

# PUBLIC HEALTH AND THE EYE

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## Vision Impairment and Driving

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**Abstract.** Driving is the primary mode of travel in many countries. It facilitates the performance of routine daily activities and is thus integral with the concept of quality of life. Vision is inarguably a fundamental component of safe driving. Drivers with certain eye conditions reduce their driving exposure and restrict their driving to the safest times, yet there is preliminary evidence that some eye conditions increase the risk of crashes. Visual acuity is only weakly related to crash involvement, whereas peripheral vision appears to play a more critical role. Color vision deficiency by itself is not a threat to safe driving. Based on the current literature, it is unclear whether other types of visual sensory impairment have a significant impact on driving safety and performance. Tests of visual attention and processing speed show great promise as methods of identifying high-risk drivers. There is a serious need for well-designed studies in key practical areas, such as the safety of low-vision drivers who use bioptic telescopes, the impact of monocular vision impairment on safety, and the effectiveness of vision rescreening policies after initial licensure. For ophthalmologists to guide patients about driving fitness, valid and reliable assessment tools must be developed and made widely available. (*Surv Ophthalmol* 43:535–550, 1999. © 1999 by Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.)

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In 1996 there were 41,907 fatalities and 3,511,000 injuries caused by automobile crashes in the USA.<sup>130</sup> Approximately 6 million additional crashes resulted in property damage only. Research has demonstrated that these events are not random. Young and old drivers have higher accident rates than their middle-aged counterparts.<sup>20,24,41,42,176,177,184</sup> Furthermore, the nature of automobile crashes among these high-risk groups differs.<sup>24,60</sup> Alcohol and excessive speed are common causes of crashes among young drivers, yet they do not account for the large number of crashes among older drivers. Among older drivers, research has focused on medical conditions and impairments

as risk factors for crash involvement,<sup>76,129,138,176,177</sup> including the role of vision impairment and eye disease.

The safe operation of an automobile requires the successful integration of human, vehicle, and environmental factors. A great deal of effort has focused on designing vehicles and roadways to reduce the likelihood of an automobile crash and injury during a crash. Attempts have also been made to restrict driving to those persons capable of operating an automobile safely. Laws designed to prohibit driving under the influence of alcohol or other drugs are an example. The restriction of driving privileges to only

those persons who fulfill certain eligibility criteria is another. Some criteria (e.g., written tests) are designed to ensure a minimum level of knowledge. For other provisions (vision tests, for example), the rationale would appear to be an assessment of skills necessary for the safe operation of a motor vehicle. Although it is clear that vision is important for driving,<sup>164</sup> it is not at all clear that the vision tests used by licensing agencies assess the visual skills necessary to drive safely. The equivocal nature of the relationship between certain aspects of vision and driving, as indicated in the literature, supports this idea.

Driving is the primary mode of travel in many countries. It facilitates the performance of routine daily activities, employment, and opportunities for social interaction.<sup>68</sup> Possession of a driver's license in many societies is an important symbol of personal independence. Just as driving is frequently linked to autonomy, driving cessation is linked to social isolation and depression.<sup>118</sup> Thus, the ability to drive contributes strongly to the concept of health-related quality of life.<sup>149</sup> In addressing vision impairment and driving problems, clinicians must take into account the preservation of road safety, as well as the personal hardships of driving cessation in a society where the personal vehicle is the main mode of travel.

In this article we review what is known about how various eye diseases and conditions impact driving habits, performance, and safety. We then focus on the relationship between driving and specific types of vision impairment, regardless of cause, providing separate sections addressing drivers with low vision and commercial drivers. Finally, we discuss public policy issues and methodologic challenges for researchers interested in studying vision impairment and driving. A summary section highlights conclusions and needs.

## Eye Diseases and Conditions

### CATARACT

Cataract is a leading cause of vision impairment in adults over 60 years old.<sup>84,175</sup> Almost half of older adults by age 75 years have early cataract, and approximately one quarter have late cataract.<sup>97</sup> Typically bilateral in older adults, this condition compromises many aspects of vision, including acuity, contrast sensitivity, and visual field sensitivity, and increases disability glare. Although effective treatments for cataract are now available, many adults must cope for an extended period of time with vision impairment induced by cataract until the time when surgical removal of the cataract occurs, usually when functional limitations become serious. The implication is that there are many drivers on the road with cataract.

