

Dear Author,

Here are the final proofs of your article. Please check the proofs carefully.

Please note that at this stage you should only be checking for errors introduced during the production process. Please pay particular attention to the following when checking the proof:

- Author names. Check that each author name is spelled correctly, and that names appear in the correct order of first name followed by family name. This will ensure that the names will be indexed correctly (for example if the author's name is 'Jane Patel', she will be cited as 'Patel, J.').
- Affiliations. Check that all authors are cited with the correct affiliations, that the author who will receive correspondence has been identified with an asterisk (\*), and that all equal contributors have been identified with a dagger sign (†).
- Ensure that the main text is complete.
- Check that figures, tables and their legends are included and in the correct order.
- Look to see that queries that were raised during copy-editing or typesetting have been resolved.
- Confirm that all web links are correct and working.
- Ensure that special characters and equations are displaying correctly.
- Check that additional or supplementary files can be opened and are correct.

Changes in scientific content cannot be made at this stage unless the request has already been approved. This includes changes to title or authorship, new results, or corrected values.

### **How to return your corrections**

#### *Returning your corrections via online submission:*

- Please provide details of your corrections in the online correction form. Always indicate the line number to which the correction refers.

#### *Returning your corrections via email:*

- Annotate the proof PDF with your corrections.
- Remember to include the journal title, manuscript number, and your name when sending your response via email.

After you have submitted your corrections, you will receive email notification from our production team that your article has been published in the final version. All changes at this stage are final. We will not be able to make any further changes after publication.

Kind regards,

**BioMed Central Production Team**

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Open Access

# Spatial navigation ability is associated with the assessment of smoothness of driving during changing lanes in older drivers

Kunishige Masafumi<sup>1</sup>, Miyaguchi Hideki<sup>2\*</sup>, Fukuda Hiroshi<sup>3</sup>, Iida Tadayuki<sup>4</sup>, Nami Kawabata<sup>5</sup> and Ishizuki Chinami<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

**Background:** Age-related changes affect driving ability, including the smoothness of driving. This operation requires the use of both allocentric strategies (based on world-centered representations) and egocentric strategies (based on self-centered representations); however, with age, a greater preference for egocentric strategies is evident when driving. Furthermore, an age-related decline occurs in both driving ability and spatial navigation. We therefore assessed the relationship between spatial navigation and driving smoothness and tested whether a driving simulator can be used to evaluate smooth lane changes in older drivers.

**Methods:** A total of 34 healthy older drivers (mean age:  $68.2 \pm 5.4$  years old) and 20 younger drivers (mean age =  $20.2 \pm 5.4$  years old) participated in this study. The smoothness of driving was assessed using a driving simulator and spatial navigation was assessed using the Card-Placing Test-A/B. We also assessed visual perception and general intellectual function using standard neuropsychological tests.

**Results:** Older drivers had significantly worse spatial navigation and exhibited less smooth driving than younger drivers. Furthermore, we found a negative correlation between the smoothness of driving and spatial navigation within both groups. These results suggest that the deterioration in spatial navigation in older people may underlie the observed decrease in driving smoothness, and that spatial navigation and smooth driving deteriorate with age.

**Conclusions:** Considering these results, we found a significant correlation in the older group between the smoothness of vehicle movement and spatial navigation, in the smoothness of vehicle movement between the young and old groups. The smoothness values, which indices thoroughly derived from the driving simulator are indeed showing some evidence in ego/allocentric cognitions, which may change by age. The driving simulator could aid the development of intervention programs or assessment measures for drivers with a decreased function.

**Keywords:** Driving, Older drivers, Driving simulator, Spatial navigation, Driving ability

\* Correspondence: [hmiya@hiroshima-u.ac.jp](mailto:hmiya@hiroshima-u.ac.jp)

<sup>2</sup>Department of Human Behavior Science of Occupational Therapy, Health Sciences Major, Graduate School of Biomedical & Health Sciences, Hiroshima University, 1-2-3 Minamiku Kasumi, Hiroshima City, Hiroshima Pref 734-8551, Japan

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s). 2020 **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

## 32 Background

33 Spatial navigation ability is essential for everyday living,  
34 allowing us to be cognizant of our position and orienta-  
35 tion in our environment. This ability consists of several  
36 components, spatial memory, sensorimotor information,  
37 sense of direction, and spatial reference frames (the ego-  
38 centric frame and the allocentric frame). These compo-  
39 nents interact with each other in various situations.  
40 Spatial navigation is the process that determines the tra-  
41 jectory from one place to another [1]. Successful spatial  
42 navigation required translation of encoded survey-level  
43 map information for orientation and implementation of  
44 a planned route to the goal and mainly relies on two co-  
45 dependent strategies: allocentric and egocentric naviga-  
46 tion strategies. These strategies use different types of  
47 spatial reference frames but are highly correlated [2].  
48 The deficit of this process increased safety concerns,  
49 greater risk of getting lost, and reduced driving confi-  
50 dence for adults [3]. The egocentric frame includes  
51 spatial information about the location of oneself in the  
52 environment, and the allocentric frame involves spatial  
53 information about the position of objects relative to each  
54 other. The egocentric frame is based on subject-to-  
55 object relations and leads to body-centered representa-  
56 tions (self-centered representations). The allocentric  
57 frame is acquired later in life [4]; within this reference,  
58 locations are described using object-to-object relation-  
59 ships, independently from the subject's point of view  
60 (world-centered representations). While males typically  
61 outperform females in tests of spatial navigation, signifi-  
62 cant female advantages have been documented in spatial  
63 memory [5]. One study pointed out almost all the previ-  
64 ous spatial impairments, both regarding egocentric prefer-  
65 ence and allocentric/switching deficits, considering  
66 both navigation and spatial memory [6]. In other words,  
67 in the process of spatial navigation, a driver who can  
68 switch egocentric and allocentric frames with a good  
69 balance operate the car smoothly. To the contrary, the  
70 reason why driving is awkward is the balance between  
71 egocentric and allocentric frames due to aging is biased.  
72 Moreover, it is thought that there is a problem that it is  
73 difficult to switch between spatial navigation compo-  
74 nents using the frontal lobe responsible for the executive  
75 function in even normal people. These problems can  
76 cause the driver to get in the wrong direction, delay the  
77 time to change lanes, and not drive smoothly.

78 Two experimental studies have indicated there to be  
79 an age-related preference for using egocentric rather  
80 than allocentric strategies during navigation [7, 8]. De-  
81 clines in spatial navigation ability are reportedly caused  
82 by frontal lobe atrophy, such as white matter abnormal-  
83 ities in the prefrontal and frontal cortices, atrophy of  
84 frontal gray matter [9, 10], and striatal volume reduction  
85 [11]. With aging, the reduced capacity for allocentric

spatial information processing may be due to frontal lobe 86  
atrophy [12]. Driving is a complex multitasking activity 87  
that involves perception, attention, decision-making, sen- 88  
sory, motor, and higher-level cognitive components and 89  
spatial navigation. Spatial navigation may be particularly 90  
relevant for understanding changes in driving. 91

Many studies have interpreted this change in driving 92  
ability as a decline in attention, as indicated by findings 93  
of a correlation between the Trail Making Test scores 94  
and accident history [13, 14]. Furthermore, older people 95  
report substantial declines in navigational capabilities 96  
[15], which can severely restrict mobility. Indeed, an 97  
age-related decline in spatial navigation ability has been 98  
reported [16]. In other words, we expected to see a 99  
maintenance in selective attention to visual information 100  
(such as the direction of movement and signs) necessary 101  
for driving to decrease with increasing age, even though 102  
driving operation ability somehow remains. When chang- 103  
ing lanes, the driver estimates the distance from other 104  
vehicles and plans a route to change lanes. After that, a 105  
driver will typically check the speedometer, the side mir- 106  
ror, and the driving direction, will judge the speed of 107  
one's own vehicle and the positional relationship with 108  
other vehicles, and then change lanes. Therefore, the 109  
egocentric frame in the cognitive process retrieves visual 110  
information to visually check equipment, such as the 111  
speedometer and the driving direction, and planning the 112  
route by sensing the distance and positional relationship 113  
with other vehicles. It seems that the allocentric frame is 114  
functioning in a cognitive process that monitors change 115  
of vehicle trajectory and the surrounding environment 116  
from a bird's-eye view. As the function of allocentric de- 117  
clines, there is a possibility that the vehicle operation 118  
cannot be performed smoothly. 119

The driving simulator(DS)can be used to measure 120  
driving ability in a realistic, safe, and controlled driving 121  
environment. In particular, it has been shown that speed 122  
fluctuation can be important factors for assessing driving 123  
technique in lane changing [17, 18]. From the viewpoint 124  
of smooth operation, there are researches on lane 125  
change path generation using the lateral acceleration 126  
and jerk of the vehicle when changing lanes as an evalua- 127  
tion function [19]. From these previous studies, we con- 128  
sidered that a DS can be used to evaluate whether lane 129  
change was performed smoothly. In our previous study, 130  
it has reported that eye movement is increased in older 131  
people with reduced spatial navigation ability when 132  
changing lanes on DS [20]. In particular, using the right 133  
turn and lane change at the intersection, the attention 134  
function (more eye movements) is required at the right 135  
turn, and the space navigation ability is required at the 136  
lane change. In this study, we chose to change lanes as a 137  
task requiring spatial navigation ability without using the 138  
attention function. Spatial navigation at the time of 139

140 driving does not depend on one strategy alone, but the  
 141 ability to flexibly switch between various space strategies  
 142 according to the surrounding environment and combine  
 143 these as necessary. Since DS is a two-dimensional task, it  
 144 does not capture things in three dimensions. There is a  
 145 certain validity and we think that DS can measure 3D  
 146 space task.

