

CAN DRIVING AT THE SIMULATOR “DIAGNOSE” COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENTS?

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ABSTRACT

1 There is increasing concern and interest about the association of cognitive impairments and
2 driving performance among the elderly, and several recent studies have identified significant
3 driving performance deficits in cognitively impaired older people, measured by means of
4 changes in driving simulator metrics. In this paper, it is attempted to reverse the question: can
5 driving at the simulator reveal the presence of cognitive impairments? This question has a two-
6 fold interest: first, driving at the simulator may allow for the detection of subtle changes in
7 driving due to cognitive impairments imperceptible in one's daily routine; and second, driving
8 simulators may have potential of becoming in the future useful tools for the screening of older
9 individuals and assist clinicians both in the medical examination and the advice on whether to
10 continue driving. Data from a large interdisciplinary driving simulator study were analyzed by
11 means of discriminant analysis techniques, in order to classify individuals as healthy or
12 cognitively impaired on the basis of their simulated driving performance. The analysis sample
13 included 86 individuals, out of which 38 patients with Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) and
14 21 patients with Alzheimer's disease (AD). The results suggest that variables discriminating
15 between healthy and impaired individuals are average speed and headway, lateral position
16 variability, throttle position, reaction time and accident occurrence at incidents. The functions
17 developed correctly classified more than 65% of the individuals, a share that dropped to around
18 60% when cross-validation analysis was implemented. Overall, although MCI and AD patients
19 had significant shares of misclassified cases, these misclassifications were mostly between the
20 one pathology and the other; very few pathological cases were classified as healthy, and all of
21 these concerned MCI patients. It is indicated that driving at the simulator may under certain
22 conditions assist in the screening for cognitive impairments.

23
24 **Key-words:** driving simulator; cognitive impairments; MCI; Alzheimer's disease;
25 discriminant analysis.

26 BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES

27

28 Numerous studies have associated cognitive impairments among the elderly with driving
29 performance. Particular focus has been placed on Alzheimer's disease (AD), and Mild
30 Cognitive Impairment (MCI), i.e. the prodromal stage of many neurodegenerative diseases,
31 with prevalence estimated at least 10% among the elderly (1). The main purpose of these
32 studies was to assess fitness-to-drive and identify specific driving performance deficits and
33 risks due to the disease and the related cognitive impairments, following a formal diagnosis on
34 the basis of clinical, neurological and neuropsychological assessments.

35 Existing results have been largely consistent, with cognitively impaired people driving
36 at lower speeds, with increased variability in vehicle lateral position and / or wheel steering
37 angle, difficulties in operating the gearbox, increased driving errors and violations, and slower
38 reaction time at incidents and / or brake response (2, 3, 4).

39 In this paper, the question is reversed: can driving at the simulator assist in the
40 screening for cognitive impairments, towards their diagnosis? In order to address with question,
41 the simulated driving performance of 86 drivers aged older than 55 years (out of which 27
42 healthy controls, 38 MCI patients and 21 AD patients) was associated with their clinical
43 diagnosis, in order to attempt to classify the drivers into healthy or cognitively impaired groups
44 on the basis of their driving performance.

45

46 LITERATURE REVIEW

47

48 Cognitive and driving impairments are strongly interrelated, with critical impact on the
49 mobility and quality of life of older individuals. A considerable amount of research is devoted
50 to the degree to which cognitive impairments affect driving, ranging from mild impairments
51 (MCI) and pre-dementia conditions, to dementing diseases, stroke, cerebrovascular disease,
52 Parkinson's disease etc.

53 Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI), which is the prodromal stage of several dementing
54 diseases, has prevalence in persons older than 65 years of age ranging from 10% to 20%
55 (depending on the population studied and on the diagnostic criteria utilized) (1); however, its
56 effect on driving ability has received less attention compared to other clinical groups, and is a
57 critical issue for further research (2, 4). Existing studies also indicate driving difficulties in
58 several driving performance measures and more errors between AD patients and cognitively
59 intact individuals (5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10).