Older drivers with cataract more often report that they experience difficulty on the road than do those without cataract,<sup>145</sup> and they also report that they avoid challenging driving situations.<sup>10</sup> These challenges include driving at night, during inclement weather, on interstate highways, and in rush-hour traffic, and making left turns. Furthermore, drivers with cataract who report the most difficulty also report that they restrict their driving exposure, reducing the number of days they drive per week and restricting their "driving space" (i.e., the spatial extent of driving in their geographic area).<sup>145</sup> Cataract is also associated with driving cessation.<sup>118</sup> Although the studies reported do not permit inferences about cause and effect, it appears that many older drivers with cataract may self-regulate driving in response to their vision impairment. Cataract surgery with intraocular lens implantation is associated with decreases in driving difficulty as reported by patients.<sup>7,115,126</sup>

A question of interest is whether cataract places older drivers at an elevated risk for involvement in motor vehicle collisions. A recent study examined crash risk in older drivers with cataract, 97% of whom had bilateral cataract with at least one eye having best-corrected visual acuity of 20/40 or worse.<sup>145</sup> The comparison group consisted of older drivers free of cataract and other eye diseases. Older drivers with cataract were 2 ½ times more likely to have been involved in a crash during the previous 5 years, as compared to older drivers who were cataract free. This association was adjusted for driving exposure, age, comorbid medical conditions, other eye diseases, depression, and cognitive impairment. Two other studies failed to find an association between cataract and crash involvement. Foley et al relied on subjects' self-report that cataract was present and, in evaluating the association between cataract and crash involvement, did not adjust for driving exposure.<sup>46</sup> McCloskey et al also did not adjust for driving exposure, considered only injurious crashes, and used a sample derived from a health maintenance organization.<sup>121</sup>

### GLAUCOMA

Glaucoma may soon be the second most common cause of blindness in the world. It has been projected that there will be 6.7 million cases of glaucoma worldwide by the year 2000,<sup>153</sup> and it is among the top four causes of vision impairment in older adults.<sup>84,175</sup> Persons with glaucoma and visual field impairment report more difficulty driving than do nonglaucomatous comparison groups, as assessed by vision-targeted health-related quality of life instruments.<sup>59,113,148</sup> However, no studies have addressed the driving habits of persons with glaucoma, or how

their driving patterns may be influenced by their self-acknowledged driving difficulty.<sup>140</sup>

Studies of crash risk in older drivers have hinted that glaucoma may have a role in crash involvement among the elderly. A study of Washington State older drivers enrolled in a health maintenance organization indicated that those involved in an injurious crash were 50% more likely to have glaucoma than those who were not involved in a crash.<sup>121</sup> However, the confounding roles of other factors (comorbid medical conditions, driving exposure) were not evaluated. A prospective study by Foley et al on crashes regardless of injury in the Iowa Established Populations for Epidemiologic Studies of the Elderly cohort also found an unadjusted elevated crash risk among older drivers with glaucoma.<sup>46</sup> Hu et al, in a panel data analysis of the Iowa Established Populations for Epidemiologic Studies of the Elderly cohort from 1981 to 1993, found that male drivers with a self-reported history of glaucoma were 1.7 times more likely to be involved in a crash, but this association did not hold for women.<sup>67</sup> In a case-control study, Owsley et al evaluated visual risk factors for vehicle crashes that result in injury.<sup>143</sup> They found that older drivers involved in injurious crashes during the previous 5 years were 3.6 times more likely to have glaucoma than those who were crash free. Visual field impairment is a common functional manifestation in glaucoma. Johnson and Keltner reported that severe binocular field loss is associated with a history of crash involvement.<sup>80</sup> In their study, 35% of the drivers reporting that they had glaucoma exhibited a visual field deficit, although they did not report the severity of this deficit and whether it was associated with crash involvement.

It is interesting to point out that the use of topical eye medications in elderly patients with glaucoma increases their risk of another adverse mobility outcome, falling.<sup>55</sup> The possibility that medications to treat glaucoma may independently contribute to motor vehicle collisions has not been investigated, and, given the widespread use of pharmacologic treatments for this condition, it is an issue worthy of investigation.

