41\*\*\* | -- |  |  |  | |  | |  |
| Gaze Occurrence Duration |  | -0.29\*\*\* | 0.66\*\*\* | -- |  |  | |  | |  |
| Gaze Point X |  | -0.22\*\* | 0.32\*\*\* | 0.58\*\*\* | -- |  | |  | |  |
| Gaze Point Y |  | 0.18\* | -0.27\*\*\* | -0.19\* | -0.56\*\*\* | -- | |  | |  |
| Distance Left |  | -0.33\*\*\* | 0.25\*\*\* | 0.16\* | 0.67\*\*\* | -0.55\*\*\* | | -- | |  |
| Distance Right |  | -0.16\* | 0.15 | 0.09 | 0.28\*\*\* | -0.39\*\*\* | | 1.00\*\*\* | | -- |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

The results indicate that Recording Time is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Type (r = -0.41; p < 0.001), Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = -0.29; p < 0.001), Gaze Poin X (r = -0.22; p = 0.004), Gaze Distance Left (r = -0.33; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.16; p = 0.040). It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.18; p = 0.023). Gaze Occurrence Type was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = 0.66; p < 0.001), Gaze Point X (r = 0.32; p < 0.001) and Distance Left (r = 0.25; p < 0.001). It was negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.27; p < 0.001).

Gaze Occurrence Duration is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.19; p = 0.016).It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point X (r = 0.58; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = 0.16; p = 0.035). Gaze Point X is positively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = 0.67; p < 0.001)and Distance Right (r = 0.28; p < 0.001).It was negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.56; p < 0.001). Gaze Point Y is negatively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = -0.55; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.39; p < 0.001).

**Table – 15**

**Association Between Variables / (Subject 3)**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Recording Time |  | -- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Gaze OccurrenceType |  | .023\* \*\* | -- |  |  |  |  |  |
| Gaze Occurrence Duration |  | -0.26\*\*\* | 0.19\*\* | -- |  |  |  |  |
| Gaze Point X |  | 0.41\*\*\* | 0.07 | 0.09 | -- |  |  |  |
| Gaze Point Y |  | 0.65\*\*\* | 0.24\*\*\* | -0.37\*\*\* | 0.51\*\*\* | -- |  |  |
| Distance Left |  | -0.59\*\*\* | -0.27\*\*\* | 0.31\*\*\* | -0.74\*\*\* | -0.78\*\*\* | -- |  |
| Distance Right |  | -0.59\*\*\* | -0.27\*\*\* | 0.31\*\*\* | -0.74\*\*\* | -0.78\*\*\* | 1.00\*\*\* | -- |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

The results indicate that Recording Time is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = -0.26; p < 0.001), Distance Left (r = -0.59; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.59; p < 0.001). It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Type(r = 0.23; p < 0.001), Gaze Point X (r = 0.41; p < 0.001)and Gaze Point Y (r = 0.65; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Type was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = 0.19; p = 0.006) andGaze Point Y(r = 0.24; p < 0.001).It was negatively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = -0.27; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.27; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Duration is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = -0.37; p < 0.001).It was positively and significantly associated with Distance Left(r = 0.31; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = 0.31; p < 0.001). Gaze Point X is negatively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = -0.74; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.74; p < 0.001).It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.51; p < 0.001). Gaze Point Y is negatively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = -0.78; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.78; p < 0.001). The next step was to test whether there were statistically significant differences in the variables under study according to the Subject. To this end, several non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were carried out since the assumptions for the parametric ANOVA One Way test were not verified.

**Table – 16**

**Effect Of Subject On Variables**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Dependent Variable** | **Subject** | **H** | **p** | **Mean Rank** |
| Recording  Time | 1 | 176.63 | < 0.001 | 230.69 |
| 2 | 245.59 |
| 3 | 438.72 |
| Fixation Index | 1 | 373.88 | < 0.001 | 54.50 |
| 2 | 169.50 |
| 3 | 303.66 |
| Gaze Occurrence  Duration | 1 | 26.47 | < 0.001 | 355.74 |
| 2 | 272.61 |
| 3 | 286.65 |
| Gaze Point X | 1 | 217.60 | < 0.001 | 260.48 |
| 2 | 416.35 |
| 3 | 173.61 |
| Gaze Point Y | 1 | 143.73 | < 0.001 | 375.21 |
| 2 | 171.00 |
| 3 | 274.93 |
| Distance  Left | 1 | 76.46 | < 0.001 | 221.30 |
| 2 | 359.08 |
| 3 | 243.57 |
| Distance  Right | 1 | 79.30 | < 0.001 | 220.56 |
| 2 | 364.92 |
| 3 | 251.57 |

Note. \*\*\* p < 0.001

There are statistically significant differences in Recording Time according to Subject (H (2) = 176.63; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.29). Recording Time is significantly higher in Subject 3 than in Subject 1 (Z = -11.91; p < 0.001) and Subject 2(Z = -11.06; p < 0.001). There are statistically significant differences in Fixation Index according to Subject (H (2) = 378.88; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.99). Fixation Index is significantly higher in Subject 3 than in Subject 1 (Z = -19.02; p < 0.001) and Subject 2 (Z = -10.21; p < 0.001).There are statistically significant differences in Gaze Occurrence Duration according to Subject (H (2) = 26.47; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.04). Gaze Occurrence Duration is significantly higher in Subject 1 than in Subject 2(Z = 4.81; p < 0.001) and Subject 3 (Z = 3.99; p < 0.001).There are statistically significant differences in Gaze Point X according to Subject (H (2) = 217.60; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.39). Gaze Point X is significantly higher in Subject 2 than in Subject 1 (Z = 9.16; p < 0.001) and Subject 3 (Z = 14.66; p < 0.001). Gaze Point X was also significantly higher in Subject 1 compared to Subject 3 (Z = 5.35; p < 0.001).There are statistically significant differences in Gaze Point Y according to Subject (H (2) = 143.73; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.26). Gaze Point Y is significantly higher in Subject 1 than in Subject 2(Z = 11.99; p < 0.001) and Subject 3 (Z = 6.17; p < 0.001). Gaze Point Y was also significantly higher in Subject 3 compared to Subject 2 (Z = 6.28; p < 0.001).There are statistically significant differences in Distance Left according to Subject (H (2) = 76.46; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.14). Distance Left is significantly higher in Subject 2 than in Subject 1(Z = 8.11; p < 0.001) and Subject 3 (Z = 7.06; p < 0.001). There are statistically significant differences in Distance Right according to Subject (H (2) = 76.30; p < 0.001; ηH = 0.17). Distance Right is significantly higher in Subject 2 than in Subject 1(Z = 8.47; p < 0.001) and Subject 3 (Z = 6.38; p < 0.001).

Using chi-square test, we also tested whether Subject and Gaze Occurrence Type were independent. The results show that these two variables are not independent (ꭓ2 (4) = 119.95; p < 0.001; V = 0.31). The results are shown in the table.

**Table – 17**

**Subject \* Gaze Occurrence Type Cross Tabulation**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | | Gaze Occurrence Type | | | Total |
| Unclas | Saccade | Fixation |
| Sub | 1 | Count | 44 | 51 | 108 | 203 |
| Expected Count | 39.0 | 30.7 | 133.3 | 203.0 |
| % within Gaze  Occurrence Type | 37.6% | 55.4% | 27.0% | 33.3% |
| Adjusted Residual | 1.1 | 4.9 | -4.6 |  |
| 2 | Count | 73 | 23 | 107 | 203 |
| Expected Count | 39.0 | 30.7 | 133.3 | 203.0 |
| % within Gaze  Occurrence Type | 62.4% | 25.0% | 26.8% | 33.3% |
| Adjusted Residual | 7.4 | -1.8 | -4.8 |  |
| 3 | Count | 0 | 18 | 185 | 203 |
| Expected Count | 39.0 | 30.7 | 133.3 | 203.0 |
| % within GazeOccurrenceType | 0.0% | 19.6% | 46.3% | 33.3% |
| Adjusted Residual | -8.5 | -3.0 | 9.4 |  |
| Total | | Count | 117 | 92 | 400 | 609 |
| Expected Count | 117.0 | 92.0 | 400.0 | 609.0 |
| % within Gaze Occurrence  Type | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Finally, the association between the variables under study was tested using Pearson's correlations.

**Table – 18**

**Association Between Variables**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 1 |  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| Recording Time |  | -- |  |  |  |  |  | |  |
| Gaze Occurrence Type |  | 0.04 | -- |  |  |  |  | |  |
| Gaze Occurrence Duration |  | 0-.41\*\*\* | 0.51\*\*\* | -- |  |  |  | |  |
| Gaze Point X |  | -0.02 | -0.13\*\* | 0.20\*\*\* | -- |  |  | |  |
| Gaze Point Y |  | 0.14\*\*\* | -0.33\*\*\* | -0.22\*\*\* | 0.14\*\* | -- |  | |  |
| Distance Left |  | -0.08 | 0.22\*\*\* | 0.10\* | -0.06 | -0.42\*\*\* | -- | |  |
| Distance Right |  | -0.01 | 0.25\*\*\* | 0.12\*\* | -0.04 | -0.48\*\*\* | 1.00\*\*\* | | -- |

Note. \* p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001

The results indicate that Recording Time is negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = -0.41; p < 0.001). It was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.15; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Type was positively and significantly associated with Gaze Occurrence Duration (r = 0.51; p < 0.001), Distance Left (r = 0.22; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = 0.25; p < 0.001). It was negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point X(r = -0.13; p < 0.001) and Gaze Point Y (r = -0.33; p < 0.001). Gaze Occurrence Duration is positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.20; p < 0.001), Distance Left (r = 0.10; p = 0.022) and Distance Right (r = 0.12; p = 0.002).It was negatively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.22; p < 0.001). Gaze Point X is positively and significantly associated with Gaze Point Y (r = 0.14; p < 0.001).Gaze Point Y is negatively and significantly associated with Distance Left (r = -0.42; p < 0.001) and Distance Right (r = -0.48; p < 0.001).