60 More specifically, the relationship between cognitive impairments and driving risks so
61 far has mainly been investigated in on-road tests or driving simulators (11). Results clearly
62 establish that drivers with cognitive impairments may drive at – often dangerously – lower
63 speeds, have difficulty in positioning the vehicle on the lane and maintaining that position, may
64 have slower reaction time at unexpected events, may be more vulnerable to complex driving
65 environments and more affected by in-vehicle or external distraction (12), may conduct more
66 driving errors and unintentional traffic violations etc. (13). However, older drivers with
67 cognitive impairments are often capable of self-regulating to some extent, and their driving
68 impairments are partly balanced by their reduced exposure (driving), especially in demanding
69 conditions (e.g. avoidance of motorways, night-time driving etc.) and the lower speeds (14).

70 It is suggested that preclinical dementia may have subtle cognitive and functional
71 effects, which could combine to impair complex behaviors such as driving. Several researches
72 underline that emphasis should be placed on the early – and often preclinical – stages of the
73 diseases, where cognitive impairments may be imperceptible in one's daily routine, and
74 undetectable with routine medical screening tools, yet already affecting driving ability (15). In
75 a recent study (16), for instance, a composite score reflecting psychometric functioning was

76 unassociated with the number of on-road driving errors, but AD biomarker patterns were
77 identified and associated with these driving errors, suggesting the presence of AD pathology
78 which would not be identified through standard tools. Consistent with this idea, postmortem
79 studies of the brains of asymptomatic older drivers who were killed in car accidents found that
80 many had underlying AD neuropathological changes (17).

81 Another recent study (18) presented an exploratory analysis of the extent to which
82 differences between drivers with mild cognitive impairment and controls on a sign recall task
83 in a fixed-base driving simulator could better predict whether a driver will be diagnosed with
84 MCI, compared to self-reports of a decrease in driving proficiency or of avoidance of driving,
85 or age alone. However, neither recall scores, nor self-reported frequency of avoiding driving,
86 nor driver age predicted a clinical diagnosis of MCI, and only self-reported decline in global
87 driving ability was significant.

88 Nevertheless, recent medical and neuropsychological research, underlines that there is
89 strong need for identifying sensitive tools to measure cognitive and functional changes in the
90 early stages, and although some have cautioned that it may not be feasible to assess functional
91 impairment at the earliest stages of the disease, the results suggest that driving tests on the road
92 or through simulation, may eventually provide such a measure. A driving simulation test in
93 particular, although often criticized for lacking the fidelity required for generalizing the results
94 with respect to driving performance (19), might provide more detailed information on the types
95 and importance of driving errors and could be repeated in other settings and with other samples
96 (16).

97

98 **DATA COLLECTION**

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100 This research was implemented by an interdisciplinary team including transportation engineers
101 of the Department of Transportation Planning and Engineering, of the National Technical
102 University of Athens (NTUA), as well as neurologists and neuropsychologists of the University
103 of Athens Medical School, at ATTIKON University General Hospital. The study was approved
104 by the Ethics Committee of the "ATTIKON" University General Hospital. Informed consent
105 was obtained from all individuals studied.

106 This large scale study had multiple objectives, namely testing the driving behavior of
107 different age groups, including young, middle-aged and older people, with emphasis and over-
108 sampling of older people, both cognitively impaired and healthy. The total sample consists of
109 317 participants, out of which 105 were cognitively impaired older individuals. The diseases
110 diagnosed included mostly (75%) MCI, AD and Parkinson's disease, as well as a small share
111 on frontotemporal dementia (FTD), stroke, sleep disorders (RBD), multiple sclerosis (MS),
112 depression etc.). All participants were recruited among patients of the 2nd Department of
113 Neurology of the University of Athens Medical School at ATTIKON University General
114 Hospital.

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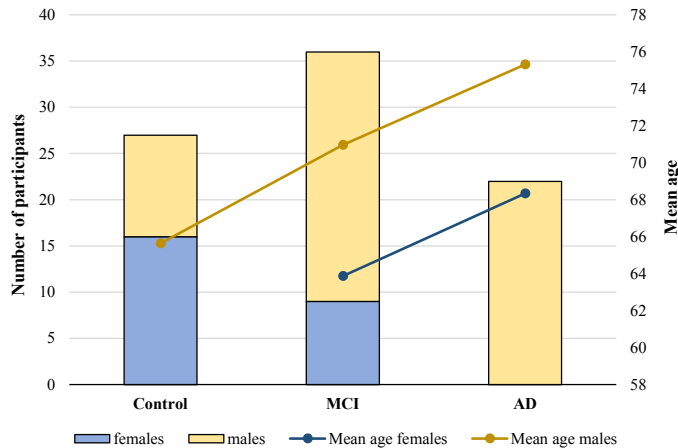
116 **Sampling frame**

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118 For the purposes of the present analysis, a sample of 86 individuals aged >55 years old was
119 selected from the total sample, including the respective healthy controls (27 individuals), the
120 MCI (38 individuals) patients and the AD patients (21 individuals) explicitly diagnosed by the
121 neurology / neuropsychology research teams. PD patients were excluded as in most cases they
122 did not present significant cognitive impairments; similarly, the remaining patients formed a
123 rather heterogeneous group of pathologies and were excluded to allow for a more focused
124 analysis.