### DIABETIC RETINOPATHY

Diabetic retinopathy is a highly specific vascular complication of both type 1 and type 2 diabetes that poses a serious threat to vision. In the Wisconsin Epidemiologic Study of Diabetic Retinopathy, 3.6% of younger-onset patients (aged less than 30 years at diagnosis) and 1.6% of older-onset patients (aged 30 years or more at diagnosis) were legally blind.<sup>1</sup> In the younger-onset group, 86% of blindness was attributable to diabetic retinopathy. In the older-onset group, one third of the cases of legal blindness were

attributable to diabetic retinopathy. Overall, diabetic retinopathy is estimated to be the most frequent cause of new cases of blindness among adults aged 20 to 74 years.

Despite its impact on vision, few studies have evaluated the association between diabetic retinopathy and driving. Only one published study has reported an association between this condition and crash involvement. McCloskey et al reported that older drivers with retinopathy had a nonsignificantly reduced risk of injurious crash involvement.<sup>121</sup> However, a number of studies have reported associations between diabetes and crash risk. Waller found that diabetics known to the California Department of Motor Vehicles had almost twice as many traffic crashes per mile driven as a reference group of nondiabetic drivers.<sup>182</sup> Similar studies conducted in Oklahoma and Washington State presented consistent results.<sup>26,29</sup> More recently, Hansotia and Broste reported that drivers with diabetes have slightly increased risks of traffic accidents than unaffected persons.<sup>62</sup> Koepsell et al reported that older drivers involved in injurious traffic crashes were 2.6 times more likely than control subjects to have a diagnosis of diabetes.<sup>100</sup> DeKlerk and Armstrong also reported a higher risk of hospital admissions for road trauma among young diabetic men.<sup>33</sup> Songer et al found no overall association between insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) and traffic crashes<sup>165</sup>; however, women with IDDM were at increased risk. A number of other publications have found no association between diabetes and crash involvement.<sup>37,46,57,169,189</sup> Unfortunately, none of these studies evaluated the role of diabetic eye disease in automobile crash involvement.

### AGE-RELATED MACULAR DEGENERATION

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the leading cause of untreatable vision impairment in older adults. Very few studies have addressed the impact of AMD on driving. It has been found that drivers with AMD report more difficulty driving,<sup>114</sup> more avoidance of challenging driving situations,<sup>10</sup> and less risk-taking behavior<sup>173</sup> than drivers without AMD. Greater scotopic sensitivity impairment in drivers with AMD is associated with more reported difficulty in night driving.<sup>75</sup>

Little is known about whether AMD elevates crash risk. The Washington State study of patients enrolled in a health maintenance organization<sup>121</sup> found no association between AMD and involvement in an injurious crash, but it did not take driving exposure into account. In a study of both simulated and on-road driving performance, drivers with AMD performed worse than age-matched normal subjects in a variety of driving maneuvers and situations.<sup>173</sup> They also had fewer crashes in prior years than did the con-

trols. Given that drivers with AMD appear to restrict or limit their driving, it is possible that this counteracts any elevation in crash risk that may result from their vision impairment, an issue in need of clarification.

#### OTHER RETINAL DEGENERATIONS

There have been few studies on the driving characteristics of persons with retinal degenerations. Fishman et al found that drivers with retinitis pigmentosa (RP) were involved in more crashes in the previous 5 years than disease-free controls, an association that was mediated by a disproportionate number of female RP patients who were involved in crashes.<sup>45</sup> Those who were more visually impaired, either in central or peripheral vision, were not more likely to be crash-involved. The crash data were self-reports by study participants and were not based on state records. Szlyk et al similarly found an association between RP and self-reported crashes, as well as crashes in a driving simulator.<sup>171</sup> They further reported that this elevation in crash risk was related to restrictions in the horizontal extent of the visual field. In contrast, drivers with retinal degenerations primarily affecting central vision (Stargardt disease, cone-rod dystrophy) were not more likely than controls to be crash-involved, as assessed in a simulator, by self-report, and by state records.<sup>172</sup> Given that studies on driving and retinal degenerations are rare, have limited sample size, and cover broad case definitions, conclusions with respect to driving and crash risk in this area are not merited.