147 The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis  
 148 that some drivers whose spatial navigation ability has de-  
 149 teriorated are less able to perform smooth lane change.  
 150 We selected a simple task—lane changing—to assess  
 151 smoothness during driving operation. The first derivative  
 152 of the position in the lateral direction ( $y$  direction) with  
 153 respect to the position in the driving direction ( $x$  direc-  
 154 tion) of the vehicle body, and the root mean square  
 155 (RMS) of the  $x$  direction were used as the evaluation  
 156 index of smoothness. Spatial navigation ability was  
 157 assessed using the neuropsychological test. Our findings  
 158 indicate that DS can be used to evaluate driving ability  
 159 in older adults, which has important practical implica-  
 160 tions for driving safety.

## 161 Methods

### 162 Study design and participants

163 The participants were healthy older and young adults  
 164 living in Hiroshima Prefecture, who were voluntarily re-  
 165 cruited through public recruitment to the present study.  
 166 Initially, a total of 43 people responded; 23 young people  
 167 were initially interested. We explained the study details  
 168 to participants in advance and collected data from those  
 169 participants who provided informed consent. The inclu-  
 170 sion criteria were (1) without eye diseases, (2) intact  
 171 physical function, and limb movement ability. The ex-  
 172 clusion criteria were as follows:

- 173 ① Having a mental illness such as depression
- 174 ② With a diagnosis of dementia
- 175 ③ Difficulty in communication and cannot answer the  
 176 questions during the interview
- 177 ④ With history with motion disease and restriction,  
 178 such as heart disease and disorder of brain function),  
 179 and there is a danger of sudden change or deterioration  
 180 in health condition during the study
- 181 ⑤ Difficulty in the following measurement during the  
 182 study.

183 After application of these criteria, eligible participants  
 184 included 34 healthy older Japanese people (female:  $n = 27$ ;  
 185 male:  $n = 7$ ; age: (mean and standard deviation [SD])  $68.2$   
 186  $\pm 5.4$  years old; range: 60 to 76 years old) and 20 young  
 187 people (female:  $n = 10$ ; male:  $n = 10$ ; age:  $20.2 \pm 5.4$  years  
 188 old; range: 22 to 30 years old). The older group had held a  
 189 driver's license for a mean of 38 years and had a mean  
 190 driving mileage per year:  $7740 \pm 721.1$  km; the younger  
 191 group had held a driver's license for a mean of 5 years and  
 192 had a mean driving mileage per year:  $8240 \pm 935.2$  km.

We explained the study details to participants in advance 193  
 and informed consent was provided by all participants. 194  
 This study was approved by the Epidemiological Research 195  
 Ethics Review Committee of Hiroshima University (ap- 196  
 proval number E-1003) and was conducted in compliance 197  
 with the Declaration of Helsinki. We defined DS experi- 198  
 enced persons in this study as those who had received a 199  
 period of preliminary operation experience in a motion- 200  
 based DS. Practice time (15 min) was set sufficiently for all 201  
 participants. We needed to reduce the bias related to the 202  
 driving operation in DS, and we used the following pri- 203  
 mary outcomes and secondary outcomes (Fig. 1). 204

### Outcome measures 205

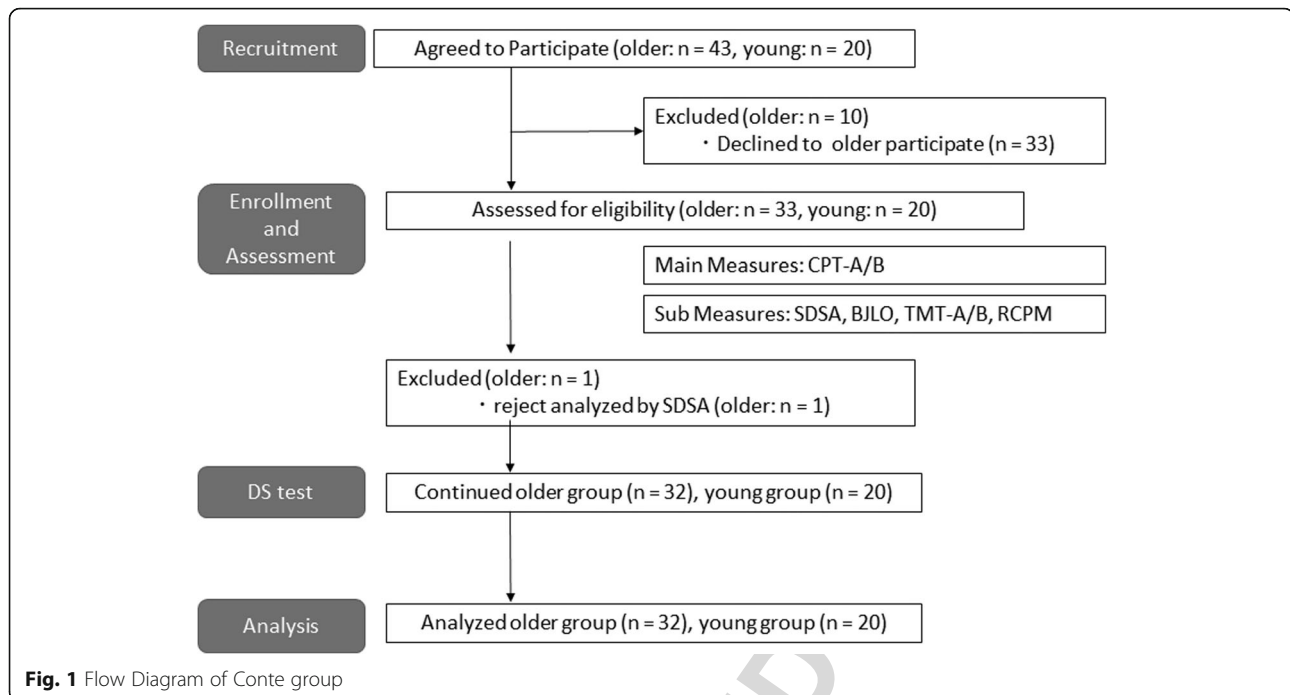
#### *Primary outcome: spatial navigation (Card-Placing Test-A/B)* 206

The CPT-A/B was used to evaluate spatial navigation. In 207  
 part A of the CPT, a subject must stand in the center 208  
 square of nine squares arranged in three rows of three. 209  
 The subject was instructed to remember the spatial loca- 210  
 tions of three different cards randomly placed in one of 211  
 the eight squares. After 10 s, the cards were taken away 212  
 and the subject is to restore them to their original posi- 213  
 tions. Part A of the test assesses the ability of a subject 214  
 to retain information on spatial locations of cards placed 215  
 on the floor around her/him (an egocentric reference 216  
 frame, i.e., self-centered). Meanwhile, in part B, immedi- 217  
 ately after the cards had been removed, the subject was 218  
 rotated to the right or to the left by  $90^\circ$  or  $180^\circ$  and then 219  
 asked to replace the cards. The CPT-B requires the inte- 220  
 gration of the self-centered spatial representation and 221  
 information about self-body rotation. In other words, 222  
 CPT-B is considered to evaluate the spatial representa- 223  
 tion ability when information about the direction of the 224  
 self-body with respect to the card position is required 225  
 (allocentric reference frame), that is, the environmen- 226  
 centered spatial representation ability [21]. For both part 227  
 A and part B of the CPT, the subject underwent 10 con- 228  
 secutive trials and scored 1 point if the location of a card 229  
 that the subject replaced was correct. The full score of 230  
 each of part A and part B of the CPT was 30 points. 231

### Secondary outcomes 232

#### *Driving assessment (the Stroke Drivers' Screening Assessment Japanese Version)* 233

We used the Stroke Drivers' Screening Assessment 235  
 Japanese Version (SDSA) to evaluate whether the 236  
 participant understand driving rules. The SDSA was 237  
 developed as a screening assessment for drivers post- 238  
 stroke and contains four tests, as follows: (1) the Dot 239  
 Cancellation Test, (2) Square Matrices Directions, (3) 240  
 Square Matrices Compass, and (4) the Road Sign Rec- 241  
 ognition Test. The SDSA has been reported to be rela- 242  
 tively successful in predicting pass/fail classification of 243  
 an on-road evaluation (78.9% agreement with the 244



Q4 Q3 1.1 1.2

245 principal evaluator [22]; sensitivity, 71.4%–79.3%; and  
246 specificity, 77.8%).