125 In total, 59 of the participants were males and 25 were females. The gender distribution
 126 of the control group was balanced, but males were over-represented in the MCI group and there
 127 were no females in the AD group. Moreover, the mean age of the control group was 65 years,
 128 while for the MCI and the AD groups the mean age was 70 and 75 years respectively. Females
 129 had slightly lower mean age in all groups, with the same general trend of increasing age with
 130 the presence of pathology (see Figure 1). It is noted that the distributions of gender and age
 131 groups in this sample are representative of the prevalence of these pathologies in the general
 132 population (1).

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FIGURE 1 Sample size, gender and age of MCI, AD and healthy controls

139 **Medical and neuropsychological assessment and diagnosis**

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A first assessment of the participants concerned the administration of a full clinical medical, ophthalmological and neurological evaluation, in order to well document the characteristics of each of their disorders as well as other related parameters of potential impact on driving (e.g. use of medication affecting the Central Nervous System).

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A second assessment concerned the administration of a series of neuropsychological tests and psychological-behavioral questionnaires to the participants. The battery used covers a large spectrum of Cognitive Functions: visuospatial and verbal episodic and working memory, general selective and divided attention, reaction time, processing speed, psychomotor speed, mental flexibility and task shifting etc. and included in total 13 tests (e.g. Mini Mental State Examination, Clock Drawing Test, Semantic and Phonemic Fluency, Symbol Digit Modalities Test - Written & Oral, Hopkins Verbal Learning Test-Revised, Trail Making Test etc.) - for a detailed description the reader is referred to (20).

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The driving assessment was carried out once the sample was classified into the 3 groups by the neurological and neuropsychological teams (AD, MCI or control group), on the basis of their diagnosis. All MCI patients had Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) = 0.5 and all AD patients had CDR=1.0.

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158 **Driving Simulator assessment**

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The NTUA driving simulator is a dynamic quarter-cab and consists of 3 wide screens 40'', driving position and support motion base. The dimensions at a full development are

162 230x180cm, while the base width is 78cm and the total field of view is 170 degrees. The
163 simulator is validated against a real world environment, with satisfactory relative validity as
164 regards gender, age groups and area type i.e. urban or rural (21).

165 Patients were to carry out the simulator experiment while under their usual medication.
166 The driving simulator experiment started with a practice drive on the basis of several
167 quantitative and qualitative criteria of familiarization with the simulator (usually 10-15
168 minutes). Afterwards, all participants drove two sessions (approximately 20 minutes each).
169 Each session corresponded to a different road environment: a rural route (single carriageway,
170 lane width 3m, zero gradient and mild horizontal curves) and an urban route (dual carriageway,
171 separated by guardrails, lane width 3.5m, narrow sidewalks, commercial uses and roadside
172 parking).

173 In each road environment, there were 6 trials, under different traffic and cognitive
174 workload conditions. More specifically, traffic conditions tested included low traffic (ambient
175 vehicles' arrivals corresponding to an average traffic volume $Q=300$ vehicles/hour, i.e. drawn
176 from a Gamma distribution with mean $m=12$ sec, and variance $\sigma^2=6$ sec,) and high traffic
177 (ambient vehicles' arrivals corresponding to an average traffic volume of $Q=600$ vehicles/hour,
178 i.e. drawn from a Gamma distribution with mean $m=6$ sec, and variance $\sigma^2=3$ sec), whereas
179 cognitive workload conditions tested included undistracted driving, conversation with
180 passenger and mobile phone conversation. It is noted, however, that most of the participants
181 aged >55 years old reported that they never used their mobile phone while driving and preferred
182 not to use it during the simulator experiment.