#### REFRACTIVE SURGERY

Several studies have indicated that after radial keratotomy (RK) or photorefractive keratectomy (PRK), some patients report increased difficulty with night vision while driving.<sup>6,39,54,86,120,134–136</sup> For example, up to 10% of patients who had PRK with an ablation zone of 4.00 mm in diameter indicated that halo problems interfered with night driving.<sup>134–136</sup> It is believed that these night vision problems most likely result from disturbances in the corneal aberration structure resulting from laser ablation. Martinez et al pointed out that at night and in other low-luminance conditions, when the pupil diameter can increase from 3 to 7 mm in diameter, the preoperative eye has a ninefold increased total aberration, whereas after PRK, there is a 100-fold increase in total aberration.<sup>120</sup> This raises the possibility that the use of large treatment zones in PRK to reduce visual problems such as halos and glare may reduce night driving difficulty, an area for further investigation. Analogously, after RK, under night conditions where the pupil diameter increases to 7 mm, aberrations are significantly increased, especially for smaller clear optical zones.<sup>6</sup> With both RK

and PRK, self-reported night driving problems seem to lessen with the passage of time after surgery.<sup>54</sup>

There are some important issues that must be mentioned with respect to night driving and refractive surgery. First, it is important to point out that patients using other types of refractive correction, such as contact lenses and spectacles, report similar visual problems during night driving; thus, reported night driving difficulty is not a syndrome unique to patients who have had surgical treatment for their refractive error.<sup>14</sup> Second, the visual mechanisms underlying night driving complaints by patients after refractive surgery have not been clearly identified. Ghaith et al recently found that contrast sensitivity and disability glare deficits did not reflect patients' subjective assessments of their vision in everyday life.<sup>54</sup> Finally, it is unknown to what extent subjective night vision difficulty during driving in patients who have undergone refractive surgery is related to reduced driving exposure (e.g., avoidance of night driving) and unsafe driving at night (e.g., crashes).

### Impairment of Visual Function

#### VISUAL ACUITY

Visual acuity is perhaps the most ubiquitous visual screening test used by licensing agencies for the determination of driving fitness. However, in the United States, the requirements are highly variable from state to state.<sup>5</sup> In Florida, drivers must have visual acuity of 20/70 in either eye with or without corrective lenses, whereas drivers in Connecticut must have 20/40 in the better eye, with or without corrective lenses. In some states, drivers who do not meet the vision requirement may be eligible for a restricted driver's license. For example, in Arkansas, drivers must have a minimum uncorrected visual acuity of 20/40 for an unrestricted license; persons with visual acuity of 20/60 will be restricted to daytime driving only. Finally, it should be noted that although these requirements apply for first-time license applicants, 12 states do not have mandatory periodic vision rescreening when drivers are older.<sup>105,163</sup>

The relationship between visual acuity and driving performance has been evaluated by a number of authors. Some of the most influential work was done by Burg<sup>16,17</sup> and reanalyzed by Hills and Burg.<sup>66</sup> The Burg studies analyzed data from 17,500 California drivers. These analyses indicated that for young and middle-aged drivers, there was no relationship between poor visual performance and crash rates. With respect to older drivers, visual acuity demonstrated significant relationships with crash rates. However, the authors noted that, despite statistical significance, the magnitude of the correlation was low, and they cautioned that the relationships found should

not be taken to mean that poor vision is a causal factor in automobile crashes. A number of other studies have also reported positive associations between visual acuity and crash involvement.<sup>9,30,64,66a,69,107,119</sup> However, the magnitude of the associations typically observed in these studies is small. Several other studies of risk factors for automobile crashes among older drivers have also examined the role of visual acuity in crash risk but have reported no significant associations.<sup>32,58,74,79,117,121,142</sup> All in all, there is little support for a strong association between visual acuity and unsafe driving in the driving population in general, a conclusion expressed by several other authors.<sup>21,66</sup> For older drivers, there remains the possibility that an association between visual acuity and crash involvement exists but is, at best, weak. In terms of actual driving performance, simulated acuity impairment (from induced optical blur) has been associated with decrements in road sign recognition and road hazard avoidance, but was unrelated to clearance judgments about safe passage and slalom maneuvers.<sup>65</sup>

Given that visual acuity is the most commonly used visual screening test for licensure, it seems paradoxical that research generally does not support the conclusion that it can reliably identify high-risk drivers. It is not entirely clear why visual acuity was chosen as a screening test for driving. One possibility is that Snellen acuity was a clinically common and simple way of assessing visual function at the time licensing requirements were adopted. The existing variability with respect to acuity requirements for licensing is equally puzzling and may reflect arbitrary decisions as to what level of acuity a driver should possess in order to safely operate an automobile.