The results show that Time Rel positively and significantly correlates with GTY (r = 0.81; p < 0.01), with YAW GT (r = 0.03; p < 0.05), and with PITCH GT (r = 0.25; p < 0.01). In turn, it is negatively and significantly correlated with the YR AW (r = -0.16; p < 0.01), with the GT Ym m (r = -0.21; p < 0.01), with the Ymm (r = -0.14; p < 0. 01), with PITCH DATA (r = -0.06; p < 0.01), with Gaze GT (r = -0.09; p < 0.01) with AOI\_IND (r = -0.09; p < 0.01), with AO I\_X (r = -0.08; p < 0.01) and with AO I\_Y (r = -0.08; p < 0.01). GTX positively and significantly correlates with GTY (r = 0.26; p < 0.01). It is negatively and significantly correlated with XRAW (r = -0.33; p < 0.01), with XRAW (r = -0.31; p < 0.01), with GT Ym m (r = -0. 37; p < 0.01), with the Xmm (r = -0.21; p < 0.01), with the Ymm (r = -0.31; p < 0.01); with the YAW GT (r = -0.45; p < 0.01), with the YAW DATA (r = -0.17; p < 0. 01), with the PITCH GT (r = -0.26; p < 0.01), with the PITCH DATA (r = -0.21; p < 0.01), with the GAZE GT (r = -0.42; p < 0.01), with the GAZE ANG (r = -0.40; p < 0. 01), with DIFF GZ (r = -0.04; p < 0.05), with AOI\_IND (r = -0.11; p < 0.01), with AO I\_X (r = -0.09; p < 0.01) and with AO I\_Y (r = -0.10; p < 0.01).

GTY is negatively and significantly correlated with XRAW (r = -0.28; p < 0.01), with XRAW (r = -0.33; p < 0.01), with GTXm m (r = -0.13; p < 0. 01), with GT Ym m (r = -0.37; p < 0.01), with Xmm (r = -0.19; p < 0.01), with Ymm (r = -0.34; p < 0.01); with YAW GT (r = -0.24; p < 0.01), with YAW DATA (r = -0. 19; p < 0.01), with the PITCH GT (r = -0.49; p < 0.01), PITCH DATA (r = -0.20; p < 0.01), with the GAZE GT (r = -0.44; p < 0.01), with the GAZE ANG (r = -0.37; p < 0. 01), with the DIFF GZ (r = -0.06; p < 0.01), with the AOI\_IND (r = -0.12; p < 0.01), with the AO I\_X (r = -0.11; p < 0.01) and with the AO I\_Y (r = -0.11; p < 0.01). XR AW is positively and significantly correlated with the XRAW (r = 0.32; p < 0.01), the GTXm m (r = 0.37; p < 0.01), the GT Ym m (r = 0.38; p < 0.01), the Xmm (r = 0.39; p < 0. 01), with Ymm (r = 0.30; p < 0.01), with PITCH GT (r = 0.22; p < 0.01), PITCH DATA (r = 0.21; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.27; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.38; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.06; p < 0.01). It is negatively and significantly correlated with YAW GT (r = -0.17; p < 0.01), AOI\_IND (r = -0.10; p < 0.01), AO I\_X (r = -0.09; p < 0.01) and AO I\_Y (r = -0.10; p < 0.01).

The XR AW is positively and significantly correlated with the GTXm m (r = 0.16; p < 0.01), the GT Ym m (r = 0.73; p < 0.01), the Xmm (r = 0.19; p < 0.01), the Ymm (r = 0. 63; p < 0.01); with YAW GT (r = 0.18; p < 0.01), with YAW DATA (r = 0.09; p < 0.01), PITCH DATA (r = 0.28; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.50; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.38; p < 0.01). It is negatively and significantly correlated with PITCH GT (r = -0.49; p < 0.01), with AOI\_IND (r = -0.11; p < 0.01), and with AO I\_Y (r = -0.11; p < 0.01). GTXm m is positively and significantly correlated with GT Ym m (r = 0.20; p < 0.01), with Xmm (r = 0.68; p < 0.01), with Ymm (r = 0.14; p < 0.01), with PITCH GT (r = 0. 09; p < 0.01), with PITCH DATA (r = 0.14; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.11; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.19; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.03; p < 0.05). It is negatively and significantly correlated with the YAW GT (r = -0.24; p < 0.01), with the YAW DATA (r = -0.04; p < 0.05), with the YAW GT (r = -0.24; p < 0.01) and with the YAW DATA (r = -0.04; p < 0.05).

Xmm m is positively and significantly correlated with Ymm (r = 0.67; p < 0.01), with PITCH GT (r = 0.15; p < 0.01), with PITCH DATA (r = 0.17; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.19; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.25; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.04; p < 0.05). It is negatively and significantly correlated with the YAW GT (r = -0.12; p < 0.01), with the AOI\_IND (r = -0.07; p < 0.01), with the AO I\_X (r = -0.06; p < 0.01) and with the AO I\_Y (r = -0.06; p < 0.01). Ymm m is positively and significantly correlated with YAW GT (r = 0.22; p < 0.01), with YAW DATA (r = 0.10; p < 0.01), with PITCH DATA (r = 0.27; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.49; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.38; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.06; p < 0.01). It negatively and significantly correlates with PITCH GT (r = -0.06; p < 0.01).

YAW GT is positively and significantly correlated with YAW DATA (r = 0.28; p < 0.01), with PITCH GT (r = 0.27; p < 0. 01), with PITCH DATA (r = 0.14; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.70; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.34; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.09; p < 0.01). YAW DATA is positively and significantly correlated with PITCH GT (r = 0.24; p < 0.01), with PITCH DATA (r = 0.07; p < 0.01), with GAZE GT (r = 0.26; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.18; p < 0.01).

PITCH GT is positively and significantly correlated with GAZE GT (r = 0.23; p < 0.01), with GAZE ANG (r = 0.34; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.18; p < 0.01). PITCH DATA is positively and significantly correlated with GAZE GT (r = 0.37; p < 0.01) with GAZE ANG (r = 0.27; p < 0.01).GAZE GT is positively and significantly correlated with GAZE ANG (r = 0.58; p < 0.01), with DIFF GZ (r = 0.06; p < 0.01).GAZE ANG positively and significantly correlates with DIFF GZ (r = 0.05; p < 0.01). AOI\_IND is positively and significantly correlated with AO I\_X (r = 0.64; p < 0.01) and AO I\_Y (r = 0.92; p < 0.01). Finally, AO I\_X is positively and significantly correlated with AO I\_Y (r = 0.63; p < 0.01).

The lesson of complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making and predicament solving has attracted concentration (Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce and Friedman; 2002). Long-drawn-out researches necessitate (model - oriented experiential) study of behavior and offer locale for basic research on how ill-structured predicament are, and can be, solved (Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce and Friedman; 2002). Clinician neuro - complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making can be premeditated with great yield using time-honored method of inquisition, especially all the way through concentrated studies (Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce and Friedman; 2002). Neuro - neurointegral management propose elucidation all the way through succession of proportions of eye motion at point of obscure preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision (Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce and Friedman; 2002). It affords conceptual and idealistic framework for perceptive and conducting research at Neurointegral Science, Management and Psychology gamut (Brunswik; 1957 and Belton and Dhami; 2021 and Bruce and Friedman; 2002).

# In the realm of higher cognitive perspective(s), cognition, which encompasses a wide spectrum of mental processes such as perception, memory, language, problem solving, and decision-making, constitutes a pivotal element. For academic researchers, cognition entails the examination of how students within higher learning institutions perceive, process, and employs information in the pursuit of their academic endeavours. Understanding the intricate dynamics of students' information perception, processing, and utilization necessitates a comprehensive exploration of cognitive components, including perceptual processing, attentional focus, memory formation, cognitive strategies, metacognition, information integration, motivation, technology usage, and individual differences. To investigate these facets of cognition in higher cognitive perspective(s), researchers commonly employ a combination of research methods, ranging from surveys and experiments to interviews, observations, and cognitive assessments. This multifaceted approach facilitates the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, further enhanced by specialized techniques like eye tracking and neuroimaging to gain insights into how students perceive, process, and retain information and how they allocate their attention during learning tasks.

The significance of understanding cognition extends to various advantages it offers for educators, institutions, and students alike. These advantages encompass the refinement of teaching strategies, provision of personalized learning experiences, enhancement of curriculum design, optimization of resource allocation, early identification of at-risk students, cultivation of effective study skills, reduction of stress and anxiety barriers to learning, development of fair and effective assessment methods, formulation of research-based policies, continuous improvement of cognitive perspective(s)al practices, creation of positive learning environment, and elevation of global competitiveness in job market. Moreover, subfields focusing on attention allocation, metacognitive strategies, and comprehensive cognitive process research provide nuanced insights into effective teaching and learning practices that stand to benefit both students and cognitive perspective(s) of institutions.

Exploring allocation of student attention and their information processing is another critical research area within the broader context of understanding cognitive processes in higher cognitive perspective(s). To grasp comprehensively this domain, researchers employ diverse range of research methods, encompassing surveys, observational studies, and neuroimaging techniques. These methods allow for examination of students' attention allocation patterns during lectures and study sessions, shedding light on strategies, distractions, and neurobiological underpinnings of attention. Furthermore, analyzing factors influencing attention allocation, including individual differences, motivation levels, and cognitive strategies, offers a nuanced understanding of this cognitive facet. The development and testing of interventions, such as mindfulness techniques and digital detox programs, aim to enhance students' attentional allocation, both during lectures and self-guided study sessions. Longitudinal studies, tracking changes in attentional behaviors as student’s progress through academic programs, provide valuable insights into the development of attentional skills. Ethical considerations, especially when employing neuroimaging or collecting sensitive data on students' behaviours and attention, are integral to research process. Additionally, by discussing research implications and recommendations, this research contributes to the improvement of teaching methods and study environments, ultimately enhancing attention allocation and information processing in cognitive perspective(s).

