1 DO SIMULATOR MEASURES IMPROVE IDENTIFICATION OF OLDER DRIVERS WITH MCI?

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- 46 Number of words=5,445 words text+ 9 tables/figures x 250=7,695
- 47 Submission date: November 11, 2014

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ABSTRACT

2 3 This study considered the extent to which differences between drivers with mild cognitive impairment and 4 controls on a sign recall task in a fixed-base driving simulator could better predict whether a driver will be 5 6 7 diagnosed with MCI, compared to self-reports of a decrease in driving proficiency or of avoidance of driving, or age alone. The dependent measure in the simulator examined test conditions where working memory was subject to interference due to varying levels of demand for operational and tactical level 8 driving tasks. Reliable between-groups differences in sign recall accuracy were demonstrated; sign recall 9 similarly declined under higher task demand level. However, neither recall scores, nor self-reported 10 frequency of avoiding driving, nor driver age predicted a clinical diagnosis of MCI; only self-reported 11 decline in global driving ability was significant in this regard. Practical implications of these findings are 12 discussed, while it is noted that this work must be viewed as exploratory due to its limited sample size.

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17 Keywords: ageing, driving, cognitive impairment, assessment, screening, working memory, self-reported

- 18 behavior, driving task demand
- 19 20

1 INTRODUCTION

With the aging of the driving population there is a greater prevalence of medical conditions and an associated loss of functional abilities needed to safely control a motor vehicle. There is considerable evidence that declines in cognition increase crash risk among older drivers, with a particular focus on neurological diseases such as dementia (and related medication use) that can lead to driving impairments (1), (2), (3), (4). Many people with dementia continue to drive, at least during early stages, and it has been shown that overall these drivers have a two-fold increase in crash risk compared to those without cognitive impairment (5).

9 Deficits associated with dementia that negatively affect driving performance, include memory loss; 10 impairments in visuo-spatial skills, visual information processing efficiency, and judgment; and lack of 11 insight into one's impairment that makes compensation for such limitations unlikely. In the early stage, 12 detection of dementia is very difficult, as cognitive impairments are mild, and even family members may 13 not realize that cognitive changes are occurring. It is in this stage that driving skills may still be preserved 14 (6).Researchers have underlined the "need for increased vigilance among clinicians, family members and 15 individuals with MCI for initially benign changes in driving that may become increasingly problematic 16 over time" (7) and also have reported that clinicians may fail in their judgment particularly in drivers with 17 mild-cognitive decline (8). The importance of identifying drivers with early dementia or mild cognitive 18 impairment (MCI) is underscored by their reduced capacity to self-regulate (9), (10).

19 Wadley et al. (7) examined the driving performance of 59 cognitively normal older adults and 46 20 persons with MCI (43 amnestic and 3 nonamnestic) using an on-road driving assessment. The groups were 21 not matched on age (MCI group was significantly older) or gender (MCI group had fewer females), but 22 there were no differences between groups in race, education, or visual acuity. Differences in mean driving 23 performance ratings were small, with participants in both groups receiving high mean ratings. MCI patients 24 were significantly more likely to receive a less-than-optimal rating on left turns, lane control and global 25 ratings. The authors discussed specific difficulties in left turn negotiation and maintaining lane control 26 among MCI patients in relation to greater demands in executive function associated with these maneuvers.

27 A study by Frittelli et al. (11) examined the impact of Alzheimer's disease (AD) and mild cognitive 28 impairment (MCI) on driving ability using a low-cost, personal-computer-based interactive driving 29 simulator (STISIM Driving Simulator). The study included twenty patients with mild AD (CDR = 1), 20 30 individuals with MCI (CDR = 0.5) and 19 neurologically normal aged controls. Drivers with AD were rated 31 as significantly worse than MCI subjects and healthy elderly drivers on three driving behaviors: length of 32 the run (sec), mean time to collision and number of off-road events (defined as occurring when the centre 33 of the car's hood crossed the lateral border of the road). The only statistically significant difference between 34 MCI patients and healthy controls was a shorter mean time to collision for the MCI subjects.