There are several possible reasons why studies have generally failed to find strong associations between visual acuity and crash risk. First, traditional visual sensory tests, such as letter acuity, were originally designed for the clinical diagnosis and monitoring of eye disease and do not by themselves reflect the visual complexity of the driving task. Guiding a vehicle along a roadway and through intersections involves the simultaneous use of central and peripheral vision and requires monitoring of primary and secondary tasks, all in the midst of a visually cluttered environment where critical events occur with little or no advance warning. Visual sensory tests do not typically include these stimulus features, and in fact seek to minimize distractions and secondary task demands. Thus, it is not surprising that traditional vision tests, such as acuity, contrast sensitivity, visual field sensitivity, and disability glare, are not strong predictors of crash involvement, a point also made in earlier studies.<sup>9,121</sup>

Second, the visual world of the driver is in motion, and in this sense, stationary test targets in screening

tests are not very representative of the visual scene. Studies that have included both static and dynamic acuity measurements have generally found relatively stronger associations for dynamic than for static acuity.<sup>16,17,66,161</sup> However, the associations between dynamic visual acuity and driver safety are still weak. It has been noted that dynamic acuity deteriorates more rapidly with age and does not necessarily correspond to static acuity; that is, individuals with the same static acuity can have widely divergent dynamic acuity.<sup>162</sup> At the very least, tests of sensitivity for dynamic visual events require a closer look in terms of their association with driving problems.

Third, because of state licensing restrictions, it is possible that drivers with severe visual acuity impairment may not be driving, especially in states that have mandatory rescreening of visual acuity at certain yearly intervals. In this sense, visual acuity restrictions may in fact be successful in increasing public safety. Therefore, it would be impossible in many states to conduct the proper study to evaluate whether and to what extent visual acuity was associated with automobile crash involvement. Research also suggests that individuals with visual acuity and other vision impairments, especially older drivers, may elect to give up driving or simply limit their driving to familiar and low-risk situations.<sup>10,18,52,118,170</sup> All of these factors would mitigate against finding an association between acuity and crash involvement, even if one exists. However, many states (e.g., Alabama) do not require vision rescreening and, therefore, are likely to have drivers with visual acuities that would make them ineligible to drive in other states. Such situations represent opportunities to evaluate the impact of state visual acuity restrictions by providing estimates of crash risk among drivers who would have been screened out in other states. At least one such study found no significant association between visual acuity impairment (worse than 20/40) and crash risk.<sup>141</sup> Thus, had these individuals been removed from the road, the increase in public safety would likely have been negligible.

Finally, it may be that individuals with similar visual acuity may in fact differ with respect to other aspects of visual functioning critical for driving. Thus, vision screening protocols that address several domains of visual function may prove more useful in discriminating high- and low-risk drivers. Decina and Staplin provided some empiric support for this hypothesis.<sup>32</sup> They linked visual examination data from 12,400 drivers in Pennsylvania to drivers' crash histories and found that drivers who did not meet a combined vision screening criterion (including visual fields, acuity, and contrast sensitivity) had higher accident rates. Further, visual perception during driving is dependent not only on visual sensory function

and physiologic optics, but also on central processing skills,<sup>9,121,142</sup> as will be discussed later.