Metacognitive strategies in higher cognitive perspective(s) present yet another compelling avenue of research. The primary objectives encompass identifying and comprehending the metacognitive strategies employed by successful students, designing, and evaluating instructional interventions to impart these strategies and bolster learning outcomes. Achieving these objectives necessitates the recruitment of a diverse sample of high-achieving students, employing a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, including interviews, surveys, and think-aloud protocols. These methods help identify metacognitive strategies such as goal setting, monitoring, self-regulation, time management, and adaptation based on feedback. Quantitative assessments, employing validated scales and questionnaires, gauge the level of metacognitive awareness among successful students. The development and implementation of targeted metacognition training interventions, coupled with controlled experiments to evaluate their effectiveness, constitute essential components of this research. Moreover, data analysis and reflection contribute to refining the training programs. By discussing implications and recommendations, this research aims to assist educators and institutions in incorporating metacognitive training into higher cognitive perspective(s) curricula, thereby facilitating improved learning outcomes while adhering to ethical considerations throughout all stages of the research process.

Finally, conducting comprehensive cognitive process research in higher cognitive perspective(s) necessitates the consideration of various key elements. These encompass defining research objectives, questions, and hypotheses clearly, establishing participant selection criteria, adhering to ethical standards, selecting appropriate research methods and designs, determining suitable sampling strategies, developing or selecting relevant data collection instruments, defining and operationalizing cognitive processes and variables of interest, outlining data collection procedures, formulating a robust data analysis plan, identifying and addressing potential confounding variables, considering the research environment's impact, ensuring data validity and reliability, deciding between longitudinal and cross-sectional studies, incorporating a mixed methods approach, implementing secure data management practices, upholding ethical standards in participant interactions, interpreting findings within existing literature and theories, assessing generalizability, discussing practical implications for educators, institutions, and policymakers, and planning for research dissemination through academic journals and conferences. By meticulously considering these key elements, researchers can design rigorous studies that contribute to a deeper understanding of cognitive processes in higher cognitive perspective(s).

Top of Form

Neuro - neurointegral offers;

* Explanation in course of set of data obtained via progression of measurements of eye motion at time of complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Provides abstract and idealistic scaffold for discerning and conducting neuro - neurointegral research at junction of Neuroscience, Neurointegral and Psychology (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Describes customary replica for preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision process that links and spans Neurobiological, Psychological, and Neurointegral levels of analysis (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Applies neuroscience to neurointegral and neo-classical neurointegral, and ties to biological constraints in how we adjudicate preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* An important resource from neurointegral to neuroscience, to progress of inter-disciplinary research (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Seen as sub turf of experimental neurointegral, where neuro data is enriched with eye data (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* proposes to construct eye-oriented models capable of predicting observed behaviour (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Shed light on causes of behaviour (and of neuro anomalies) and capable of explaining and predicting complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Provides information about underlying mechanisms used by the eye for period of preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision processes, In particular, it shows which eye regions are activated when a complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision is made and how these regions interact with each other, This knowledge can be used to build a model that represents this particular mechanism (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023),
* Combining above gives interdisciplinary insight to define fundamentals of neuro - neurointegral complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making that has eluded researchers working within each individual turf (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra ;2023 and Kowler; 2011).

Paper reflects relevant findings on typical HP-DM behaviour (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra; 2023 and Kowler; 2011). Results suggest that cognito apparatuses explore ‘business preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision tectonic shifts(s)’ thinking through biological basis in anthropoid prototyping of economic preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making signature(s) (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra; 2023 and Kowler; 2011). With reference to neuro - probabilistic functionalism in Brunswik’s Lens Preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decisions framework, paper reflects relevant findings on typical anthropoid behaviour (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra; 2023 and Kowler; 2011). Study calls into question theories localizable to a specific neural system (Kowler; 2011). Study exhibits key findings, from both the scientific and practitioner perspectives, and explain how neuro apparatuses explore ‘business preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision tectonic shifts(s)’ (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra; 2023 and Kowler; 2011).

**Recommendations**

Analyzing qualitative data from interviews and think-aloud protocols helps identify metacognitive strategies like goal setting, monitoring, self-regulation, time management, and adaptation based on feedback. Utilizing quantitative data, such as validated scales and questionnaires, assesses the level of metacognitive awareness among successful subjects. Designing targeted interventions and training programs based on identified metacognitive strategies is crucial for teaching these skills effectively. Conducting controlled experiments to test effectiveness of metacognition training and ensuring active engagement with materials is essential. Analysing data from both intervention and control groups helps assess impact of metacognition training on learning outcomes and academic performance. Evaluating impact of metacognition training and reflecting on its challenges and successes aid in refining training program. Discussing implications of findings for educators and institutions and providing recommendations for incorporating metacognitive training into higher education curricula supports improved learning outcomes. Establishing participant selection criteria based on academic programs, demographic backgrounds, or other relevant factors guides study's focus. Selecting suitable sampling strategy and ensuring an adequate sample size is essential for robust findings. Developing secure data management plan ensures data integrity.

Active Learning Strategies: Encourage active learning techniques such as discussions and problem-solving.

Breaks and Intermissions: Incorporate short breaks during longer lectures.

Digital Device Policies: Establish clear policies regarding digital device use.

Structured Note-Taking: Teach effective note-taking strategies.

Engaging Visual Aids: Use visually appealing visuals to supplement lectures.

Clear Organization: Structure lectures with a clear outline.

Engaging Delivery: Use varied delivery methods and enthusiasm.

Active Participation: Encourage subject participation.

Real-World Applications: Relate content to real-world examples.

Multimodal Resources: Incorporate multimedia resources.

Assessment and Feedback: Use formative assessments and provide feedback during lectures.

Mindfulness Practices: Teach mindfulness techniques.

Regular Self-Reflection: Encourage subjects to reflect on their attentional habits.

Provide Lecture Outlines: Distribute lecture outlines in advance.

Encourage Movement: Allow opportunities for brief movement breaks.

Effective Teaching Strategies: Adapt teaching methods to capture and maintain subjects' attention.

Classroom Management: Manage classroom dynamics by recognizing signs of inattention.

Digital Learning Design: Optimize online courses for sustained attention.

Individualized Learning: Tailor instruction to individual attentional needs.

Attentional Support Services: Offer support for attention difficulties.

Feedback and Assessment: Assess attention to encourage engagement.

Pedagogical Innovation: Experiment with new teaching approaches.

Interventions for Attention Difficulties: Provide specialized support for subjects with attention challenges.

Neuroeducation: Design brain / eye(s)-friendly classrooms and teaching methods.

Mindfulness Practices: Teach attention-enhancing techniques.

Teacher Professional Development: Train educators in attention-capturing strategies.

Parental Involvement: Educate parents on supporting their children's attention.

Time Management Skills: Incorporate time management into the curriculum.

Enhanced Learning Environments: Design classrooms with attention in mind.

Development of Study Skills: Offer study skills workshops.

**Conclusion**

Paper raises interesting theoretical and practical levels of analysis significant in business strategy (Kowler; 2011). Research efforts conclude with characteristic schemes and presents directions for future research (Kowler; 2011). Paper concludes with number of propositions that have been generated from theoretical ‘mosaic’ and presents directions for future research (Satpathy, Larsen, Lockhart and Misra; 2023 and Kowler; 2011).

What are the apparatuses that keep gaze stable with either stationary or moving targets? How does motion of cognitive image on retina affect vision? Where do look - and why - when performing complicated task? How can world appear clear and stable despite continual movements of eyes? Cognitive processes driving eye movements for the period of complicated Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making are not in any consequential way different from those in similar tasks (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Eye movements in complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making are partially driven by (complicated) task demands (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Eye movements in complicated Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making are partially driven by stimulus properties that bias information uptake in favor of visually salient stimuli (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Eye movements do not have causal effect on Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision formation (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). However, through properties inherent to visual system, such as stimulus-driven concentration, eye movements do lead to down-stream effects on complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023).

Complicated Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision makers optimize eye movements to reduce demand on memory and reduce number of fixations and length of saccades needed to complete complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision task (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Drivers of eye movements in complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making change dynamically within tasks (Orquin and Loose; 2013; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Concentration should be paid for performing experimental procedures in order to evaluate usability, accuracy and reliability of eye tracking systems (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023). Any model that aims to describe complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision making must reflect that visual information play central role in complicated preferred Brunswik - oriented neurointegral decision dynamics (Kowler; 2011 and Satpathy, Majumdar, Mallik, Mahapatra, Warrier, Khatun and Okeyo; 2023).

Neural networks, which are quantification models inspired by structure and function of brain / eye(s), play central role in understanding cognition. These networks consist of interconnected nodes (neurons) that process and transmit information. Quantification techniques can be used to model behaviour of neurons and their connections. Probability theory is fundamental to understanding cognition, as it provides framework for modeling uncertainty and making decisions under uncertainty. Bayesian probability theory is commonly used to model how individuals update beliefs and make decisions based on new information. Information theory is can be used to quantify and analyze information processing in brain / eye(s). Concepts like entropy, mutual information, and coding theory can be applied to understand how information is represented and transmitted in neural systems. Statistical methods can be used to to analyze experimental data in cognitive psychology and neuroscience. Techniques such as regression analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and machine learning algorithms can be employed to extract meaningful patterns from data related to cognitive tasks and brain / eye(s) activity.