247 **Evaluation of visual perception (the Benton Judgment of**  
248 **Line Orientation Test)**

249 Driving on the DS is displayed on a liquid crystal display.  
250 The Benton Judgment of Line Orientation (BJLO) test was  
251 used to evaluate visual perception. The BJLO tests  
252 whether the direction in 2D space can be recognized [23].  
253 This test includes 30 pairs of angled lines to be matched  
254 with the corresponding lines in a radially arranged 11-line  
255 display. The full score of BJLO was 30 points.

256 **Screening test of general intellectual function (Raven’s**  
257 **Colored Progressive Matrices)**

258 We used Raven’s Colored Progressive Matrices (RCPM)  
259 to ensure that the ability to follow non-verbal instruc-  
260 tions during driving, such as signs and signals, was  
261 preserved. This test requires participants to judge the  
262 relationship between identity and similarity of, and  
263 differences between, graphics. Participants must  
264 choose one out of six figures that seems to fit a part  
265 of the displayed designs and designs that incomplete  
266 figure. Because RCPM scores have been found to  
267 show a strong correlation with those of the Wechsler  
268 Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R), it is also  
269 known as a screening for the simple intelligent test  
270 visual perception in the medical field [24]. The full  
271 score of RCPM was 36 points.

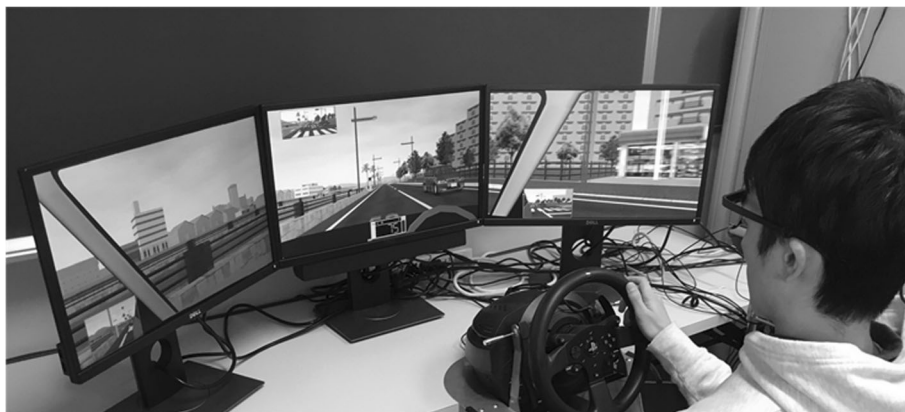
272 **Evaluation of visual search (Trail Making Test A and B)**

273 We assessed driving concentration during DS implementa-  
274 tion using the Trail Making Test A and B (TMT-A  
275 and TMT-B), which measure processing speed [25]. Part  
276 A is administered as a baseline measure of motor and  
277 visual search speed, whereas part B is administered as a  
278 measure of set-shifting and inhibition. The TMT-B simply  
279 adds the order of letters (e.g., a–b–c ...) to the num-  
280 bers by connecting lines in order (e.g. 1–2–3 ...) and  
281 adding numbers and letters, and the task is to connect  
282 lines alternately on paper. The participant should  
283 complete the task while changing the two elements [26].  
284 The time required to switch attention gradually de-  
285 creases with age, and if the time required to complete  
286 the TMT-B is 180 s or more, there is no cause for de-  
287 mentia or depression, it is necessary to confirm [27]. We  
288 measured the time spent on the assignment.

289 **Experimental driving simulator device**

290 For the DS, which has been previously described in de-  
291 tail [20], we used a revised version of the Honda Safety  
292 Navi system (Honda Motor Co, Tokyo, Japan) (right-  
293 handed drive version) (Fig. 2). DS used in this study was  
294 a modified version, which is a DS used for instruction in  
295 efficient, safe driving. Information such as steering and  
296 pedal operation, vehicle body coordinates, and speed, as  
297 well as events such as the scenario type, were stored as  
298 logs at sampling intervals of 10 ms. When using part of  
299 the course of the scenario provided by the main software  
300 for the experiment, it is necessary to keep the log even if  
301 it is forcibly terminated in the middle of the scenario.

F2



**Fig. 2** Experimental layout. The DS used in this study was a modified version of the Honda Safety Navi system, right-hand-drive version (Honda Motor Co., Tokyo, Japan), a DS used for instruction in efficient, safe driving

f2.1  
f2.2  
f2.3

302 Therefore, we used User Datagram Protocol communi- 318  
 303 cation to transmit the coordinates, speed, steering angle, 319  
 304 accelerator pedal, brake pedal depression amount, turn 320  
 305 signal status, and signal state. 321

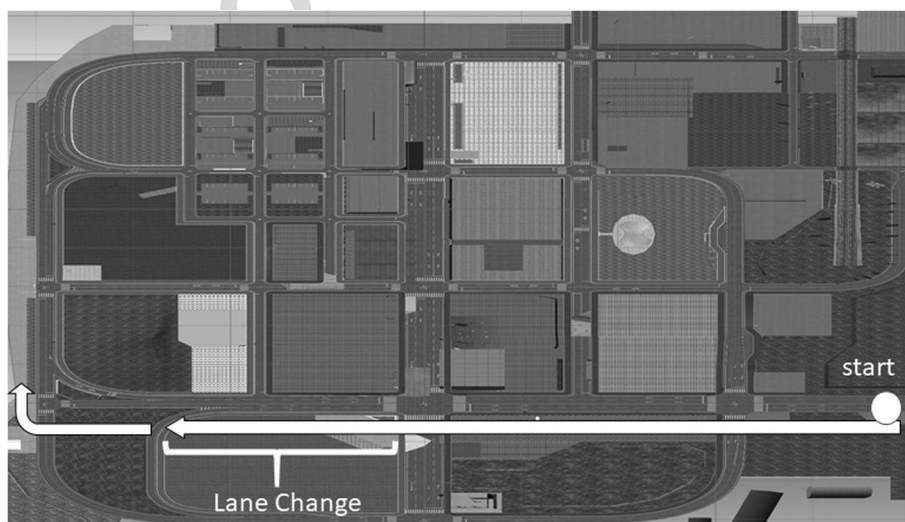
306 **Experimental DS procedure**

307 We tested using the DS after performing neuropsycho- 318  
 308 logical examinations. We used an experimental course 319  
**F3** 309 that simulated an urban area, as shown in Fig. 3. The 320  
 310 course environment was set to be equivalent to a dry 321  
 311 road surface in the daytime, and the friction on the road 322  
 312 surface was set to  $\mu = 0.75$ . In this urban district risk 323  
 313 prediction course, dangerous event scenarios included 324  
 314 oncoming cars and children jumping out in front of the 325  
 315 car. Immediately before the main test, participants com- 326  
 316 pleted a risk prediction practice course. The scenario in 327  
 317 this practice course was different from the scenario used 328  
 329  
 330  
 331  
 332  
 333

318 in the actual experiment. Participants completed a 15- 319  
 320 min practice that included one round of the course. Par- 321  
 322 ticipants subsequently attempted the set course five 323  
 324 times ( $5 \times 2$ -min main tests). Participants were asked to 325  
 326 drive in compliance with the Road Traffic Act, follow 327  
 328 the voice guidance while driving, and keep to the outer 329  
 330 lane while turning at an intersection. 331  
 332  
 333