183 During each trial, 2 unexpected incidents were scheduled to occur at fixed points along
184 the drive. More specifically, incidents in rural area concerned the sudden appearance of an
185 animal (deer or donkey) on the roadway, and incidents in urban areas concerned the sudden
186 appearance of an adult pedestrian, or of a child chasing a ball on the roadway. The hazard
187 appeared at the same location for the same trial (i.e. rural area, high traffic) but not at the same
188 location between the trials, in order to minimize learning effects. The moment that the hazard
189 appeared was defined on the basis of both the simulator vehicle speed and the time to collision
190 in order to have identical conditions for each participant as regards available reaction time (i.e.
191 no possibility for the incident to appear more closely or more suddenly to one participant than
192 to another).

193 In this research, the driving data of the rural area drive low traffic and undistracted
194 condition are used for the analysis, being the least demanding condition in terms of road
195 environment and participants' mental workload.

196

197 ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

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199 Research hypotheses

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201 Previous analyses of the experiment data revealed several driving deficits of cognitively
202 impaired older people. MCI and AD patients in particular were found to drive at lower speeds
203 and with increased headways from the leading vehicle, have longer reaction time and accident
204 risk at unexpected incidents, drive at lower gearbox position and with increased engine rounds
205 per meter (rpm), make more errors (e.g. unintentional lane departures, sudden braking, engine
206 stops etc.) (13). These results are exploited in the present research in order to investigate
207 whether driving simulator measures can predict the presence of cognitive impairments.

208 Two research hypotheses are tested, as follows:

- 209 • A "conservative" hypothesis is first examined, aiming to test whether the simulator may
210 be a screening tool for the presence of cognitive impairments in general, so that further

211 medical and neuropsychological tests may diagnose a specific pathology (MCI, AD or
 212 other).
 213 • A more ambitious hypothesis, aims to test whether driving at the simulator may identify
 214 different pathologies; although from a medical viewpoint, it is hardly pertinent or
 215 meaningful to attempt to identify specific pathologies from the driving simulator data,
 216 previous analysis results suggest that there are different driving deficits associated with
 217 different pathologies, and consequently it may be easier to identify specific conditions.
 218

219 **Discriminant Analysis**

220

221 A discriminant analysis technique was used for the purposes of this research, which uses a
 222 linear combination of predictors that characterizes or separates two or more classes of objects
 223 or individuals, and explicitly attempts to model the difference between the classes.
 224 Discriminant analysis is broken into a 2-step process: first, testing significance of a set of
 225 discriminant functions, and second, classification of individuals. The first step is
 226 computationally identical to MANOVA. One first performs the multivariate test, and, if
 227 statistically significant, proceeds to see which of the variables have significantly different
 228 means across the groups.

229 The discriminant function coefficients denote the unique contribution of each variable
 230 to the discriminant function, while the structure coefficients denote the simple correlations
 231 between the variables and the functions. The discriminant function score for the i^{th} function is:
 232

$$233 \quad D_i = \sum_{i=1}^p d_i Z_i \quad (1)$$

234

235 Where Z is the score on each predictor, and d_i is the discriminant function coefficient.
 236 Once the discriminant functions are determined and groups are differentiated, the utility of
 237 these functions can be examined via their ability to correctly classify each data point to their a
 238 priori groups. Classification functions are derived from the linear discriminant functions to
 239 achieve this purpose. For unequal sample sizes n_j in each group the classification function has
 240 the following form:
 241

$$242 \quad C_j = c_{j0} + \sum_{i=1}^p c_{ij} x_i + \ln \left(\frac{n_j}{N} \right) \quad (2)$$

243

244 for the j^{th} group, $j = 1 \dots k$, x are raw scores of each predictor, c_{j0} is a constant and N the total
 245 sample size.
 246

247 In this paper, the medical diagnosis was used as the dependent variable and the
 248 simulator driving performance measures with proved association with cognitive impairments
 249 were used as independent variables. Previous research with this dataset, as well as existing
 250 results from other related studies, were used to select the independent variables among the
 251 numerous simulator variables. The independent variables tested included:

- 252 • Average speed
- 253 • Speed variability (StdSpeed)
- 254 • Mean Lateral position (LateralPositionAverage)
- 255 • Lateral position variability (StdLateralPosition)
- 256 • Gearbox position (GearAverage)
- 257 • Gearbox Position Variability (StdGearAverage)
- 258 • Engine rounds per meter (RpmAverage)
- 259 • Engine rounds per meter variability (StdRpmAverage)
- 260 • Mean headway from lead vehicle (HWayAverage)