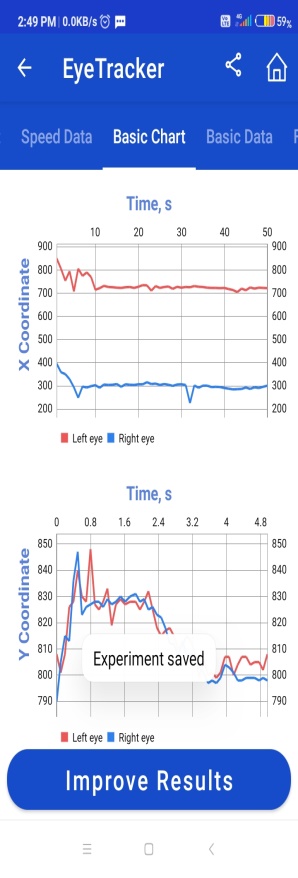
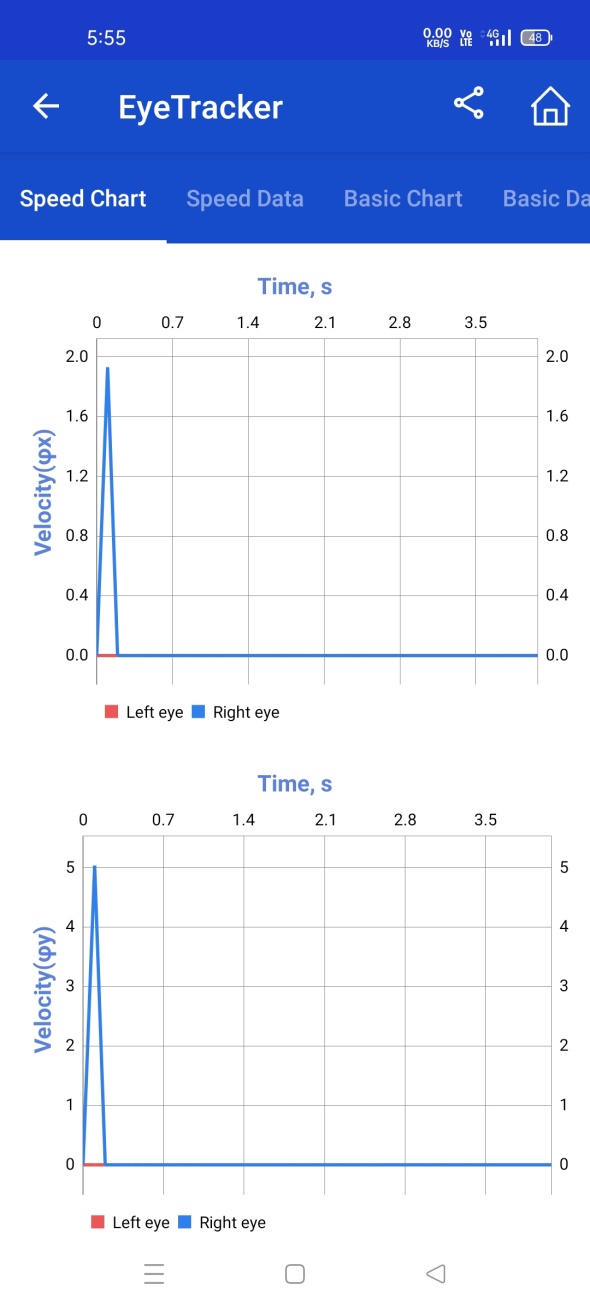
Dynamical Systems Theory can be used to study dynamics of cognitive processes over time. It can be applied to model how cognitive systems evolve and change in response to various inputs and conditions. Graph theory can be used to model and analyze connectivity and network properties of brain / eye(s). Graph-based representations are used to study brain / eye(s) networks, including functional and structural connectivity, and to understand how information flows within brain / eye(s). Game theory can be applied to model decision-making in situations involving strategic interactions. It can be used to understand how individuals make choices and interact with others in social and economic contexts.

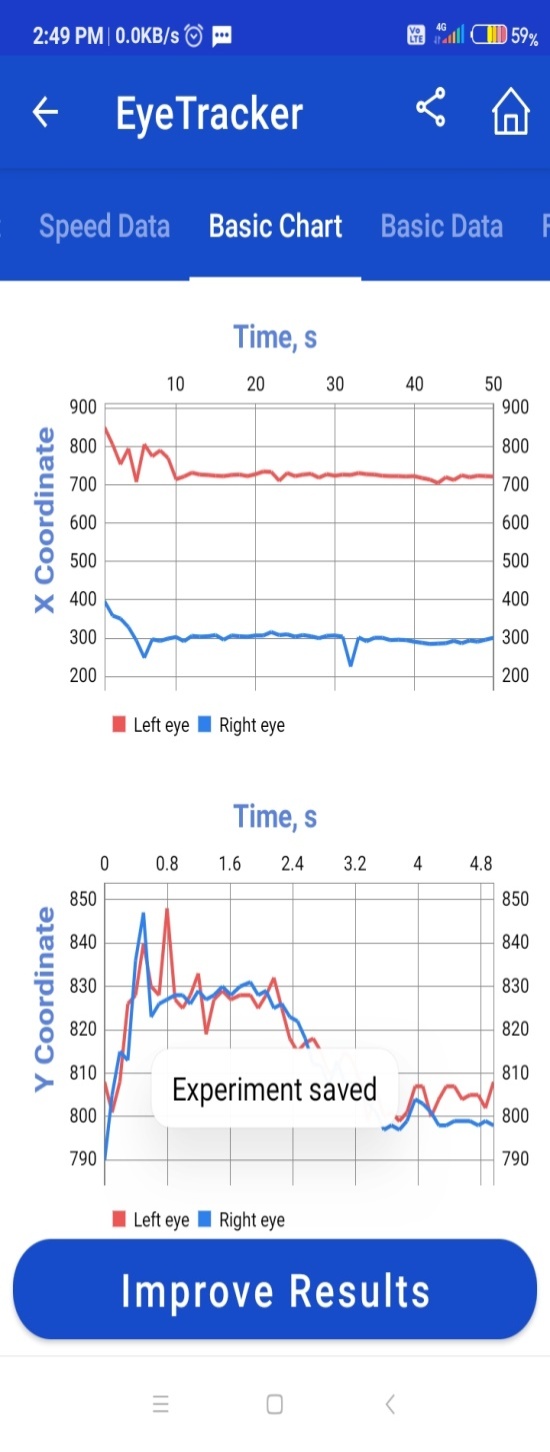
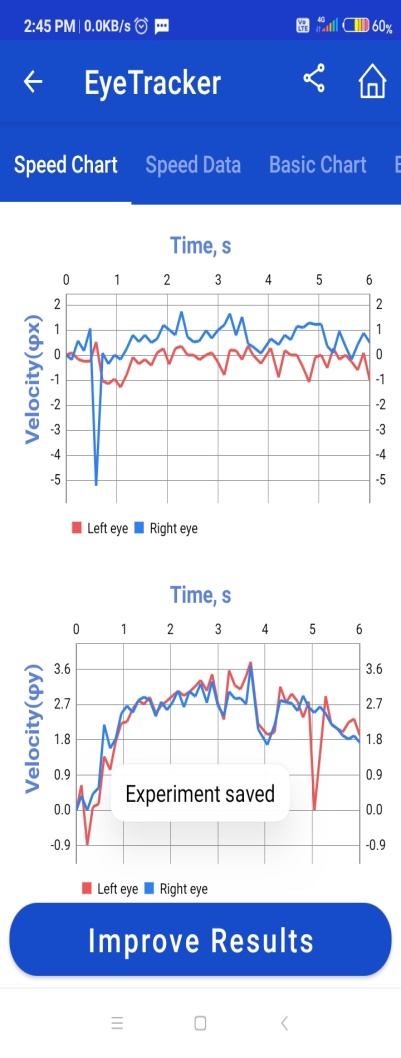
Optimization techniques can be used to model how brain / eye(s) might optimize various cognitive processes, such as memory retrieval, decision-making, and problem-solving. These models often involve finding optimal solutions to complex problems. Cognitive models, such as cognitive architectures and computational models of specific cognitive processes (e.g., memory, perception), use quantification representations to simulate and explain human cognitive abilities. Cognitive systems are often viewed as complex adaptive systems. Concepts from complex systems theory, such as emergence, self-organization, and criticality, can be used to study dynamics of cognition. Overall, quantification of cognition is a multidisciplinary field that leverages various quantification tools and approaches to gain insights into workings of human mind and brain / eye(s). Researchers in this field can develop quantification models and theories that can explain and predict cognitive processes and behaviours.