35 Devlin et al. (12) examined the performance of older drivers with and without mild cognitive 36 impairment (MCI) when approaching intersections, testing fourteen male and female older drivers with 37 MCI and fourteen age-matched, healthy drivers, using a portable driving simulator. Results indicated that 38 drivers with MCI exhibited behaviors that were less situationally appropriate than controls when approaching controlled intersections and critical light-change intersections. Specifically, healthy drivers 39 40 demonstrated a greater number of foot hesitations on approach to stop-controlled and critical light change 41 intersections compared to the MCI group; this behavior was interpreted as a strategy to improve readiness 42 in the event rapid braking was required. A large variation in cognitive ability amongst the drivers with MCI 43 was found.

Whereas observed or reported deficits in performing basic activities of daily living (ADL) contribute to a diagnosis of dementia, when ADLs are preserved this can help differentiate MCI from mild dementia; at the same time, evidence that individuals experience difficulty in performing more complex *instrumental* activities of daily living (IADL), such as driving, is a more reliable marker to distinguish persons with MCI from healthy older individuals (*12*). This is consistent with evidence suggesting that observation and evaluation of IADL performance can assist in determining who might be an at-risk driver (13).

50 Drivers with a suspected cognitive impairment may be referred to their licensing authority for 51 medical review. Neuropsychological testing results, and reports by the driver (or knowledgeable others) of difficulties with ADLs and IADLs, are indispensable to this review. Where driving performance measures
 are sought to supplement these indicators of cognitive impairment, safety and cost considerations often
 dictate the use of a driving simulator.

Within recognized limitations, simulators permit objective measures of driver performance and driver errors in a controlled environment, for a wide range of operational and tactical driving tasks, in populations that vary according to their demographic characteristics as well their functional status. A major challenge in using a simulator to assess driver performance – which researchers also face when designing a simulator-based experiment – is to choose effective and well-defined performance measures in scenarios that are most likely to elicit behaviors with clear safety relevance and that provide information about the specific mechanisms of impairment that underlie them (*14*).

Although research investigating the effects of functional deficits associated with MCI often finds small decrements in safety-relevant driving behavior, the (simulated) driving tasks employed in such studies strongly influence their outcomes. Those presenting demands on drivers that tax an individual's capacity for serial information processing – working memory, for example – while also involving executive functions will arguably be more efficient in revealing differences that are operationally significant.

Working memory is a cognitive ability of key importance to driving; it allows a driver to remember—and apply when needed—navigational directions and rules for traffic operations, even as s/he is processing and responding to the real-time demands of steering, anticipating and avoiding conflicts, and performing other moment-to-moment vehicle control tasks (9), (10). Executive functions such as decisionmaking, impulse control, judgment, task switching and planning all strongly interact with working memory and with attention, which operates on the contents of working memory (15).

22 The present investigation builds upon the tentative conclusions from a pilot study (16), using an 23 improved experimental methodology to examine how varying levels of operational and tactical driving task 24 demands might differentially affect message recall for older drivers with MCI, versus a group of age-25 matched, healthy controls. This study examined the extent to which differences between drivers with mild 26 cognitive impairment and controls on a sign recall task in a fixed-base driving simulator could better predict 27 whether a driver will be diagnosed with MCI, compared to a self-reported decline in driving proficiency, 28 frequency of avoiding driving, or age alone. Samples of drivers diagnosed with MCI and controls were 29 administered a questionnaire and participated in simulated driving tasks, where task demand varied at 30 operational and tactical levels; significant differences in recall performance were hypothesized due to 31 interference of varying task demand on working memory. 32

33 METHODS 34

35 Participants

36 This study was part of a larger driving simulator experiment described in Yannis et al. (17), from which 37 current participants were drawn. All participants in this research held a valid driving license and had to 38 meet certain criteria. They had to have driven for more than 3 years; to have driven more than 2500km 39 during the previous year; to have driven at least once a week during the previous year; to have driven at 40 least 10km/week during the previous year; and to have a Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) score <2. They 41 were not permitted to have a significant psychiatric history of psychosis; to have any significant kinetic 42 disorder preventing them from basic driving movements; to suffer dizziness or nausea while driving, either 43 as a driver or as a passenger; to be pregnant; to be alcoholic or have any other drug addiction; to have any 44 significant eye disorder preventing them from driving safely; or to have any disease of the central nervous 45 system.