- 261 • Steering angle (WheelAverage)
- 262 • Steering angle variability (StdWheelAverage)
- 263 • Number of engine stops (EngineStops)
- 264 • Number of hits of roadside bars (HitOfSideBars)
- 265 • Number of lane departures (OutsideRoadLines)
- 266 • Number of sudden brakes (SuddenBrakes)
- 267 • Number of speed limit violations (SpeedLimitViolation)
- 268 • High engine rounds per meter (HighRoundsPerMinute)
- 269 • Reaction time at first unexpected event (ReactionTime1)
- 270 • Accident occurrence at first unexpected event (Acc.Prob.1)

271 In addition to these simulator metrics, the participant's age was included in the independent
272 variables, to control for the positive relationship between age and pathology, which was also
273 identifiable through the sampling process.

274

275 **RESULTS**

276

277 **Identification of cognitive impairments**

278

279 As a first step of the analysis, the conservative hypothesis was tested. For that purpose,
280 cognitively impaired individuals were grouped together and were tested against healthy
281 controls. The Wilks' lambda test of equality of group means suggested that the only variables
282 that significantly distinguished impaired from healthy individuals were age and reaction time
283 at incidents, which were consequently the only variables retained in the discriminant function.
284 This result suggested that the simulator metrics did not add to the identification of cognitive
285 impairments in general, since reaction time may be directly measured by several
286 neuropsychological tests.

287

288 **Identification of MCI or AD patients**

289

290 Next it was examined whether simulator metrics may identify cognitive impairments
291 specifically due to MCI or AD pathologies. In this case, the dependent variable had three
292 groups (controls, MCI and AD) and therefore two discriminant functions are estimated (the
293 number of discriminant functions examined is equal to the number of groups minus 1; however,
294 some discriminant dimensions may not be statistically significant.). The Wilks' Lambda and
295 F-tests for equality of group means presented in Table 1 suggest that the variables most likely
296 to discriminate groups are average speed, gearbox position, mean headway, reaction time at
297 incident, accident occurrence at incident, and age. Lateral position variability and the number
298 of sudden brakes are also marginally significant at 90% confidence level.

299

300

301 **TABLE 1 Tests of equality of group means (MANOVA) for the simulator metrics**
 302

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	Sig.
Age	,761	13,042	2	,000*
AverageSpeed	,870	6,184	2	,003*
StdevAverageSpeed	,961	1,666	2	,195
LateralPositionAverage	,968	1,378	2	,258
StdLateralPosition	,948	2,286	2	,108
GearAverage	,840	7,909	2	,001*
StdGearAverage	,974	1,089	2	,341
RpmAverage	,999	,059	2	,942
StdRpmAverage	,998	,069	2	,934
HWayAverage	,910	4,093	2	,020*
WheelAverage	,987	,555	2	,576
StdWheelAverage	,990	,399	2	,672
EngineStops	,973	1,158	2	,319
HitOfSideBars	,997	,114	2	,892
OutsideRoadLines	,974	1,095	2	,339
SuddenBrakes	,957	1,874	2	,160
SpeedLimitViolation	,972	1,214	2	,302
HighRoundsPerMinute	,994	,255	2	,775
ReactionTime 1	,781	11,634	2	,000*
Acc.Prob.1	,906	4,314	2	,017*

303 * Statistically significant at 95% confidence level

304

305 On the basis of these significant and marginally significant variables, the discriminant functions
 306 were estimated. The best performing model was selected on the basis of both the discriminant
 307 function performance and the classification results. In that model, lateral position variability
 308 was retained being significant at 90%, while the number of sudden brakes was removed. Table
 309 2 shows the quality of the discriminant functions; function 1 explains 88% of the total variance
 310 and significantly differentiates the groups, as suggested by the Wilks' Lambda test. Function 2
 311 does not appear to significantly further discriminate between groups, as suggested by the
 312 Wilks' Lambda test and is therefore redundant.