**Appendix**

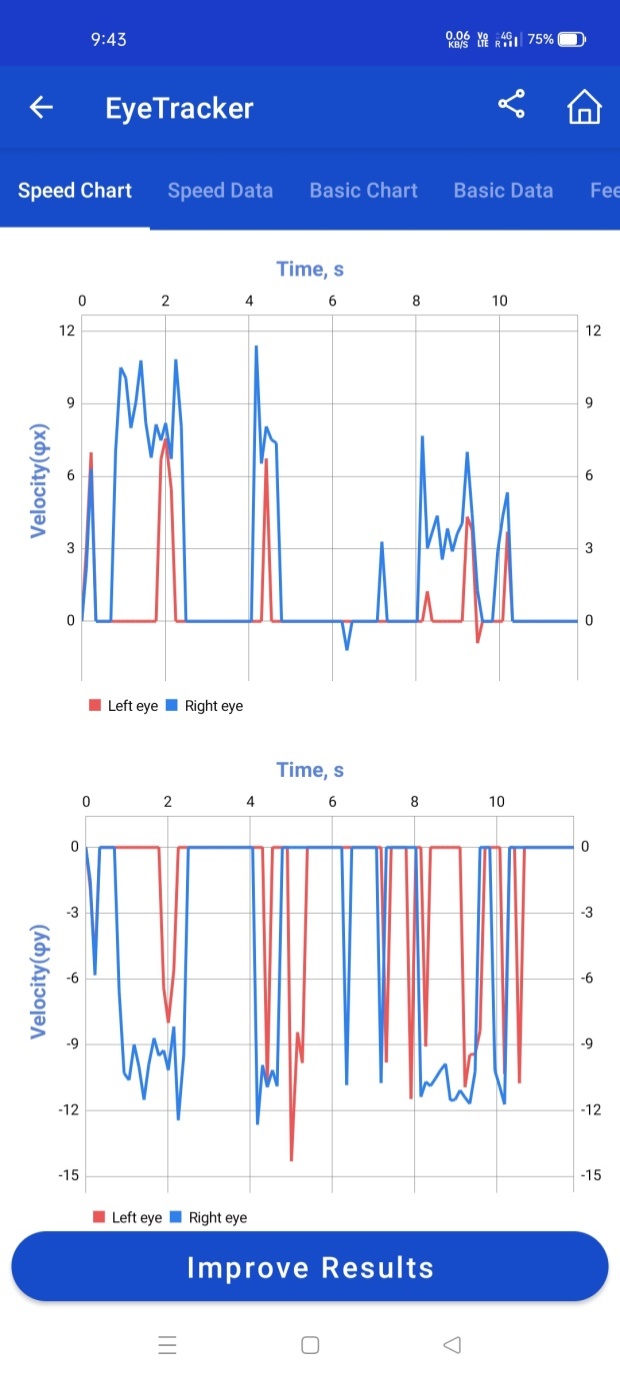
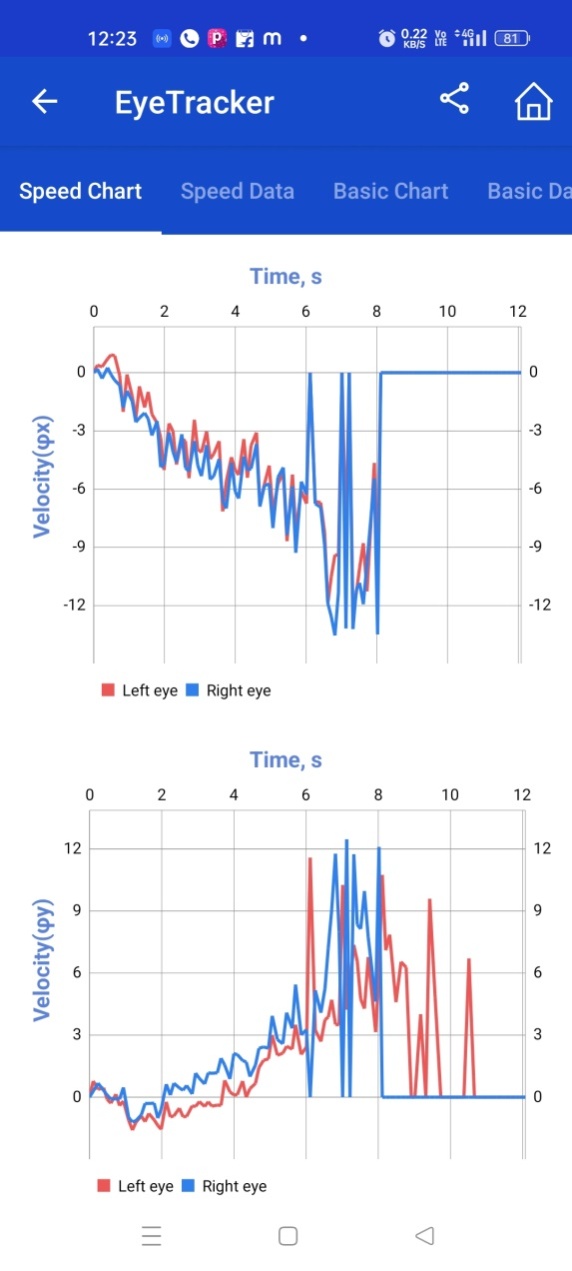
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| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
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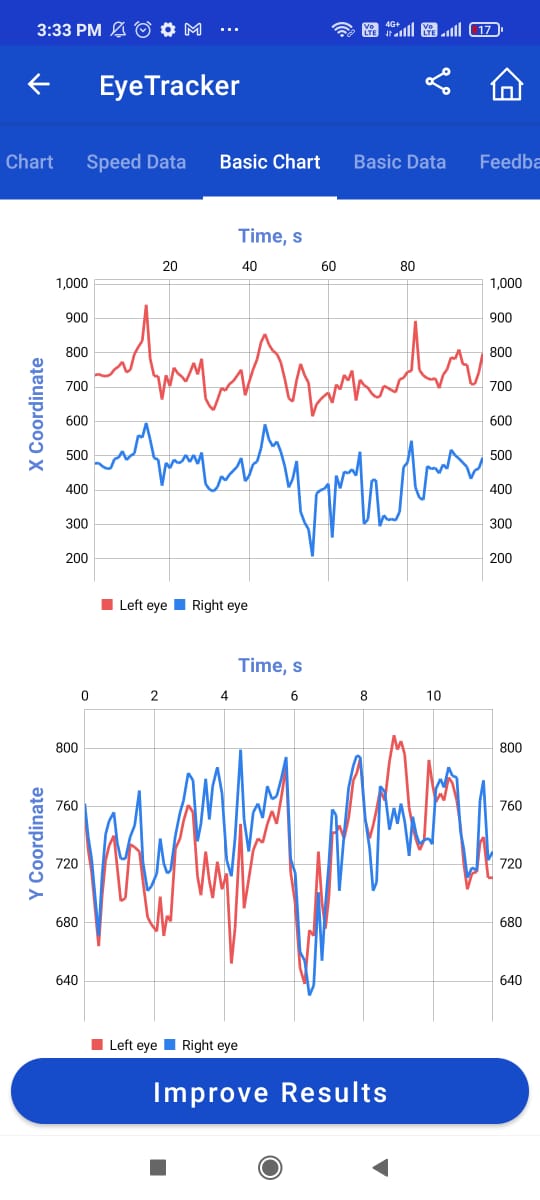
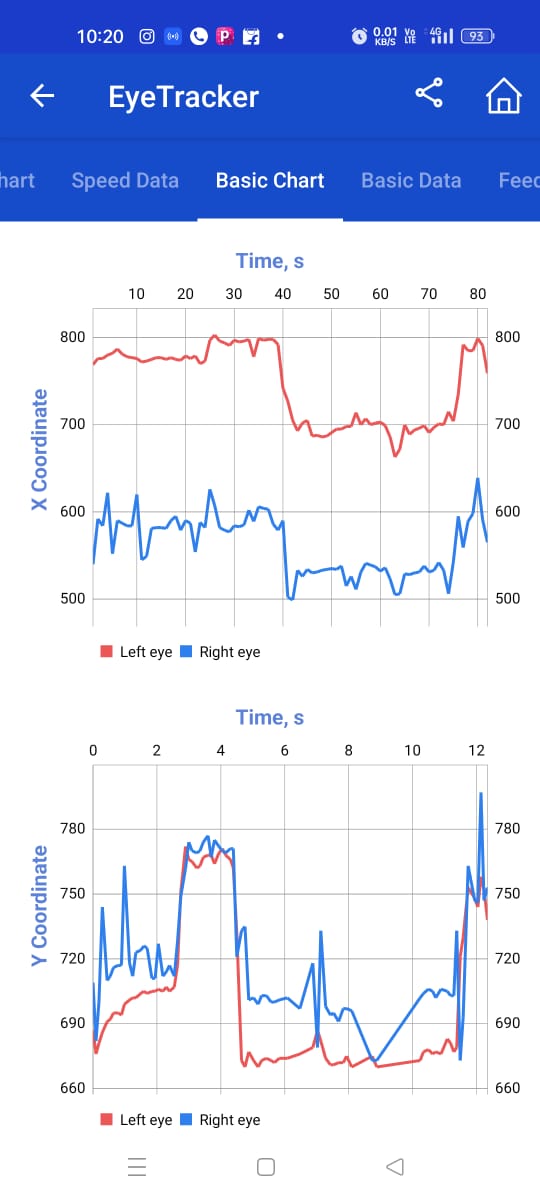