325 **Data analysis**

326 Between-group analysis of driving ability and neuro- 327  
 328 psychological results. The SDSA was used to screen 329  
 330 drivers for abilities such as a sense of direction and an 331  
 332 awareness of traffic rules. The SDSA scores determined 333  
 whether participants should attempt the driving task. The score was substituted into the prediction formula, and the numerical value was calculated. Two-sample *t* tests were used for between-group comparisons on the



**Fig. 3** Route of driving and snapshot of a driving movie. This scene is the screenshot before changing the lane

f3.1  
f3.2

334 BJLO, CPT (A and B), TMT (A and B), and RCPM  
335 scores.

336 To evaluate the smoothness of lane change, the first  
337 derivative, second derivative, and third derivative of the  
338 position in the lateral movement ( $y$  direction, as shown  
F4 339 in Fig. 4) relative to the position in the driving direction  
340 ( $x$  direction, as shown in Fig. 4) of the RMS was used as  
F5 341 an evaluation index (Fig. 5). Because there was no limit  
342 in the speed of driving direction at the time of lane  
343 change, the number of data samples in the analysis section  
344 in the driving direction differed between partici-  
345 pants. All participants were asked to operate the DS  
346 under the same conditions according to the voice in-  
347 structions. The same start position is set, and the data  
348 are analyzed to calculate the values at each operation.  
349 Therefore, the data samples were aligned at 10 cm inter-  
350 vals in the  $x$  direction, and the position in the  $y$  direction  
351 was calculated using cubic spline interpolation. Assum-  
352 ing that the position data of the  $i$  sample after  
353 interpolation is  $(x(i), y(i))$ , the evaluation index was cal-  
354 culated using  $\text{RMS}\Delta_1$ . However, if  $x(0)$  and  $x(N-1)$   
355 were the  $x$ -coordinate data of the start and end of the  
356 target section, the three samples  $(x(-1), x(-2), x(-$   
357  $3))$  were also used. (1) The  $X, Y$  coordinates were calcu-  
358 lated from the sampled data, and the car body angle and  
359 the steering angle at each point were calculated. (2)  $\Delta_1$ :  
360 RMS of the first derivative of the position in the lateral  
361 direction with respect to the position in the driving direc-  
362 tion, (3)  $\Delta_2$ :RMS of the second derivative of the posi-  
363 tion in the lateral direction with respect to the position  
364 in the driving direction, (4)  $\Delta_3$ : RMS of the third deriva-  
365 tive of the position in the lateral direction with respect  
366 to the position in the driving direction.

The evaluation function RMS of the first derivative of 367  
the position in the lateral direction with respect to the 368  
position in the driving direction is defined as  $\text{RMS}\Delta_1$  (1). 369

$$\text{RMS}\Delta_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \{\Delta_1(i)\}^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta_1(i) = \frac{y(i) - y(i-1)}{x(i) - x(i-1)}, i = -2, -1, 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

In the above equation,  $N$  represents the number of 370  
data samples after interpolation in the target section. 371

The evaluation function RMS of the second derivative 372  
of the position in the lateral direction with respect to the 373  
position in the driving direction was defined as  $\text{RMS}\Delta_2$  374  
(2)

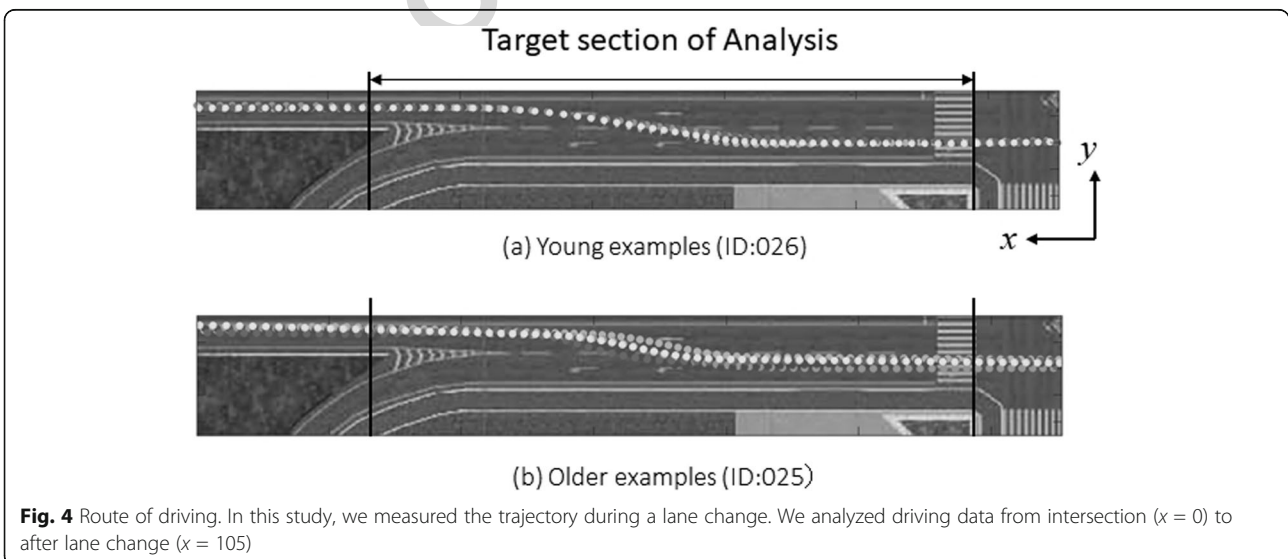
$$\text{RMS}\Delta_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \{\Delta_2(i)\}^2} \quad (2)$$

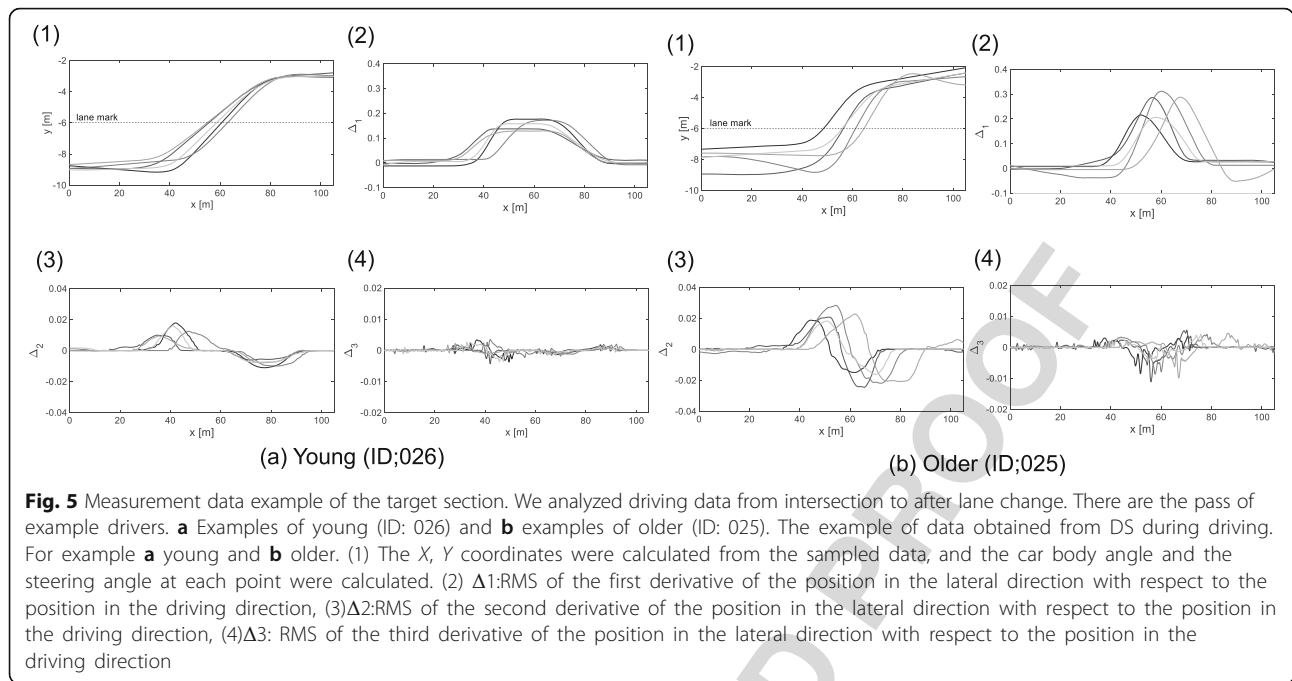
$$\Delta_2(i) = \frac{\Delta_1(i) - \Delta_1(i-1)}{x(i) - x(i-1)}, i = -1, 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