313

314 **TABLE 2 Eigenvalues and Wilks' Lambda tests of canonical discriminant functions.**

315

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	,687a	87,9	,541	49,091	14	,000
2	,095a	12,1	,914	7,233	6	,300

316

317 Table 3 presents the discriminant functions coefficients and the respective structure matrix (i.e.
 318 the pooled within-groups correlations between the variables and the discriminant function).
 319 The latter is to be interpreted in the same way that factor loadings are interpreted in a factor
 320 analysis, and therefore it is observed that age, average speed, gearbox position, reaction time

321 and accident occurrence at incidents are strongly correlated with discriminant function 1, while
 322 mean headway and lateral position variability are strongly correlated with discriminant
 323 function 2.

324
 325

326 **TABLE 3 Canonical discriminant function coefficients (left panel) and structure matrix**
 327 **(right panel)**

Variables	Coefficients		Correlations (structure matrix)	
	Function 1	Function 2	Function 1	Function 2
Age	,492	-,844	,645*	-,546
AverageSpeed	-,497	-,348	,636*	,156
GearAverage	-,293	-,035	-,525*	-,116
ReactionTime 1	,396	,008	-,465*	-,025
Acc.Prob.1	,103	,544	,379*	,023
HWayAverage	-,138	,048	,353	,442*
StdLateralPosition	,268	,644	,231	,440*

328 *Largest absolute correlation between variable and any discriminant function
 329

330 The classification function was estimated, with prior classification probabilities derived on the
 331 basis of the initial group sizes. Classification results are presented in Table 4. In total, the model
 332 correctly “diagnosed” 65.1% of all drivers, i.e. 67% of healthy controls, 68% of MCI patients
 333 and 57% of AD patients - it is noted however that another 38% of AD patients were
 334 misclassified as MCI, indicating that the pathology is highly identifiable also for this group,
 335 although not to its full extent. These results seem promising and suggest that driving simulator
 336 metrics may reveal cognitive impairments with driver age controlled for.

337 It is well known, however, that these classification results are an overestimation of the
 338 actual potential of the model, as the classification is made on the same cases that were used to
 339 develop the model. A cross-validation analysis is presented in the next section to assess this
 340 effect.

341
 342

TABLE 4 Original vs. predicted group membership classification results

Original	Count	Diagnosis	Predicted			Total
			Control group	MCI	AD	
	Count	Control group	18	8	1	27
		MCI	10	26	2	38
		AD	1	8	12	21
	%	Control group	66,7	29,6	3,7	100,0
		MCI	26,3	68,4	5,3	100,0
		AD	4,8	38,1	57,1	100,0

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 345

346 **Cross-validation**

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348 Cross-validation was done in two steps; results are presented in Table 5. First, a leave-one-out
 349 classification was carried out, in which cases are classified with the discriminant function
 350 estimated on the basis of all other cases except this one. This provides a “correction” of the
 351 classification results. It is indicated (see top panel of Table 5) in this case that 59% of healthy
 352 controls are correctly classified (another 37% is falsely classified as MCI), 63% of MCI are
 353 correctly classified (another 10.5% is falsely classified as AD) and 47.6% of AD are correctly
 354 classified (another 47.6% is falsely classified as MCI).

355 As a second step, the sample was split in two parts, on the basis of a random (Bernoulli)
 356 case selection process: a part of the sample (70% of cases) was selected for developing the
 357 model, while the remaining 30% of the sample (i.e. 5 controls, 14 MCI and 6 AD) was kept for
 358 prediction on the basis of the model developed. The results (see bottom panel of Table 5) show
 359 that the share of correct classification dropped for all groups, which was expected both because
 360 of the smaller sample used to develop the discriminant function, and the removal of the bias in
 361 the classification. In this case, 60% of controls, 43% of MCI and 33% of AD patients are
 362 correctly classified. Nevertheless, even in this case 71.5% in total of MCI patients are classified
 363 as cognitively impaired (either as MCI or as AD) and all AD patients are classified as
 364 cognitively impaired. Moreover, none of the control group are classified as AD.

365

366 **TABLE 5 Model cross-validation - Original vs. predicted group membership**
 367 **classification results - leave-one-out classification (top panel), unselected cases (top**
 368 **panel).**
 369

Observed		Diagnosis	Predicted			Total
			Control group	MCI	AD	
Leave-one-out cross-validation*	Count	Control group	16	10	1	27
		MCI	10	24	4	38
		AD	1	10	10	21
	%	Control group	59,3	37,0	3,7	100,0
		MCI	26,3	63,2	10,5	100,0
		AD	4,8	47,6	47,6	100,0
Unselected cases**	Count	Control group	3	2	0	5
		MCI	4	6	4	14
		AD	0	4	2	6
	%	Control group	60,0	40,0	,0	100,0
		MCI	28,6	42,9	28,6	100,0
		AD	,0	66,7	33,3	100,0
* Each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.						
** . 30% of the initial sample not used to derive the functions.						