Samples of drivers diagnosed with MCI and controls without measurable cognitive impairment were recruited to participate in this study. The MCI group included 12 subjects with a mean age of 64.8 years (s.d. = 8.9, range 51-76), 8 males and 4 females. The control group consisted of 12 subjects, 6 men and 6 women, who were medically evaluated and found to have no pathological condition, with a mean age of 59.5 years (s.d.=7.2; range 51-78). Table 1 displays between-group comparisons for driver age, driving experience, driving exposure (number of days driven per week, number of trips per day and kilometers per 1 week), number of years of education, total accidents, and accidents in the past two years. None of the2 differences were statistically significant.

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 TABLE 1 Comparison of patients with MCI and of the Control Group Without Neurological History on Various Demographics With the Use of the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

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	MCI group	Control group	P-values ^a
Age, y, mean±SD(median; range)	64.8±8.9(66; 51-76)	59.5±7.2(58; 51-78)	0.178
Gender, n, M/F	12, 8/4	12, 6/6	0.514
Driving experience, y, mean±SD (median)	37.7±8.2 (37.5)	33.7±5.8(34.5)	0.178
Days/week, median (range)	4.5(1-7)	5 (2-7)	0.755
Kilometers driven/week ^b , median (range)	3.0(1-5)	3(2-5)	0.478
Trips/day	2.0(1-4)	2(2-5)	0.347
Accidents (2 years)-reported, median (range)	0 (0-2)	0 (0-1)	0.713
Accidents (total)-reported, median (range)	2 (0-4)	1 (0-8)	0.671
Education, y, median (median; range)	12.9±3.6(12.5; 6-19)	13.3±3.0(13.0; 6-18)	0.843

7 *a*. Level of statistical significance for between-group difference a=0.05

8 *b*.1=1-20km; 2=21-50km; 3=50-100km; 4=100-150 and 5=>150

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All MCI subjects were classified with amnestic MCI; 9 were single domain amnestic MCI and 3 multiple domain amnestic MCI. The diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment was based on the criteria of (*18*) which involve complaints about memory impairment by the patients or a family member, verified impairment on at least one cognitive domain but with preserved functional abilities of daily living and absence of dementia. Exclusion criteria involved a score on Clinical Dementia Rating Scale equal or greater than one, premorbid history of neurologic or psychiatric disorders and the presence of significant depression. The functional profiles of each sample are described by the results of standard neuropsychological tests presented in Table 2.

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TABLE 2 Comparison of Patients with Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) and of the Control Group on a Broad Array of Neuropsychological Tests With the Use of Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

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	MCI group	Control group	P-values
Mini Mental State Examination(MMSE)	28.2±2.53	29.5±.67	0.16
Immediate Recall_Hopkins Total ^a	18.55±2.82	24.25±4.33	0.009
Hopkins Delayed Recall ^a	3.73±2.94	7.42±3.12	0.012
Letter Number Sequencing(LNS)	8.55±3.36	10.33 ± 1.87	0.288
Judgment of Line Orientation(JLO)	16.75±2.22	15.09 ± 4.06	0.42
Symbol Digit Modalities Test ^a (SDMT)	33.18±17.66	46.0±10.07	0.045
Trail Making Test Part A(TMTA)	72.64±67.14	40.5 ± 8.47	0.131
Trail Making Test Part B(TMTB)	151.55±108.27	95.33±30.01	0.805
Immediate Recall_BVMT ^b Total	18.91±9.21	23.0±6.44	0.387
BVMT ^b Delayed Recall	7.55±4.11	9.17±1.70	0.619

22 a.statistically significant at a=0.05

23 *b*.Brief Visuospatial Memory Test

The analysis revealed significant differences between the control and the MCI group in measures
 assessing verbal episodic memory (Hopkins Verbal Learning Test-Revised) and information processing speed
 (SDMT). In contrast, measures of general cognitive functioning (MMSE), working memory (LNS),
 visuospatial memory (BVMT), psychomotor speed (TMTA), mental flexibility (TMTB) and visuospatial
 perception (JLO) did not differ in a significant way between the two groups.