### VISUAL FIELDS

Visual field assessment is another common screening procedure for driver licensing. In the USA approximately half of the individual states have requirements with respect to visual fields, and, as with visual acuity, requirements for visual fields are highly variable. In Arizona the field of vision must be 60°, plus 35° on the opposite side of the nose in at least one eye. The field of vision for Connecticut drivers must be 140° for a person with two eyes and 100° for a person with one eye. As with visual acuity, the rationale for one requirement over another is often not clear. Although some have suggested that an absolute visual field of less than 160° may prevent safe driving,<sup>2</sup> others propose that head and eye movements and use of mirrors can compensate for visual field defects.<sup>133</sup>

Numerous studies have assessed the relationship between visual field and driver safety, the most notable being that of Johnson and Keltner.<sup>80</sup> They reported that crash and violation rates were twice as high among those with binocular field loss than those without any loss. This study is noteworthy in that the rates took annual mileage into account. However, a number of other studies have also taken driving exposure into account and have not reported higher crash rates for those with visual field impairments.<sup>16,17,32,66,141</sup> An important consideration in comparing these results is that the definition of impairment differs among the studies. Johnson and Keltner defined impairment as very significant binocular field loss,<sup>80</sup> whereas most other studies defined it in a less extreme fashion.

Several other studies have also examined the association between visual fields and driving. In a series of articles, Wood et al evaluated the impact of simulated visual field restriction on driving performance on a closed course.<sup>186-188</sup> Taken together, the results of these studies suggest that simulated visual field impairment compromised some (e.g., identification of road signs, avoidance of obstacles, reaction time) but not all (e.g., speed estimation, stopping distance) aspects of driving performance. Lovsund and Hedin also reported that visual field defects impaired the detection of stimuli in the affected area in tests with a driving simulator.<sup>111</sup> The relevance of the findings from these studies to real-world driving is unclear. It is likely that the impact of sudden, simulated visual field restriction is different from that of naturally occurring restriction from eye disease, in which the driver may develop compensatory mechanisms over time. Further, closed-course or simulator driving is likely to be less complex and demanding than actual driving and may not allow observation of

critical driving problems (e.g., crashes). In several studies in which real-world driving performance was assessed, drivers with visual field impairment were not at increased risk of driving problems.<sup>19,25,28,119</sup>

When interpreting the literature on visual fields and driving, it is important to consider measurement procedures. For example, in some studies only the extreme limits of the visual field were determined. Such screening techniques provide little information about the type or severity of visual field impairment (e.g., scotomas, central field defects). Another possible explanation for the differences among study results involves adaptation and compensatory strategies. Drivers with visual field defects may partly overcome them by eye and head movement, restricted driving, or both. In the future, studies should attempt to measure not only the extent of visual field defect but also the extent to which drivers accommodate. Drivers with visual field defects who successfully change their behaviors without a decrease in driving safety provide additional rationale for screening drivers for visual field defects. Such screening could identify impaired drivers and assist them in adopting accommodative strategies.

The visual field is restricted in drivers who are monocular or whose fellow eye is so severely impaired that they could be considered functionally monocular. Wood et al reported that simulated monocular vision did not affect closed-course driving performance.<sup>186,188</sup> The driving performance among drivers with real monocular vision has been assessed in a number of other studies.<sup>38,80,90,96,107,123</sup> In a study of 10,000 drivers, Johnson and Keltner reported that drivers with monocular visual field loss had a crash rate equal to that of a control group of drivers with both eyes.<sup>80</sup> Smaller studies by Edwards and Schachar<sup>38</sup> and McKnight et al<sup>123</sup> reported results consistent with these findings. However, not all studies support the conclusion that monocular vision does not create a safety problem. From an unmarked police car, Liesmaa observed drivers' behavior during overtaking another car or entering a road junction. Drivers who were considered dangerous were stopped, and their vision was assessed.<sup>107</sup> A control group of nondangerous drivers was also stopped. The authors reported that there were three times as many one-eyed drivers among the dangerous drivers than among the control drivers. Keeney reported that monocular vision was more common among a group of drivers with various driving transgressions than among patients in a general ophthalmologic practice.<sup>90</sup> Based on their review of the literature, Keeney and Garvey concluded that monocular drivers should not be licensed to drive commercial vehicles.<sup>91</sup>

In 1985 North reviewed the literature with respect to visual field status and driving performance and

concluded that the literature is inconclusive.<sup>133</sup> He suggested that the inconsistency of findings may be attributed to differences in techniques used to measure visual fields and to the restricted driving habits of drivers with visual field defects, or both. North's conclusions reflect the findings of current research in this area. Most of the studies that have taken driving exposure into account have produced null results. The most prudent conclusion based on the literature may be that, although severe binocular visual field loss elevates crash risk, more subtle visual field impairment by itself is not likely to play a significant role in adverse driving events.