The evaluation function RMS of the third differentia- 375  
tion of the position in the lateral direction with respect 376  
to the position in the driving direction was defined as 377  
 $\text{RMS}\Delta_3$  (3) 378

$$\text{RMS}\Delta_3 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \{\Delta_3(i)\}^2} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta_3(i) = \frac{\Delta_2(i) - \Delta_2(i-1)}{x(i) - x(i-1)}, i = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$





**Fig. 5** Measurement data example of the target section. We analyzed driving data from intersection to after lane change. There are the pass of example drivers. **a** Examples of young (ID: 026) and **b** examples of older (ID: 025). The example of data obtained from DS during driving. For example **a** young and **b** older. (1) The X, Y coordinates were calculated from the sampled data, and the car body angle and the steering angle at each point were calculated. (2)  $\Delta 1$ :RMS of the first derivative of the position in the lateral direction with respect to the position in the driving direction, (3) $\Delta 2$ :RMS of the second derivative of the position in the lateral direction with respect to the position in the driving direction, (4) $\Delta 3$ : RMS of the third derivative of the position in the lateral direction with respect to the position in the driving direction

f5.1 We used Pearson's correlation coefficient to calculate  
 f5.2 the association between BJLO, CPT (A and B), and  
 f5.3 RCPM scores, and RMS $\Delta 1$ , RMS $\Delta 2$ , and RMS $\Delta 3$  when  
 f5.4 changing lanes.  
 f5.5  
 f5.6  
 f5.7  
 f5.8

**Between-groups comparison of driving data**

395 There was no significant between-group difference in  
 396 average driving speed (average speed range: older group:  
 397 16.8 to 49.1 km/h; younger group: 19.5 to 54.3 km/h).  
 398 Concerning between-group differences in the smoothness  
 399 of driving, we found significant differences in RMS  $\Delta 3$  ( $t$   
 400 = 0.56,  $p$  = 0.03) (Fig. 6) and the variance value of RMS  $\Delta$   
 401 3 ( $t$  = 0.24,  $p$  = 0.01) (Fig. 7), whereby the variance value  
 402 of RMS  $\Delta 3$  was lower in the young group compared with  
 403 the older group. There were no significant between-group  
 404 differences in RMS  $\Delta 1$  or RMS  $\Delta 2$  (Fig. 6).  
 405

**Correlation between neuropsychological and driving results**

406 We found a significant negative correlation between the  
 407 RMS $\Delta 3$  score and CPT-B score within both the older  
 408 group ( $r$  = - 0.46,  $p$  < 0.01) and the young group ( $r$  = -  
 409 0.51,  $p$  < 0.01) (Fig. 8).  
 410

F6  
 F7  
 F8

**Results**

**Between-groups comparison of neuropsychological results**

T1 386 Table 1 shows the mean scores for each test item in  
 387 SDSA. Thus, one subject was excluded from the analysis  
 388 subject. Neither group exhibited a pathologic decline as  
 T2 389 measured by the neuropsychological examination. Table 2  
 390 shows the mean test scores of the CPT-A/B, BJLO, TMT-  
 391 A/B, and RCPM tests in older and younger participants.  
 392 The young group performed significantly better than the  
 393 older group on the CPT-B ( $t$  = 2.3,  $p$  < .001) and TMT-B  
 394 ( $t$  = 4.5,  $p$  < .05).

[Q6]1.1 **Table 1** Comparison between SDSA Scores of older and young

|      |                            | Older (n = 32) |        |        | Young(n = 20) |        |       |         |
|------|----------------------------|----------------|--------|--------|---------------|--------|-------|---------|
|      |                            | Mean           | SD     | Range  | Mean          | DS     | Range |         |
| t1.4 | Dot Cancellation Test      | Time(s)        | 544.12 | 175.53 | 288~864       | 434.33 | 73.32 | 173~598 |
| t1.5 |                            | Errors         | 17.9   | 11.32  | 1~39          | 14.9   | 8.2   | 0~10    |
| t1.6 |                            | FALSE          | 0.9    | 1.16   | 0~4           | 0.9    | 1.16  | 0~5     |
| t1.7 | Square                     | Directions     | 25.63  | 4.45   | 16~32         | 29.51  | 2.15  | 24~32   |
| t1.8 | Matrices                   | Compass        | 20.75  | 6.28   | 12~32         | 25.5   | 4.81  | 21~32   |
| t1.9 | Road Sign Recognition Test |                | 8.03   | 3.03   | 2~12          | 9.2    | 2.32  | 7~12    |

t1.10 Comparisons of the distributed value of RMS $\Delta 3$  in lane change. The older group took significantly larger of RMS $\Delta 3$  in lane change



t2.1 **Table 2** Comparison between test scores (mean ± SD) of older  
 t2.2 and young (CPT-A/B, BJLO, TMT-A/B, and RCPM)

| t2.3  | Test   | Older         | Range  | Young        | Range | <i>p</i>        |
|-------|--|---------------|--------|--------------|-------|-----------------|
| t2.4  | CPT-A  | 27.01 ± 3.01  | 25~30  | 28.05 ± 1.91 | 27~30 | n.s             |
| t2.5  | CPT-B  | 20.36 ± 4.92  | 19~27  | 27.30 ± 2.10 | 25~30 | <i>p</i> < .001 |
| t2.6  | BJLO   | 26.82 ± 3.1   | 23~30  | 28.20 ± 1.76 | 26~30 | n.s             |
| t2.7  | TMT-A  | 23.96 ± 10.35 | 20~59  | 21.39 ± 4.98 | 17~30 | n.s             |
| t2.8  | TMT-B  | 57.34 ± 46.73 | 49~120 | 42.90 ± 9.98 | 28~58 | <i>p</i> < .05  |
| t2.9  | RCPM   | 34.67 ± 1.10  | 30~36  | 35.00 ± 1.35 | 33~36 | n.s             |
| t2.10 | Comparisons of the distributed value of RMSΔ3 in lane change. The older      |               |        |              |       |                 |
| t2.11 | group took significantly larger of RMSΔ3 in lane change; mean ± SD           |               |        |              |       |                 |
| t2.12 | n.s not significant, CPT-A/B the Card-Placing Test Part A and Part B, BJLO   |               |        |              |       |                 |
| t2.13 | Benton Judgment of Line Orientation Test, TMT-A/B the Trail Making Test Part |               |        |              |       |                 |
| t2.14 | A and Part B, RCPM Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices                      |               |        |              |       |                 |