All study participants were administered a questionnaire including items relating to global driving
 proficiency and driving avoidance, before simulator data collection.

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Details of questionnaire administration

2 3 Participants were asked to complete an extensive questionnaire concerning demographic information; their 4 driving experience, exposure and self-restrictions; a self-assessment of their driving skills; driving 5 6 7 difficulties (19); specific driving behaviors associated with early dementia (20); distracted driving behaviors; their emotions while driving; and their history of incidents and accidents. Family members also completed questionnaires about their impressions of the study participants with impairment.

8 In the self-assessment part of the questionnaire, older drivers were asked (i) to assess whether their 9 driving performance had declined over the previous five years, (ii) to indicate whether they avoided driving 10 and (iii) to provide the reasons for avoiding driving (e.g. self-regulation, discouraged by family etc.). The 11 inclusion of the items relating to self-assessment of global driving ability and driving ability in specific 12 driving situations was based on findings of a previous study investigating perceptions of safe-driving ability 13 in relation to actual and self-assessed performance of a group of older adults during an on-road trial (19).

14 Specifically, drivers reported on changes in global driving proficiency by comparing "your ability 15 now to five years ago", using a five-point scale: "much worse", "a little bit worse", "the same", "a little bit 16 better" and "much better." Responses were consolidated into two categories to facilitate analyses of group 17 differences with the present, small sample size: "worse" versus "unchanged or better." Another item of the 18 questionnaire asked drivers to report on the frequency with which they avoided making trips because of concerns about driving, by choosing one of four responses: "never", "rarely", "sometimes", or "often". 19 20 Again, because of the small sample size, responses were consolidated into two categories: "never" versus 21 "rarely or sometimes." None of these participants responded "often." 22

23 Details of simulator data collection

24 The driving simulation component of this study was conducted at the Department of Transportation 25 Planning and Engineering of the School of Civil Engineering at the National Technical University of Athens 26 (NTUA) in Athens, Greece, using a FOERST Driving Simulator FPF.

27 The driving simulator consists of driving position, fixed support base and 3 LCD wide screens 40" 28 which provided a 170 degree field of view. Drivers viewed the LCD displays from a distance of 125 cm. 29 Display resolution for the LCD screens was full HD (1920x1080pixels). The full dimensions are 30 230x180cm, with a base width of 78cm. It features adjustable driver seat, steering wheel 27cm diameter, 31 pedals (throttle, brake, clutch), dashboard and two external and one central mirror that appear on the side 32 and on the main screen. Performance data were extracted directly from the simulator and logged 30 times 33 per second.

34 The present investigation builds upon the tentative conclusions from a pilot study (16), using an 35 improved experimental methodology to examine how varying levels of operational and tactical driving task 36 demands might differentially affect message recall for older drivers with MCI versus a group of matched, 37 healthy controls. Experimenters were blind to the results of the neuropsychological tests. All subjects 38 gained a degree of familiarity with the simulator through participation in a prior experiment that lasted 39 approximately 45 minutes. Subjects were afforded a rest period of at least 15 minutes between their 40 experience in the prior experiment and their participation in the present study. This prior experience allowed 41 participants to practice all their driving skills (distance judgment, pedal and steering control) and also served 42 as a screen for susceptibility to simulator adaptation syndrome (SAS) for the study sample. None were so 43 affected.