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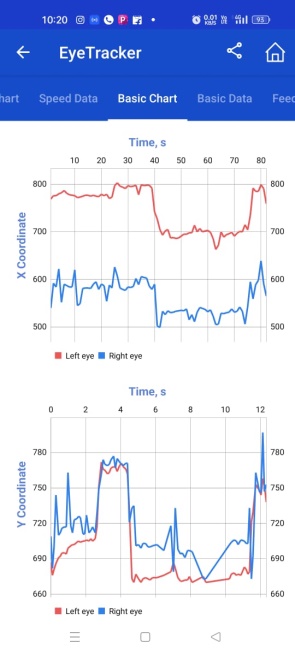
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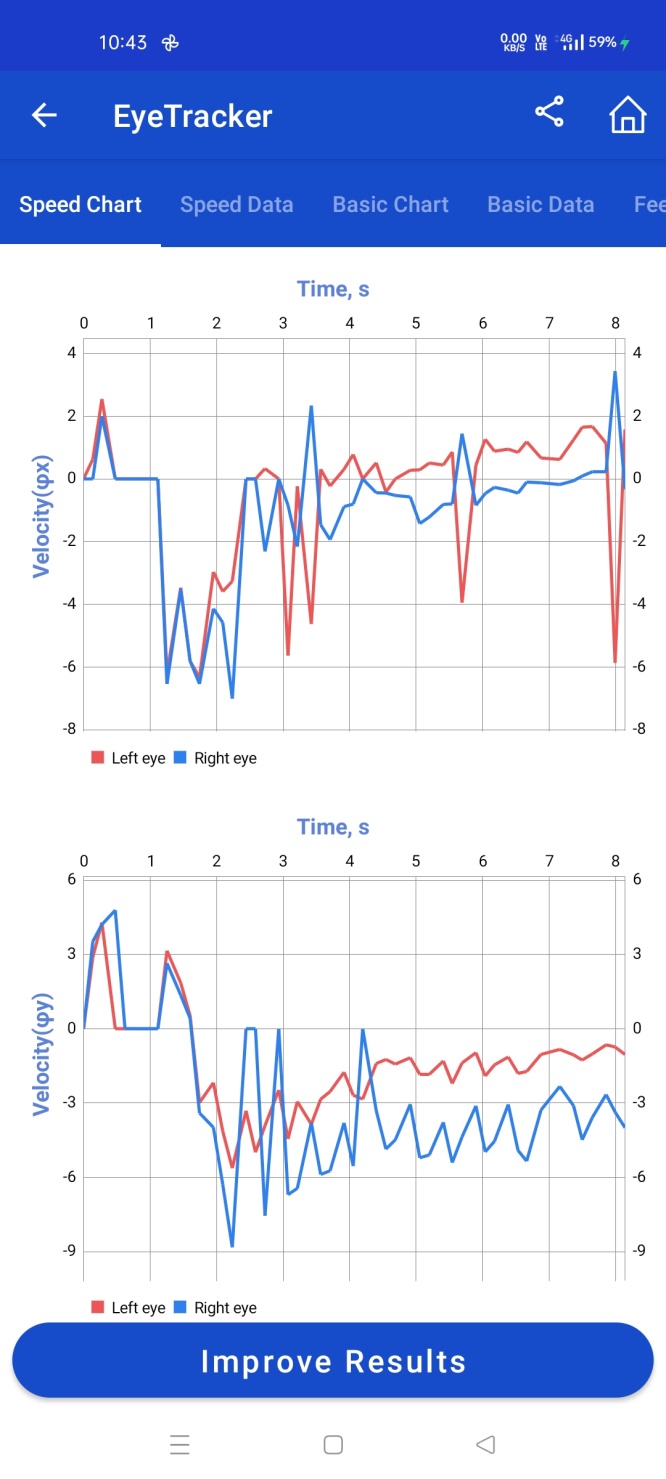
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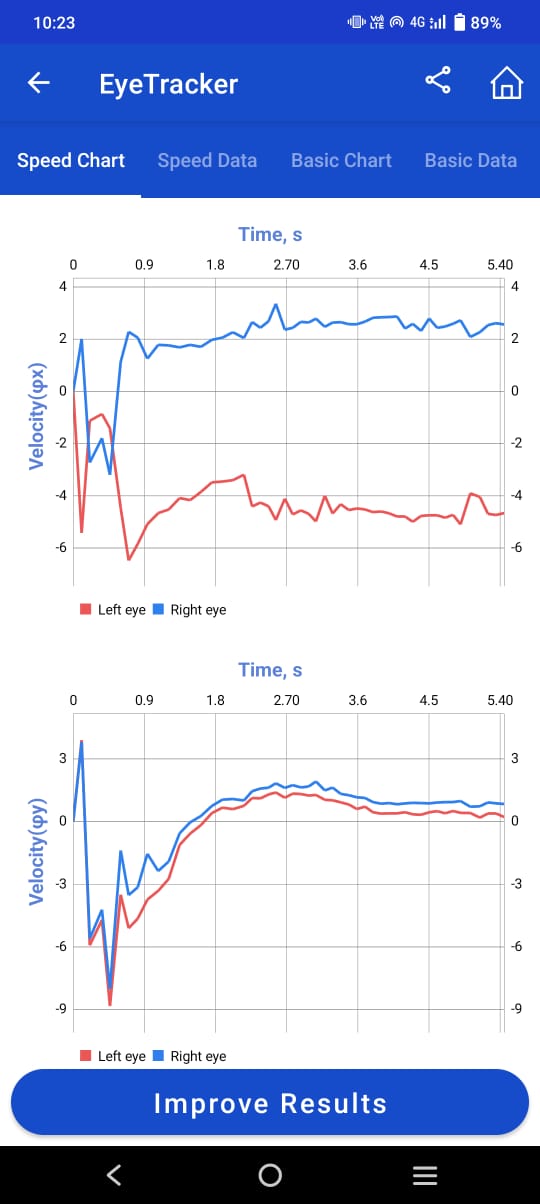
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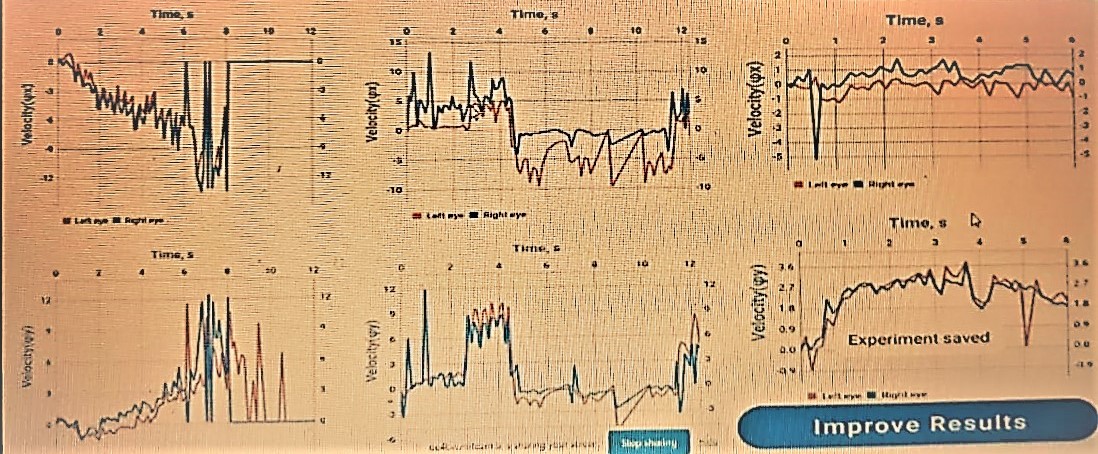