370

371

372 **DISCUSSION**

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374 The results of the discriminant analysis model development and validation did not support the
 375 conservative research hypothesis that it would be easier (and more appropriate for a medical

376 viewpoint) to attempt to identify the presence of cognitive impairment in general rather than
377 distinguish different pathologies. A model simply distinguishing healthy from impaired
378 individuals did not achieve satisfactory performance, and the only variables that were found to
379 discriminate were age and reaction time, not providing added value to what would be already
380 known from basic medical screening of those individuals.

381 The more ambitious analysis attempting to discriminate between MCI and AD
382 pathologies rather surprisingly resulted in more robust models and satisfactory classification
383 of individuals. This may be attributed to the fact that these different pathologies present
384 different driving deficits: lower speed, slower reaction times and lower gearbox position are
385 common trends, but the effects are more pronounced on MCI patients than on AD patients,
386 while longer headways and increased lateral position variability are more specific to AD
387 patients. Consequently, the explicit separation of pathologies allowed for the contributions of
388 different simulator variables to the classification be more easily identified.

389 In this case, the classification results are encouraging, even when correcting for case
390 selection bias. On the other hand, the classification results leads to returning to the conservative
391 hypothesis: it is not possible and meaningful to use the classification results for “diagnosis”, as
392 only 50-60% of all cases are accurately classified. However, the misclassification occurs
393 almost exclusively between “neighboring” groups, e.g. MCI classified as AD or vice-versa,
394 healthy classified as MCI. Consequently, the model may be most useful for a general
395 classification in cognitively impaired or not, with only an indication of specific pathology.

396 Therefore, the potential of identifying (“diagnosing”) cognitive impairments through a
397 driving test alone appears to be significant. It is noted that no cognition measurements while
398 driving (e.g. memory, recall, recognition, attention) were included in this analysis; a recent
399 research on the potential of using such cognitive tasks in a driving simulator study to predict
400 cognitive impairments did not find significant effects (18). On the contrary, the “diagnoses”
401 obtained in this research were based on driving performance measures and errors alone. It is
402 underlined however that the experiment used in this research was not designed to help identify
403 cognitive impairments, but to assess the driving performance of individuals with a known
404 diagnosis. This analysis attempted to reverse the question and the results are encouraging that
405 a more focused driving test with an even larger sample might provide more insights.

406

407 **CONCLUSION**

408

409 This paper aimed to address the need for early detection of cognitive and driving impairments,
410 by further exploring their correlation and their potential identification towards a medical
411 screening diagnosis. There is increasing interest in such early detection tools, especially as it
412 has been found that cognitively impaired individuals are often asymptomatic but their driving
413 performance is very sensitive to this early onset of the diseases.

414 The results from using driving simulator metrics and individual age to discriminate
415 between healthy and cognitively impaired individuals under moderate traffic conditions
416 suggest that driving performance measures that successfully classify drivers are average speed,
417 headways, lateral position variability, incident reaction time, accident occurrence at incidents,
418 and gearbox position. The discriminant functions correctly “diagnosed” nearly 65% of all
419 drivers, with better rates for healthy or MCI drivers - it is noted however that the presence of
420 pathology was highly identifiable, as most misclassifications were between the one pathology
421 group and the other.

422 This paper of course does not suggest that driving at the simulator may substitute the
423 formal medical and neuropsychological examination that is required for diagnosis. It is
424 suggested that driving at the simulator may provide useful insight as per the driving

425 performance of older people, and as per their cognitive state through the observable driving
426 performance deficits (which are due to their cognitive decline).

427 There is promising indication that the simulator may under certain conditions be used
428 as a “neuropsychological tool” revealing the presence of cognitive impairments and guiding to
429 further formal testing towards a diagnosis. Given that driving requires several cognitive skills,
430 the development of dedicated simulator tests allowing to examine specific cognitive domains
431 critical for safe driving but also associated with highly prevalent pathologies - often
432 undetectable in their early stages - might have a two-fold added value to assist clinicians, both
433 in the screening and examination process and in the provision of more targeted and
434 substantiated advice as regards driving.

435

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