44 The experiment in the driving simulator was completed in a single laboratory session. The 45 experiment included three conditions, TC1 and TC2 and TC3, completed using repeated measures for all 46 subjects in three separate simulator drives of approximately two minutes' duration each. The experiment 47 measured the effect of different levels of intervening driving task demand (i.e., between message 48 presentation and recall) on the recall of the sign information. The amount of time between the presentation 49 and recall of the sign message was roughly equivalent across conditions. The sign message was presented 50 for a fixed interval (~8 sec) that was constant across study participants. Three equivalent messages were 51 constructed for presentation during the three test conditions, using a common format: each sign displayed

three units of information, indicating the *type of situation ahead*, its *distance*, and a *driver action* that is required, using standard wording (21), (22). Before each of their three drives in the simulator, subjects were instructed to respond to traffic control information and always maintain safe gaps with other vehicles just as they would when actually driving. They were also instructed to maintain a constant speed at the posted speed limit unless this was not possible due to other traffic, road construction, etc. (16).

5 6 All driving scenarios involved driving along straight sections and gentle curves on a limited access, 7 divided roadway. Scenarios avoided sharp curves or frequent stops (23) to reduce the likelihood of 8 simulator adaptation syndrome. Across all test conditions, the driving scenario began with a period of low-9 demand driving, requiring minimal steering input and with the only other traffic being two vehicles ahead 10 with the lead vehicle at a safe distance ahead of the driver. These low-demand driving conditions persisted 11 throughout TC1. In test conditions TC2 and TC3, however, after the initial period of low-demand driving, 12 the level of demand was varied by imposing different types of operational and tactical driving tasks on 13 subjects. In TC2, subjects negotiated a road work section, where the lane width tapered to become narrower. 14 In TC, the demand on working memory was increased by the addition of a concurrent driving task. The 15 order of presentation of conditions was randomized. The test conditions are described below:

16 • <u>TC1-Demand Level 1.</u> In TC1, drivers experienced the lowest level of demand, required to
 17 respond only to operational-level driving tasks.

18 • <u>TC2-Demand Level 2</u>. In TC2, drivers made a double lane change that involved driving
 19 through a road work section containing large blocks (barriers) on each side of the road, causing the road to
 20 progressively narrow (1:20 taper ratio; lane width 3m). These requirements were designed to produce an
 21 intermediate level of demand, i.e., demand in this scenario was higher than in TC1.

• <u>TC3-Demand Level 3</u>. In TC3, drivers were presented with the same road work section and associated steering requirements as in TC2, but after these forced lane changes they were required to execute an additional lane change *if* a discriminative stimulus (activation of the brake lights on a lead vehicle) was presented. This decision rule was included in the pre-drive instructions. The addition of this working memory task was designed to result in the highest level of demand for this scenario.

In all test conditions, participants relied upon working memory to recall the sign message after completing each driving scenario. Immediately at the end of each drive, subjects were asked to recall the sign message. The experimenter assigned a score 0-3, indicating that none, 1, 2 or all 3 information units were recalled. With the exception of the distance unit, the accuracy of recall was assessed on the basis of the meaning of the message information, rather than the exact wording.

RESULTS

36 Self-reports of changes in driving proficiency and driving avoidance

As shown in Table 3, half of the drivers in the MCI group responded that their current driving ability was
worse than 5 years earlier, while only very few (8.3%) drivers in the control group gave this response.
Substantial majorities of drivers in both the MCI group (75%) and in the control group (83.3%) reported
that they never avoided making trips because of concerns about driving (Table 3).

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45 TABLE 3 Responses to Selected Questionnaire Items

	MCI		Controls	
	Worse	Unchanged or better	Worse	Unchanged or better
"How do you rate your driving ability now compared to 5 years ago?"	50%	50%	8.3%	91.7%
	Never	Rarely or sometimes	Never	Rarely or sometimes

"How frequently do you avoid making trips	75%	25%	83.3%	16 7%	
because of concerns about driving?"	1570	2370	05.570	10.770	

1 Simulator performance measures

2 Two sets of data analyses were performed, concerning differences in 1) drivers' speed choice under each 3 test condition, as a manipulation check that the hypothesized differences in task demand had operational 4 consequences, and 2) sign recall scores, to evaluate the hypothesized deficit for MCI drivers versus controls, 5 and a potential interaction of sign message recall with task demand level. 6 7

The first set of analyses, which examined drivers' speed reductions to negotiate the road work section, employed a two-way mixed ANOVA (using SPSS) to test for main effects of driver group, a 8 between-subjects variable, and the level of demand for intervening driving tasks, a within-subjects variable. 9 on drivers' speed; and also for a possible two-way interaction between these variables.