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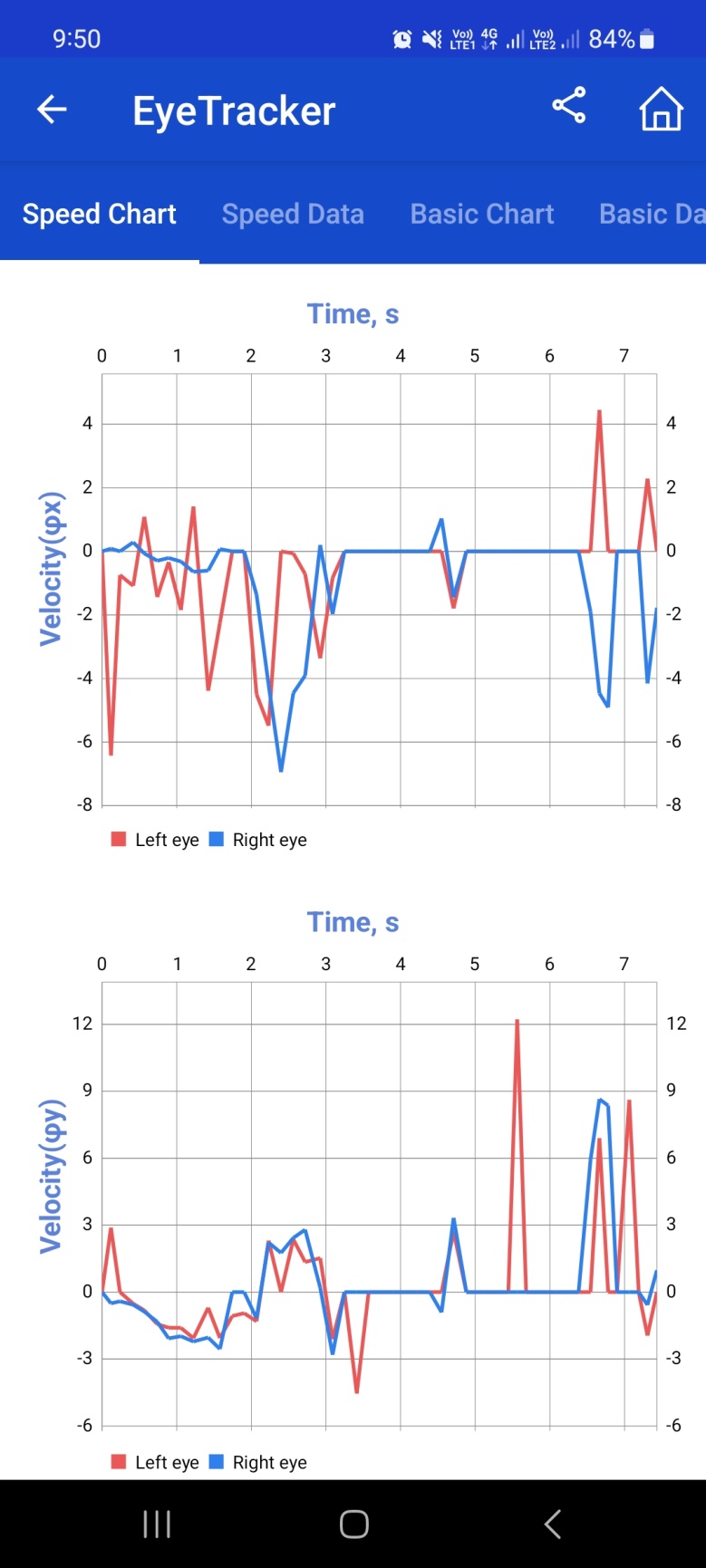
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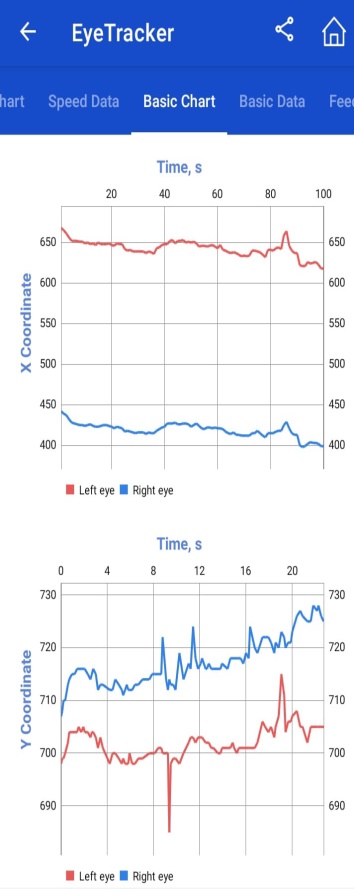
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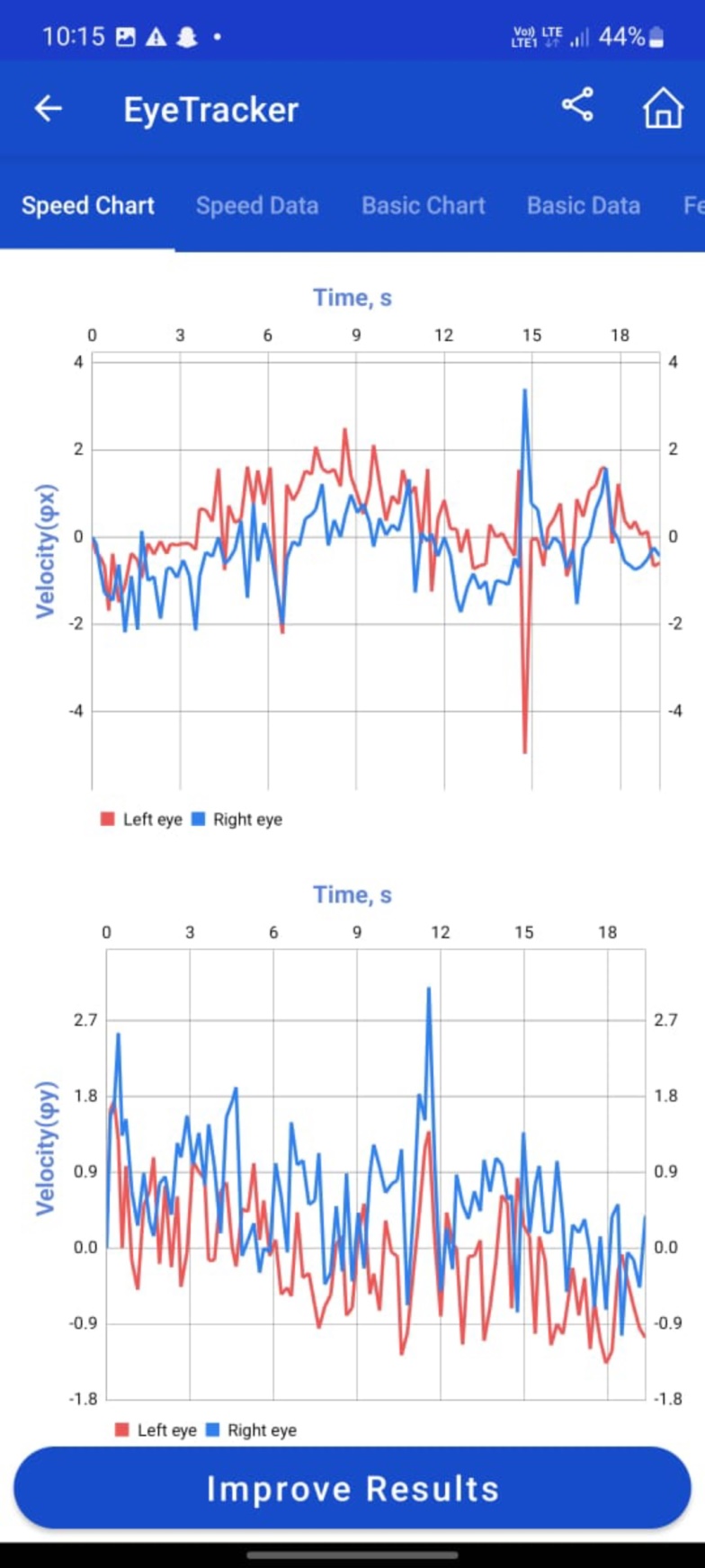
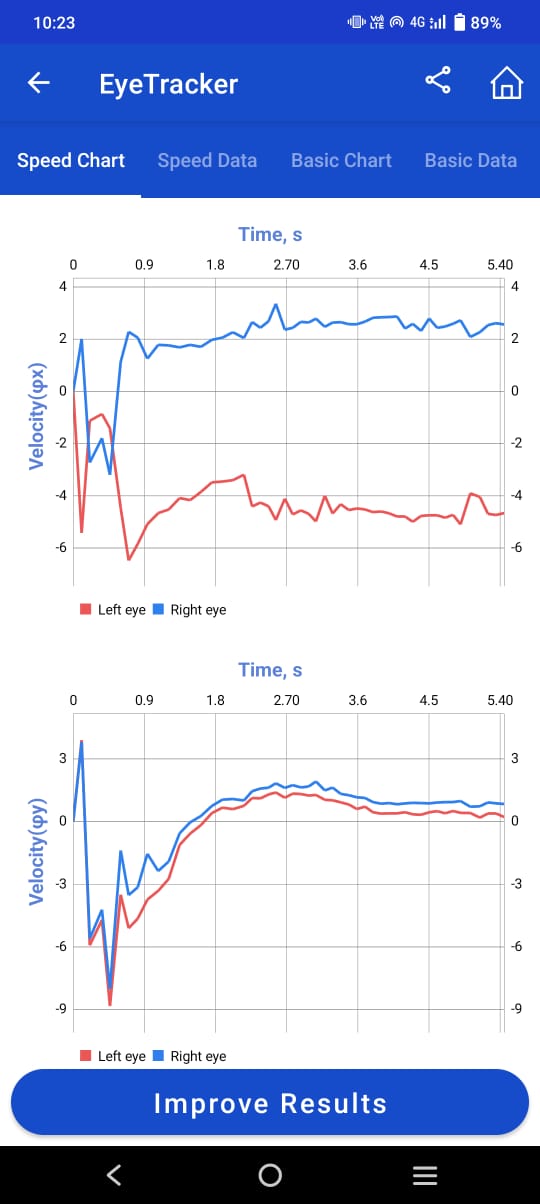
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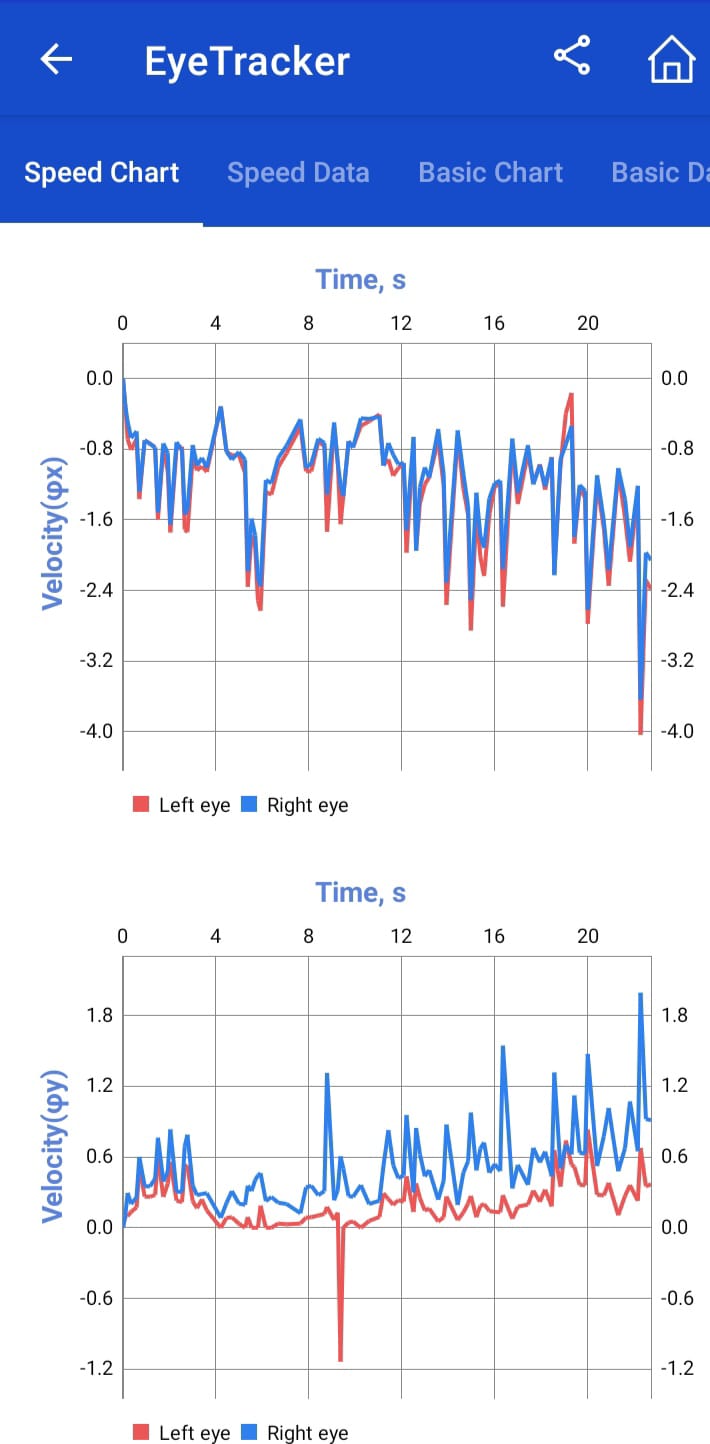