### CONTRAST SENSITIVITY

Contrast sensitivity is not currently used as a licensing requirement in any state in the USA. A few studies have reported associations between contrast sensitivity and driving performance. Wood et al<sup>186</sup> and Wood and Troutbeck<sup>188</sup> simulated reduced contrast sensitivity and assessed subjects' driving performance on a closed road circuit. Overall driving scores were correlated with contrast sensitivity as measured by the Pelli-Robson chart in that better contrast sensitivity was associated with better driving skills. Similarly, Rubin et al reported that older drivers who reported difficulties with day and evening driving had worse contrast sensitivity.<sup>157</sup> Greater impairment in contrast sensitivity has been linked to a higher number of at-fault crashes in the previous 5 years<sup>9</sup> and in the subsequent 3 years,<sup>141</sup> although these associations were not adjusted for confounding factors. Marottoli et al also reported a positive univariate association between adverse driving events among older drivers and impaired contrast sensitivity.<sup>119</sup> Contrast sensitivity, as well as visual acuity, is linked to road sign recognition.<sup>40,99,144</sup> On the other hand, Owsley et al found that impairment of contrast sensitivity in a sample of older Alabama drivers was not related to future crash involvement when the relationship was adjusted for exposure and other independent predictors.<sup>141</sup> Given the scarcity of studies on contrast sensitivity and driving and the importance of image contrast in pattern vision, this is an area deserving of further study.

### USEFUL FIELD OF VIEW

Because driving is a complex visual and cognitive task, it is unlikely that an assessment of visual sensory impairment and the diagnosis of eye disease would alone be sufficient to identify those at elevated risk for crash involvement. Visual information processing skills, not only visual sensory thresholds, have a great deal of face validity to the execution of safe driving practices. One such skill that appears to be relevant is visual attention. Several studies from the

early 1970s implied that impaired visual attention abilities were linked to crash involvement,<sup>12,85,125</sup> but this finding was not further explored until recently.

Ball and colleagues<sup>8,11,159</sup> developed a task called the useful field of view test (Visual Resources, Inc., Chicago, IL) that assesses the visual field area over which one can use rapidly presented information (see also Sanders<sup>158</sup>). Unlike conventional measures of visual field, which assess visual sensory sensitivity, the useful field of view test additionally relies on higher-order processing skills, such as selective and divided attention and rapid visual processing speed. Reduction in the useful field of view in older drivers is associated with a history of at-fault crash involvement<sup>9,139,141</sup> and injurious crash involvement.<sup>143</sup> Those drivers with the most severe restrictions tended to have the highest number of crashes during the previous 5 years.<sup>9</sup> In a prospective follow-up study, Owsley et al found that older drivers with a 40% or greater impairment in the useful field of view were 2.2 times more likely to have a crash during the 3 years of follow-up, after adjusting for age, sex, race, chronic medical conditions, mental status, and driving exposure.<sup>141</sup> This association was primarily mediated by difficulty in dividing attention under brief target durations. It is noteworthy that in this study useful field of view impairment was the only type of visual deficit that was related to future crash involvement; deficits in acuity, contrast sensitivity, and visual field sensitivity were unrelated to future crashes. The useful field of view test has also been used to study crash proneness in the Alzheimer disease population. Studies indicate that in drivers with Alzheimer disease, useful field of view reduction is one of the best predictors of crash involvement in a simulator and poor on-road performance in a driving test, as compared to other cognitive tests.<sup>27,36,70,155</sup> These studies imply that visual attention and visual processing speed are critical considerations in the evaluation of safe driving skills and may be better screening tests than visual sensory tests for crash-prone older drivers.