10 In Table 4, descriptive statistics for each level of the two independent variables show that, on 11 average, at Demand Level 1 the mean speed was higher than in Levels 2 and 3; in addition, the mean speed 12 of the MCI group was lower than the mean speed of the control group across all levels of task demand.

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	Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Ν
	Control	65.25	8.07	12
Speed, Demand Level1	MCI	60.67	15.92	12
-	Total	62.96	12.56	24
	Control	44.58	13.21	12
Speed, Demand Level 2^a	MCI	40.75	6.51	12
-	Total	42.67	10.37	24
	Control	44.92	13.37	12
Speed, Demand Level3 ^a	MCI	38.50	10.15	12
-	Total	41.71	12.06	24

14 **TABLE 4 Descriptive Statistics for Speed Choice**

15 *a*. Average speed along the road work section

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The ANOVA indicated that the effect of group membership on speed was nonsignificant (F(1, (22)=2.28, p>0.05), but that differences in speed associated with the level of driving task demand were 19 reliable (F(1.53, 35.57)=32.09, p<0.001). In other words, disregarding group membership, subjects reduced 20 speed across driving test conditions suggesting that the level of demand was indeed varied by imposing 21 different types of operational and tactical driving tasks on subjects.

22 A Bonferroni corrected post hoc test showed that mean speed at Level 1 was significantly different 23 than at both Levels 2 and 3 (both p < 0.001); however, speeds at Level 3 were not significantly different 24 than speeds at Level 2 (p>0.05).

25 The graph in Figure 1 illustrates the interaction between group membership and driving task 26 demand. The "whiskers" (bars) denote one standard error around the mean of speeds for each group, at each 27 demand level. This interaction was not statistically significant (F(1.53, 33.57)=0.098, p>0.05).

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FIGURE 1 Mean speed for each group under varying levels of task demand.

16 Next, descriptive analyses of the sign message recall data are shown in Table 5 for MCI drivers 17 and controls under each level of driving task demand. From this table it is apparent that the MCI group 18 performed more poorly in message recall, demonstrating higher percentages of low recall scores (0 and 1) 19 than the control group. At the same time, there is no clear pattern indicating an interaction between group 20 membership and driving task demand.

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	Demand Level1 (TC1)	Demand Level2 (TC2)	Demand Level3 (TC3)
	Recall scores	s of MCI group	
percent of "0"	25.0%	0.0%	16.7%
percent of "1"	8.3%	8.3%	25.0%
percent of "2"	41.7%	33.3%	25.0%
percent of "3"	25.0%	58.3%	33.3%
Median	2.0	3.0	2.0
Range	0-3	1-3	0-3
	Recall scor	res of Controls	
percent of "0"	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
percent of "1"	8.3%	8.3%	8.3%
percent of "2"	16.7%	16.7%	41.7%
percent of "3"	75.0%	75.0%	50.0%
Median	3.0	3.0	2.5
Range	1-3	1-3	1-3

TABLE 5 Recall Scores in Varying Levels of Intervening Task Demand

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A General Estimating Equation (GEE) model (ordered multinomial logistic regression) was 26 specified to examine the relationship between participant group and performance in the sign recall task, 27 adjusting for potential intercorrelations among sign recall task for each participant at the three test 28 conditions. As shown in Table 6, the ordinal logistic GEE (applying a cumulative logit link function) indicated that controls were more likely to perform better than MCI drivers in the sign recall task; this trend was statistically significant Exp(b)=11.76, 95% CI 2.73, 50.62, p=0.001<0.05).