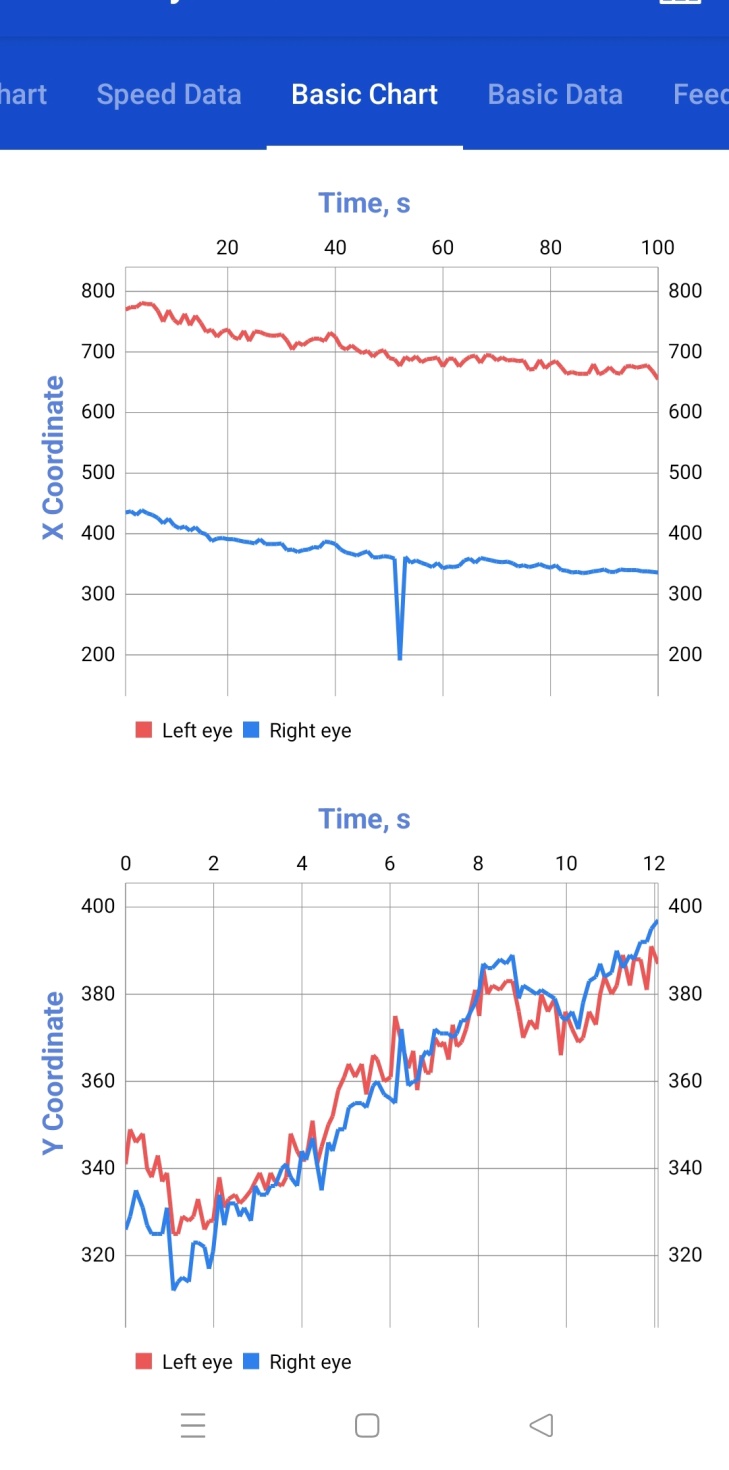
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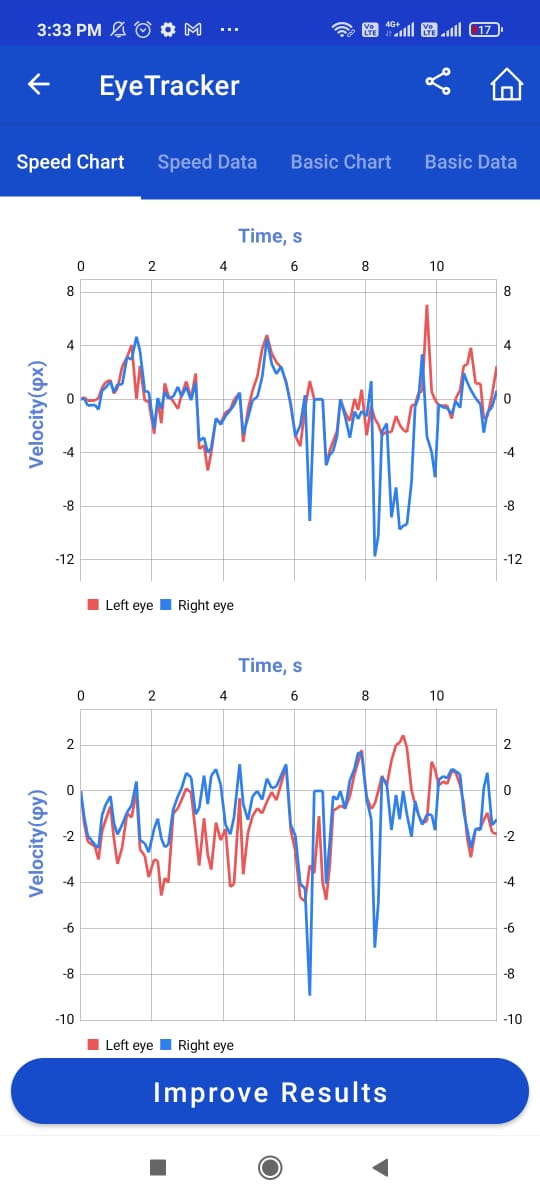
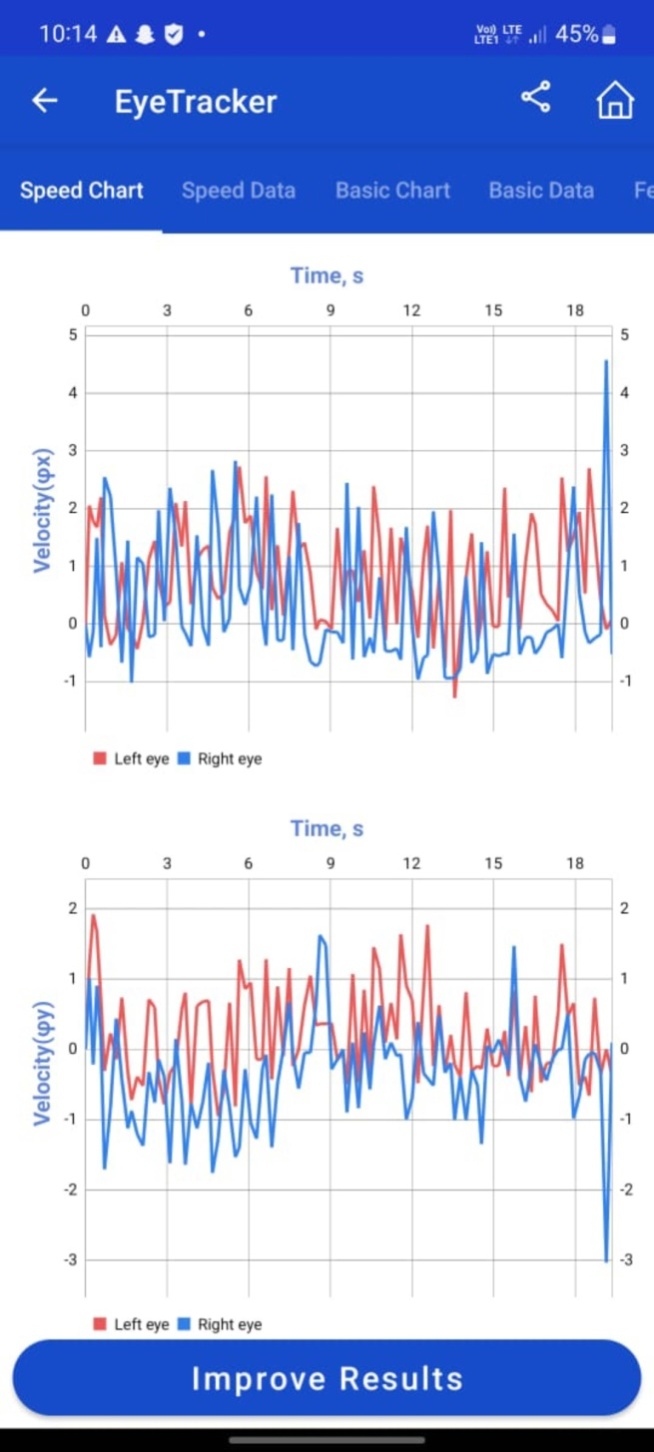
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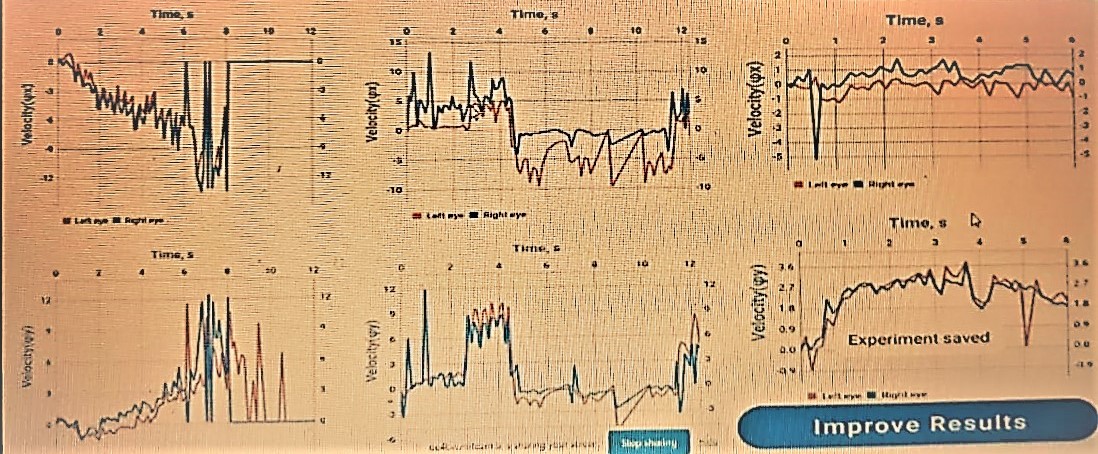
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