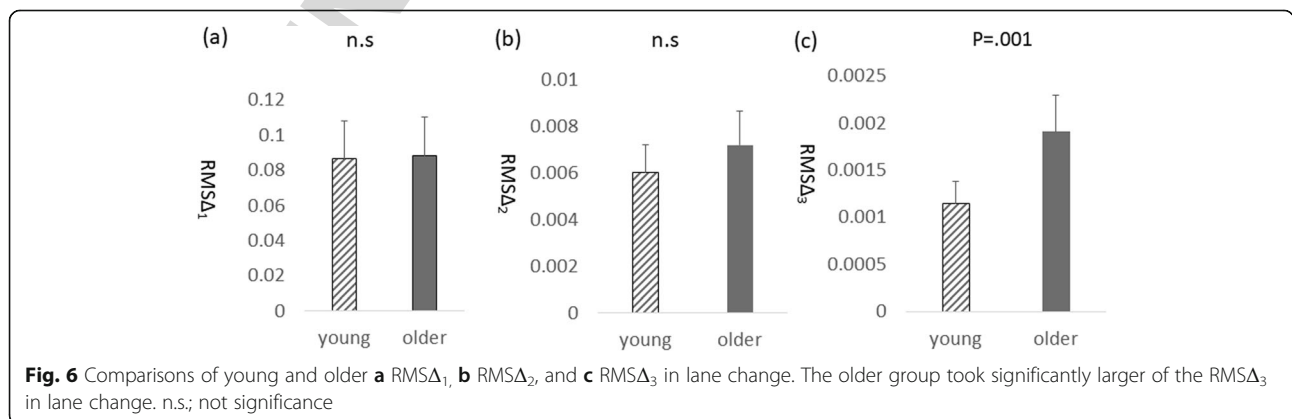
411 **Discussion**

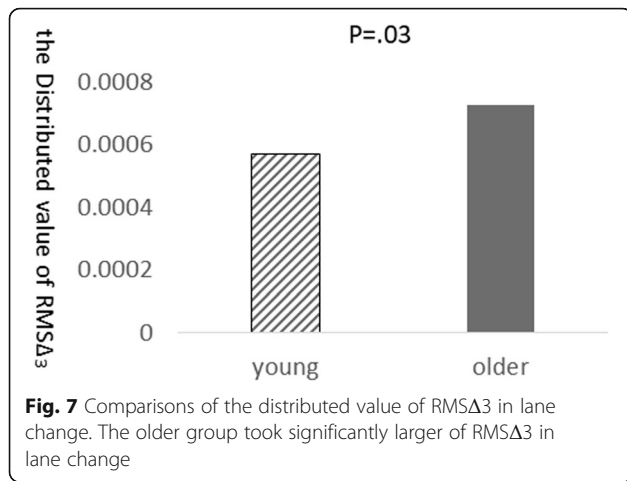
412 In this study, we tested the hypothesis that some drivers  
 413 with reduced spatial navigation ability cannot perform  
 414 lane changes smoothly. The CTP-B score was signifi-  
 415 cantly lower in the older group, which suggests that allo-  
 416 centric spatial perception is more difficult for older  
 417 drivers, by adding processing in the allocentric reference  
 418 frame evaluated by CPT-B to processing in the egocen-  
 419 tric reference frame evaluated by CPT-A. Spatial naviga-  
 420 tion in driving tasks does not depend on a single frame,  
 421 but requires the ability to flexibly switch and combine  
 422 various spatial strategies according to the surrounding  
 423 environment [28]. Our results replicate earlier studies  
 424 that have demonstrated that attention focused on the  
 425 self enhances perspective-taking [29, 30]. Studies target-  
 426 ing head trauma drivers have found that an impaired  
 427 driving performance is accompanied by a declining  
 428 frontal lobe function, self-recognition, and lack of aware-  
 429 ness about their disease, which affects driving aptitude  
 430 [31]. In the present study, the older group was able to  
 431 maintain concentration on visual information input and  
 432 driving force. In the self-centered spatial representation  
 433 evaluated by CPT-A, it is necessary to integrate the pro-  
 434 jection position of the landmark on the retina and the

information on the direction of the eyeball or neck trunk 435  
 [32]. In other words, as processing in the egocentric ref- 436  
 erence frame is added to the process in the allocentric 437  
 reference frame, older individuals must hold more infor- 438  
 mation in working memory. Therefore, older is likely to 439  
 be biased towards automatic information processing by 440  
 the egocentric reference frame process, which suggests 441  
 that it is difficult to smoothly switch between egocentric 442  
 and allocentric reference frames. For healthy older 443  
 people, an increase in self-centered space awareness 444  
 whereby information processed using egocentric space 445  
 perception strategies by the prefrontal cortex function 446  
 would help to overcome this. No participants in the 447  
 older group required more than 180 s to complete the 448  
 TMT-B. However, this is indicative of deterioration of 449  
 attention with age. Since there was no significant differ- 450  
 ence in other tests, we considered all participants to be 451  
 capable of the driving necessary and sufficient for the 452  
 DS task. There was no significant difference in motor 453  
 function that does not need spatial navigation, and par- 454  
 ticipants underwent a DS test. 455

The variance values of RMS Δ 3 and RMS Δ 3 were 456  
 larger in the older group than in the young group. It has 457  
 been reported that the entropy of the steering wheel oper- 458  
 ation when changing lanes at a constant vehicle speed 459  
 is analyzed and the change of the speed in the lateral 460  
 direction can be used as an index of driving skill [33]. 461  
 Furthermore, the first derivative of speed and the second 462  
 derivative of speed when doing clockwise curves at the 463  
 timing of the driver within the statutory speed of the ve- 464  
 hicle are related to the smoothness of driving and the 465  
 level of skill [34]. Therefore, we can propose that the 466  
 value of RMS Δ 3 calculated from the change in the po- 467  
 sition in the lateral direction can be used as an indicator 468  
 of the smoothness of the natural driving operation of the 469  
 driver. 470

In this study, we assume that the operation is 471  
 smoother as the sum of RMS Δ 3 in each run is smaller. 472  
 The older people had a large change in RMS Δ 3 and a 473



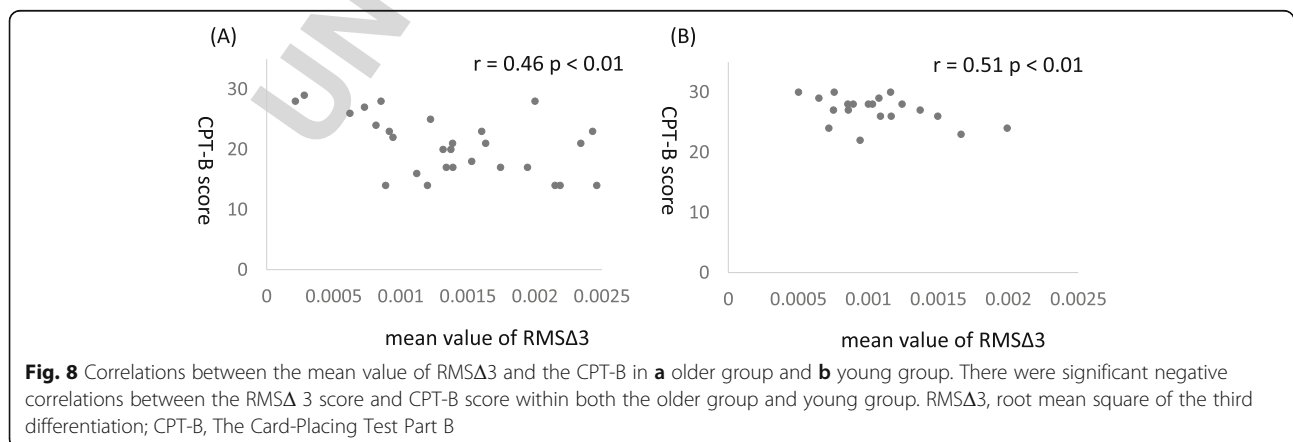


f7.1  
f7.2  
f7.3  
f7.4

group and the variance value of RSM Δ 3 are advantageously larger than those of young; although the cognitive function is within the normal range, it can be compensated consciously or unconsciously to secure safety. By adopting this strategy, the change in the smoothness of the lane change is significant. We propose that older people cannot cope with the speed change of the car body and the spatial navigation ability decrease.

Both the older group and the young group showed a significant negative correlation with RMS Δ 3 and CPT-B scores. In a real-world driving situation, a driver must understand the space, be able to respond to changes in the surrounding environment, drive smoothly during acceleration and deceleration, and be able to perform smooth vehicle trajectory. From a functional point of view, the parietal lobe is involved in spatial navigation ability, as well as in visual-spatial processing [38]. Many studies have consistently reported that the reduction of executive function and attentional functions accompany general aging, and it increasingly longer to processing a sense of direction in the brain [7, 39, 40]. However, a decline in spatial navigation ability has also been associated with the posterior cingulate cortex and the retrosplenial cortex (RSC) [41–43]. In summary, despite the normal visual perception of the surrounding environment during driving in older people, they cannot predict the direction of travel and operate the vehicle properly using the cognitive process with the egocentric reference frame and the allocentric reference frame, so that they are in a state where stable driving conditions cannot be maintained. Atrophy of the prefrontal cortex means that vehicle operation cannot be performed properly, a stable operating condition cannot be maintained, and it is difficult to monitor one’s own vehicle [44]. A decrease in functional nodal betweenness was primarily located in the superior frontal lobe, right occipital lobe, and the global hubs [45]. In the older group, the egocentric frame and allocentric frame viewpoints cannot be

lower ability to smoothly control the vehicle. It has been reported that a driver predicts the future vehicle position based on the current vehicle information and operates while taking the distance from other vehicles into account [35]. When assuming that acquisition density decreases with age, and that older people can accurately memorize the arrangement of a certain object in the room, rotate the positional relationship of the object [36], driving skills are influenced by caution, reaction time, memory, cognitive function, mental state, visual function, disability of body function, and self-monitoring during driving. Among these factors, we think that self-monitoring is important when changing the lane. The driver’s perceptions of the positional relationship between one’s own and other vehicles predict the distance feeling to other vehicles and the position of the own vehicle after lane change [37]. For older people to perform these processes, they must access the working memory of the frontal lobe several times, use the spatial navigation ability to make a situation judgment and to drive, and monitor the trajectory at the time of lane change from an allocentric viewpoint. Therefore, when changing lanes, the evaluation value of RMS Δ 3 of the older



f8.1  
f8.2  
f8.3  
f8.4

switched, and the larger the change in the evaluation value of smoothness of vehicle movement during lane changing, the lower the CPT-B score. Although the results of this work cannot confirm what kind of smooth driving trajectories, simulator validity typically refers to the degree to which behavior in a simulator corresponds to behavior in real-world environments under the same conditions [46]; we presented the possibility of using DS to capture changes in spatial navigation ability and smooth driving trajectories. It is difficult to estimate the allocentric spatial navigation ability, and the possibility that the driving operations cannot be performed smoothly is considered as the allocentric reference frame process declines. In addition, such changes in driving skills are caused by a decline in spatial navigation capability of monitoring the movement of one's own vehicle and appropriately switching while maintaining information processing for more than two types of information, as captured by the CPT-B results.