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TABLE 6 Multinomial Regression Predicting Recall Scores

Parameter		Estimate	Std. Error	95%	o CI	Hypothesis Test			
		(b)		Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.	
	Recallscores= 0	-0.65	0.41	-1.45	0.15	2.55	1	0.110	
Threshold	Recallscores=	0.57	0.41	-0.23	1.37	1.93	1	0.165	
	Recallscores=	2.91	0.70	1.55	4.28	17.47	1	0.000	
Controls		2.46	0.74	1.00	3.92	10.94	1	0.001	
MCI		0.00							
TC1-Deman	nd-Level 1	0.90	0.46	-0.01	1.81	3.77	1	0.052	
TC2-Demand Level 2		1.58	0.43	0.73	2.43	13.33	1	0.000	
TC3-Demand Level 3		0.00							

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This analysis further revealed that, disregarding group membership, subjects performed better in the recall of sign information in TC1 versus TC3, although this difference was not significant Exp(b)=2.46, 9 95% CI 0.99, 6.12, p=0.052<0.05). Performance in the sign recall task was more likely to be higher in TC2 10 (lower level of driving task demand) than TC3 and this difference was statistically significant Exp(b)=4.85, 11 95% CI 2.08, 11.33, p<0.001). The interaction effects were considered during the model building process, 12 but they were not included in the final model specification as they were not significant at any reasonable 13 level. Age was considered during the model building process but the convergence criterion was not 14 satisfied.

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16 **Prediction of MCI diagnosis**

17 Building on the reliable differences between drivers with mild cognitive impairment and controls on a sign 18 recall task, we further explored the extent to which such evidence could better predict whether a driver will 19 be diagnosed with MCI, compared to self-reports of changes in driving proficiency, or of avoidance of 20 driving, or on the basis of age alone. We used stepwise logistic regression (see Table 7) with a threshold of 21 0.05 for statistical significance. The dependent variable was group membership (a dichotomous variable) 22 and the independent variables were age; self-reported changes in global driving proficiency (relative to five 23 years earlier), where 1=worse and 2=unchanged or better; self-reported frequency of avoiding driving, 24 where 1=never and 2=rarely or sometimes; and recall score in the high demand test condition, TC3, 25 where 1=a score of 0 or 1, and 2=a score of 2 or 3.

26 In the regression model, predictor variables that failed to meet the criteria for inclusion were 27 dropped, at each step in turn, until it was revealed that self-reported changes in global driving ability was 28 the only statistically significant predictor (see Tables 7 and 8). The associated odds ratio indicated that the 29 odds of study participants who self-reported their driving ability as being "worse now than five years ago" 30 also being diagnosed with MCI were 1/0.09 or 11 times more likely than the odds of those participants who 31 rated their driving ability as unchanged or better also being diagnosed with MCI (Table 8).

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TABLE 7 Variables in Stepwise Logistic Regression

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I.	for Exp(B)
								Lower	Upper
Step 1	Age	0.05	0.07	0.45	1	.500	1.05	0.92	1.20
	Recall score	-1.91	1.44	1.77	1	.184	0.15	0.01	2.47
	Self-reported frequency of								
	avoiding making trips	-0.54	1.40	0.15	1	.698	0.58	0.04	9.05
	Self-reported changes in								
	global driving ability	-2.16	1.41	2.35	1	.125	0.12	0.01	1.82
	Constant	5.01	6.87	0.53	1	.466	149.92		
Step 2	Age	0.04	0.07	0.38	1	.536	1.04	0.91	1.19
1	Recall score	-1.70	1.29	1.74	1	.188	0.18	0.01	2.29
	Self-reported changes in								
	global driving ability	-1.99	1.29	2.38	1	.123	0.14	0.01	1.71
	Constant	3.93	5.98	0.43	1	.511	50.95		
Step3	Recall score	-1.85	1.28	2.09	1	.148	0.16	0.01	1.93
-	Self-reported changes in								
	global driving ability	-2.24	1.24	3.25	1	.071	0.11	0.01	1.22
	Constant	7.21	3.33	4.70	1	.030	1354.26		
Step 4	Self-reported changes in								
-	global driving ability	-2.40	1.19	4.04	1	.045	0.09	0.01	0.94
	Constant	4.19	2.22	3.56	1	.059	66.00		

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TABLE 8 Logistic Regression Predicting Whether a Driver Will Be Diagnosed With MCI: Final Model