#### 554 Limitation

555 One of the limitations of this research is that it was not able  
556 to compare with actual car data. This means that we do not  
557 yet know if the smoothness of driving found in the present  
558 DS study applies to that of an actual car. Thus, we aim to  
559 conduct future experiments using actual cars to verify the  
560 present results. By doing so, there is a possibility that this  
561 will allow us to measure smooth driving trajectories with  
562 the actual car and thus overcome this limitation. Assess-  
563 ments of spatial navigation should be conducted using  
564 appropriate evaluation indices. Diversion to community-  
565 dwelling older, the purpose is to be able to participate in so-  
566 ciety safely in each region in a car society. It is expected that  
567 making the elderly driver aware of the spatial navigation  
568 ability from the physiological function test and the educa-  
569 tion and training stages will be a form of preventive safety  
570 to prevent traffic accidents caused by meandering driving.  
571 At the same time, as a function for cognitive and physical  
572 function support, it may be a necessary index for auto-  
573 makers to strengthen the accident prevention function for  
574 the elderly. It is expected that the creation of a common  
575 index for such a variety of occupations will facilitate co-  
576 operation. Furthermore, we want to extend the target to  
577 healthy people and use it as a support measure.

#### 578 Conclusions

579 We used a DS to investigate driving behavior and spatial  
580 navigation between healthy older people and healthy  
581 young people. We found a significant correlation in both  
582 groups between the smoothness of vehicle movement  
583 and spatial navigation, in the smoothness of vehicle  
584 movement between the young and old groups, and a sig-  
585 nificant difference in dispersion value. We can therefore  
586 suggest that driving smoothness is directly influenced by  
587 spatial navigation ability.

#### Abbreviations

BJLO: Benton Judgment of Line Orientation Test; CPT-A/B: The Card-Placing Test Part A and Part B; DS: Driving simulator; TMT-A/B: Trail Making Test Part A and Part B; RCPM: Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices; RMS: Root mean square

#### Acknowledgements

We would like to give a special acknowledgement to Mr. H. Ono and the staff of Prova Group, for the support of the experimental procedure.

#### Authors' contributions

MK, HF, and HM contributed to the design of the experiment. MK, NK, and HF performed the experiments. MK and HF analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript with advice from CI. TI and HM participated in the discussion and preparation of the manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

#### Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

#### Availability of data and materials

The datasets during and/or analyzed during the current study available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

#### Ethics approval and consent to participate

The present study was performed according to the protocol that was approved by the Epidemiological Research Ethics Review Committee of Hiroshima University (approval number E-1003). All the participants of this study gave their written informed consent to participate in this study.

#### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

#### Competing interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

#### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Division of Occupational Therapy, Graduate School of Biomedical & Health Sciences, Hiroshima University, 1-2-3 Minamiku Kasumi, Hiroshima City, Hiroshima Pref 734-8551, Japan. <sup>2</sup>Department of Human Behavior Science of Occupational Therapy, Health Sciences Major, Graduate School of Biomedical & Health Sciences, Hiroshima University, 1-2-3 Minamiku Kasumi, Hiroshima City, Hiroshima Pref 734-8551, Japan. <sup>3</sup>Graduate School of Information Sciences, Hiroshima City University, 3-4-1 Ozukahigashi Asaminami-ku, Hiroshima City, Hiroshima Pref 731-3166, Japan. <sup>4</sup>Department of Physical Therapy, Faculty of Health and Welfare, Prefectural University of Hiroshima, 1-1 Gakuencho, Mihara City, Hiroshima Pref 723-0053, Japan. <sup>5</sup>Department of Rehabilitation/Occupational Therapist, Faculty of Health Sciences, Hiroshima Cosmopolitan University, 3-2-1 Ozukahigashi Asaminami-ku, Hiroshima City, Hiroshima Pref 731-3166, Japan.

Received: 20 November 2019 Accepted: 7 July 2020

#### References

- Lithfous S, Dufour A, Després O. Spatial navigation in normal aging and the prodromal stage of Alzheimer's disease: insights from imaging and behavioral studies. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2013;12(1):201–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.arr.2012.04.007>.
- Boccia M, Nemmi F, Guariglia C. Neuropsychology of environmental navigation in humans: review and meta-analysis of fMRI studies in healthy participants. *Neuropsychol Rev*. 2014;24(2):236–51. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11065-014-9247-8>.
- Weisberg SM, Newcombe NS, Chatterjee A. Everyday taxi drivers: do better navigators have larger hippocampi? *Cortex*. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2018.12.024>.
- Burgess N, Spiers HJ, Paleologou E. Orientational manoeuvres in the dark: dissociating allocentric and egocentric influences on spatial memory. *Cognition*. 2004;94(2):149–66.

- 649 5. Yasen AL, Raber J, Miller JK, Piper BJ. Sex, but not apolipoprotein E  
650 polymorphism, differences in spatial performance in young adults. *Arch Sex*  
651 *Behav.* 2015;44(8):2219–26. (seisa). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-015-0497-1>.
- 652 6. Colombo D, Serino S, Tuena C, Pedrolì E, Dakanalis A, Cipresso P, Riva G.  
653 Egocentric and allocentric spatial reference frames in aging: a systematic  
654 review. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2017;80:605–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2017.07.012>.
- 656 7. Goeke C, Kornpetanee S, Köster M, Fernández-Revelles AB, Gramann K,  
657 König P. Cultural background shapes spatial reference frame proclivity. *Sci*  
658 *Rep.* 2015;5:11426. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep11426>.
- 659 8. Rodgers MK, Sindone JA, Moffat SD. Effects of age on navigation strategy.  
660 *Neurobiol Aging.* 2012;33(1):202–e15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2010.07.021>.
- 662 9. Raz N, Lindenberger U, Rodrigue KM, Kennedy KM, Head D, Williamson A,  
663 et al. Regional brain changes in aging healthy adults: general trends,  
664 individual differences and modifiers. *Cereb Cortex.* 2005;15(11):1676–89.  
665 <https://doi.org/10.1093/cercor/bhi044>.
- 666 10. Moseley M. Diffusion tensor imaging and aging—a review. *NMR Biomed.*  
667 2002;15(7–8):553–60. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nbm.785>.
- 668 11. Raz N, Rodrigue KM, Kennedy KM, Head D, Gunning-Dixon F, Acker JD.  
669 Differential aging of the human striatum: longitudinal evidence. *Am J*  
670 *Neuroradiol.* 2003;24(9):1849–56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiorev.2006.07.001>.
- 671 12. Miniaci MC, De Leonibus E. Missing the egocentric spatial reference: a blank  
672 on the map. *F1000 Res.* 2018;7. <https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.13675.1>.
- 674 13. Richardson ED, Marottoli RA. Visual attention and driving behaviors among  
675 community-living older persons. *J Gerontol Ser A.* 2003;58(9):M832–6.  
676 <https://doi.org/10.1093/gerona/58.9.M832>.
- 677 14. McAvinue LP, Habekost T, Johnson KA, Kyllingsbæk S, Vangkilde S,  
678 Bundesen C, Robertson IH. Sustained attention, attentional selectivity, and  
679 attentional capacity across the lifespan. *Attention Perception Psychophys.*  
680 2012;74(8):1570–82. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13414-012-0352-6>.
- 681 15. Burns PC. Navigation and the mobility of older drivers. *J Gerontol Ser B Psychol*  
682 *Sci Soc Sci.* 1999;54(1):49–55. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/54B.1.S49>.
- 683 16. Lester AW, Moffat SD, Wiener JM, Barnes CA, Wolbers T. The aging  
684 navigational system. *Neuron.* 2017;95(5):1019–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2017.06.037>.
- 686 17. Manser MP, Hancock PA. The influence of perceptual speed regulation on  
687 speed perception, choice, and control: tunnel wall characteristics and  
688 influences. *Accid Anal Prev.* 2007;39(1):69–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2006.06.005>.
- 690 18. Murphey YL, Milton R, Kiliaris L. Driver's style classification using jerk analysis.  
691 In: *Computational Intelligence in Vehicles and Vehicular Systems: CIVVS'09.*  
692 *IEEE Workshop on;* 2009. p. 23–8. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CIVVS.2009.4938719>.
- 694 19. Bagdadi O, Várhelyi A. Development of a method for detecting jerks in  
695 safety critical events. *Accid Anal Prev.* 2013;50:83–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2012.03.032>.
- 697 20. Kunishige M, Fukuda H, Iida T, Kawabata N, Ishizuki C, Mlyaguchi H. Spatial  
698 navigation ability and gaze switching in older drivers: a driving simulator  
699 study. *Hong Kong J Occup Ther.* 2019;32(1):22–31. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1569186118823872>.
- 701 21. Hashimoto R, Nakano I. The card placing test: a new test for evaluating the  
702 function of the retrosplenial and posterior cingulate cortices. *Eur Neurol.*  
703 2014;72(1–2):38–44. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000358511>.
- 704 22. Lincoln, N. B., & Radford, K. A. Nottingham assessment for drivers with  
705 dementia. Revised Manual. University of Nottingham.. 2012; <http://tinyurl.com/oac5762> (accessed 6 Dec 2018).
- 707 23. Benton A, Hannay HJ, Varney NR. Visual perception of line direction in  
708 patients with unilateral brain disease. *Neurology.* 1975;25(10):907.  
709 <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.25.10.907>.
- 710 24. Raven J. The Raven's progressive matrices: change and stability over culture  
711 and time. *Cogn Psychol.* 2000;41(1):1–48. <https://doi.org/10.1006/cogp.1999.0735>.
- 713 25. MacPherson SE, Cox SR, Dickie DA, Karama S, Starr JM, Evans AC, et al.  
714 Processing speed and the relationship between Trail Making Test-B  
715 performance, cortical thinning and white matter microstructure in older  
716 adults. *Cortex.* 2017;95:92–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2017.07.021>.
- 717 26. Su CY, Wuang YP, Lin YH, Su JH. The role of processing speed in post-stroke  
718 cognitive dysfunction. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol.* 2015;30(2):148–60.  
719 <https://doi.org/10.1093/arclin/acu057>.
27. Pomidor, A. Clinician's guide to assessing and counseling older drivers. 720  
2015; <https://www.nhtsa.gov/document/clinicians-guide-assessing-and-counseling-older-drivers> (accessed 7 Dec 2018). 721  
722
28. Harris M, Garland M. Optimizing parallel prefix operations for the Fermi  
723 architecture. In: *GPU Computing Gems Jade Edition;* 2011. p. 29–31.  
724 <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-385963-1.00003-4>. 725
29. Epley N, Morewedge CK, Keysar B. Perspective taking in children and adults:  
726 equivalent egocentrism but differential correction. *J Exp Soc Psychol.* 2004;  
727 40(6):760–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2004.02.002>. 728
30. Surtees AD, Apperly I. A Egocentrism and automatic perspective taking in  
729 children and adults. *Child Dev.* 2012;83(2):452–60. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2011.01730.x>. 730  
731
31. Lundqvist A, Alinder J. Driving after brain injury: self-awareness and coping  
732 at the tactical level of control. *Brain Inj.* 2007;21(11):1109–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699050701651660>. 733  
734
32. Aguirre GK, D'Esposito M. Topographical disorientation: a synthesis and  
735 taxonomy. *Brain.* 1999;122(9):1613–28. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/122.9.1613>. 736
33. Zhang Y, Lin WC, Chin YKS. A pattern-recognition approach for driving skill  
737 characterization. *IEEE Trans Intell Transp Syst.* 2010;11(4):905–16. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TITS.2010.2055239>. 738  
739
34. Chandrasiri NP, Nava K, Ishii A. Driving skill classification in curve driving  
740 scenes using machine learning. *J Modern Transport.* 2016;24(3):196–206.  
741 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40534-016-0098-2>. 742
35. Calhoun VD, Pekar JJ, McGinty VB, Adali T, Watson TD, Pearlson GD.  
743 Different activation dynamics in multiple neural systems during simulated  
744 driving. *Hum Brain Mapp.* 2002;16(3):158–67. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.10032>. 745  
746
36. Herman JF, Coyne AC. Mental manipulation of spatial information in young  
747 and elderly adults. *Dev Psychol.* 1908;16(5):537. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.16.5.537>. 748  
749
37. Anstey KJ, Wood J, Lord S, Walker JG. Cognitive, sensory and physical  
750 factors enabling driving safety in older adults. *Clin Psychol Rev.* 2005;25(1):  
751 45–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2004.07.008>. 752
38. Boccia M, Sulpizio V, Nemmi F, Guariglia C, Galati G. Direct and indirect  
753 parieto-medial temporal pathways for spatial navigation in humans:  
754 evidence from resting-state functional connectivity. *Brain Struct Funct.* 2017;  
755 222(4):1945–57. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00429-016-1318-6>. 756
39. Iachini T, Iavarone A, Senese VP, Ruotolo F, & Ruggiero, G, 2009. Visuospatial  
757 memory in healthy elderly, AD and MCI: a review. *Curr Aging Sci.* 2009;2(1):  
758 43–59. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874609810902010043>. 759
40. Salthouse TA. The processing-speed theory of adult age differences in  
760 cognition. *Psychol Rev.* 1996;103(3):403. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.103.3.403>. 761  
762
41. Byrne P, Becker S, Burgess N. Remembering the past and imagining the  
763 future: a neural model of spatial memory and imagery. *Psychol Rev.* 2007;  
764 114(2):340. <https://doi.org/10.1037/2F0033-295X.114.2.340>. 765
42. Maguire E. The retrosplenial contribution to human navigation: a review of  
766 lesion and neuroimaging findings. *Scand J Psychol.* 2001;42(3):225–38.  
767 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9450.00233>. 768
43. Vann SD, Aggleton JP, Maguire EA. What does the retrosplenial cortex do?  
769 *Nat Rev Neurosci.* 2009;10(11):792. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn2733>. 770
44. Wolbers T, Hegarty M. What determines our navigational abilities? *Trends*  
771 *Cogn Sci.* 2010;14(3):138–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2010.01.001>. 772
45. Turk K, Dugan E. Research brief: a literature review of frontotemporal  
773 dementia and driving. *Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Dement.* 2014;29(5):404–  
774 8. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1533317513518656>. 775
46. Kaptein N, Theeuwes J, Van Der Horst R. Driving simulator validity: Some  
776 considerations. *Transport Res Record.* 1996;1550:30–6. <https://doi.org/10.3141/1550-05>. 777  
778

## Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

779  
780  
781

# Author Query Form

---

**Journal: Journal of Physiological Anthropology**

**Title: Spatial navigation ability is associated with the assessment of smoothness of driving during changing lanes in older drivers**

[Q1]

**Authors: Kunishige Masafumi, Miyaguchi Hideki, Fukuda Hiroshi, Iida Tadayuki, Nami - Kawabata, Ishizuki Chinami**

**Article: 227**

Dear Authors,

During production of your paper, the following queries arose. Please respond to these by annotating your proofs with the necessary changes/additions. If you intend to annotate your proof electronically, please refer to the E-annotation guidelines. We recommend that you provide additional clarification of answers to queries by entering your answers on the query sheet, in addition to the text mark-up.

| Query No. | Query  | Remark |
|-----------|--|--------|
| Q1        | Author names: Please confirm if the author names are presented accurately (given names/initials, family name).<br>Author 1:<br>Given name: Kunishige<br>Family name: Masafumi<br>Author 2:<br>Given name: Miyaguchi<br>Family name: Hideki<br>Author 3:<br>Given name: Fukuda<br>Family name: Hiroshi<br>Author 4:<br>Given name: Iida<br>Family name: Tadayuki<br>Author 5:<br>Given name: Nami<br>Family name: Kawabata<br>Author 6:<br>Given name: Ishizuki<br>Family name: Chinami |        |
| Q2        | Please check if the affiliations are presented correctly.  |        |
| Q3        | Please check if the figure captions are captured and presented correctly.  |        |
| Q4        | Figure 1,4,5,6,7 contain poor quality text. Please provide replacement figure file. Otherwise, please confirm if we can retain the current presentation.   |        |
| Q5        | Please check if the equations are captured and presented correctly.  |        |
| Q6        | Please check if tables are captured and presented correctly.   |        |