	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.	I.forExp(B)
							Lower	Upper
Self-reported changes in global driving ability ^a	-2.40	1.19	4.04	1	.045	0.09	0.01	0.94
Constant	4.19	2.22	3.56	1	.059	66.00		

Final Model: $R^2 = 0.16$ (Hosmer&Lemeshow), 0.20 (Cox &Snell), 0.27 (Nagelkerke), Model $x^2=5.455$ *a.* statistically significant at 0.05 level

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10 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION 11

This research achieved multiple aims. First, it replicated earlier findings (*16*) from the same laboratory showing that drivers with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) performed significantly more poorly on a sign recall task across varying levels of driving task demand than a cognitively-intact comparison group. However, in the earlier study the MCI group was, on average, over a decade older than the controls, while in the present study the healthy control group and the MCI drivers were comparably aged.

This research also examined the utility of this measure of cognitive status obtained in a (fixed-base) driving simulator in a broader context: license renewal policies and practices, where the need for early identification (screening) and assessment of drivers at risk due to cognitive impairment is likely to become more pronounced in an aging population. Should jurisdictions that are sensitive to the risks associated with normal aging, plus the diseases and medical conditions more prevalent among older drivers, regard testing on a driving simulator as a useful or necessary procedure to determine fitness to drive? Can early identification of drivers who are at risk due to MCI be accomplished with much more cost-effective
 methods? The results demonstrated in this study, while tentative given its small sample size, bear on these
 questions.

4 While individuals with MCI as well as those in the earliest stages of a progressive, dementing 5 6 illness may be able to continue to drive safely for some time, a proper diagnosis is important not only for planning treatment but also when considering appropriate driving (licensing) restrictions and requirements 7 for periodic review to determine license status. Exploring which data best predict a diagnosis of MCI, it 8 was found in this study that neither message recall scores in a simulated driving scenario with elevated 9 working memory demands, nor self-reported frequency of driving avoidance, nor driver age predicted a 10 clinical diagnosis of MCI; only self-reported changes in global driving ability were significant in this 11 regard. This suggests that screening programs keved to age-related cognitive impairment should incorporate 12 subjective perceptions of changes in driving proficiency—i.e., using one's earlier self as the baseline—to 13 complement clinical test results for early identification of drivers that merit medical review.

14 Where more in-depth assessment is needed, simulators that obtain objective measures of driver 15 performance will remain an essential tool to better understand the interaction between individual differences 16 and varying situational demands on safe and effective vehicle control. Even with a small sample, a reliable 17 main effect of group membership indicates that (older) drivers with mild cognitive impairment will be at a 18 disadvantage when new information is presented, for example, on a variable message sign, that must be 19 retained in working memory and applied after some additional period of driving. In addition, differences 20 shown in this study, though not reliable with the small sample size, suggest that this effect will be 21 exaggerated as driving task demands increase. As a platform for research as well as assessment, fixed-base 22 driving simulators may become even more important as assistive technologies and automated control 23 systems are introduced, to delineate the conditions under which healthy as well as (cognitively) impaired 24 drivers may retain control of their vehicles.

25 Certain caveats apply to this report. It should be noted (24) that informant or self-reported measures may 26 become less useful the older the target population and the greater the extent of cognitive impairment. It is 27 also quite possible that an investigation with a substantially larger sample could reveal additional, 28 significant predictors of a MCI diagnosis among a broad array of simulator measures, exposure data, and 29 self- and/or informant reports on diverse driving behaviors. In addition, larger samples with appropriate 30 measurement techniques could better account for (analytically) the influence on driving behaviors and 31 performance of confounding variables such as age, and individual characteristics, e.g., driving experience 32 and driving exposure, that are associated with driving competence. 33

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35 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper was carried out within the framework of the Operational Program "Education and Lifelong
Learning" of the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF), namely the Research Funding Program: **THALES**. Investing in knowledge society through the European Social Fund, co-financed by the European
Union (European Social Fund - ESF) and Greek national funds. More information available at:
http://www.nrso.ntua.gr/distract.

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