Impaired performance on other tests of higher-order visual processing abilities have also been related to crash involvement and impaired driving performance, underscoring the importance of assessing visual skills beyond basic sensory capabilities. Studies have reported associations between unsafe driving and deficits in visual search and sequencing abilities,<sup>34,56</sup> selective attention tasks,<sup>36,119</sup> spatial memory,<sup>137,155</sup> and the perception of three-dimensional structure from motion.<sup>155</sup>

### OTHER VISION IMPAIRMENTS

A number of other aspects of visual function have been considered with respect to driving. Color vision is tested at license application in 42 states in the

USA, and the ability to respond properly to color traffic signals is a requirement for a commercial vehicle license.<sup>31</sup> The reason for testing color vision in both personal and commercial licensing is not because color vision deficiency is a major risk factor for crash involvement; rather, color vision screening is simply meant to ensure that drivers can obey color traffic control devices.<sup>63</sup> The critical cues on the road can typically be obtained through multiple sources of information (e.g., luminance, position, pattern), so drivers with color vision anomalies do not experience serious difficulty in traffic signal recognition. Vingrys and Cole's comprehensive review of this literature indicates that the vast majority of studies on color vision and road safety support this conclusion, finding no association between color deficiencies and vehicle crash involvement or impaired driving performance.<sup>179</sup> One exception is a study by Verriest et al, who reported that drivers with color vision defects were more likely to have rear-end collisions.<sup>179</sup> However, because of the overwhelming wealth of evidence to the contrary, it is reasonable to conclude that color vision deficiency by itself does not increase crash risk in personal or commercial drivers.

Disabling glare problems are discussed as a serious threat to the safety of older road users,<sup>185</sup> but one is hard-pressed to identify actual studies that scientifically confirm this notion. This failure to find an association between glare and road safety may be attributed to methodologic difficulties in defining "glare" and in measuring a multifaceted phenomenon, as well as to a poor understanding of what people mean when they say they have "glare" problems. The role of eye movement disorders in driving is largely an unexplored area of research. Previous research on normally sighted drivers indicates that experienced drivers continuously scan the road scene for useful information.<sup>127</sup> Older drivers with restricted ability to turn their heads are limited in the distances at which approaching traffic can be brought into the central visual field for visual inspection.<sup>73</sup> Motion perception and optical flow phenomena, such as "heading," have a great deal of face validity to the driving task, but little research has addressed how impairments in motion processing may affect driving performance and safety. Shinar found that performance in a motion perception task was one of the best correlates of self-reported crash involvement among a large battery of vision tests, but the relationship was still weak.<sup>161</sup> Similarly, he found that acuity under low illumination was related to nighttime crash involvement, but again the link was weak. Leibowitz and colleagues have suggested that drivers' errors and crashes at night may stem from their lack of awareness of perceptual limitations that occur in low light.<sup>103,104</sup> There have been

reports that the crashes of commercial drivers with poor or no stereoacuity are more severe and occur at a higher rate than those of drivers with normal stereoacuity.<sup>69,101,112</sup> Yet the extent to which these findings extend to noncommercial drivers is unclear. The importance of binocular vision disorders to driving is another area in need of clarification.

### Low Vision

Licensing policies for low-vision drivers using bioptic telescopic spectacles (BTS) have received a great deal of attention. Bioptic telescopic spectacles used for driving have telescopes mounted in the superior portion of a regular lens (often referred to as a "carrier lens"), which incorporates the refractive correction as does the telescope. The most common telescope magnifications are between 2X and 4X and provide a field of view between 6° and 16°. As with other vision requirements, there is considerable variability in laws governing the use of BTS by drivers.<sup>5</sup> In the USA, more than half of the states allow drivers to use these devices when operating a motor vehicle; some have a special license category for such drivers. A number of authors have discussed the use of BTS and training programs for drivers who wish to use such devices.<sup>5,13,23,44,71,72,81–83,87,88,92,93,95,101,146,147,150,166–168,174,180,183</sup>

Despite this large body of literature, there have been few controlled studies of crash risk among drivers who use BTS. Four studies, from California,<sup>78</sup> New York,<sup>132</sup> Maine,<sup>34</sup> and Texas,<sup>110</sup> have reported that users of BTS have higher crash rates than control groups. An additional study from Texas found crash rates of visually impaired drivers to be similar to those of drivers with cardiovascular and neurologic impairments.<sup>109</sup> A study of drivers using BTS in Massachusetts reported crash rates lower than those of the general population.<sup>101</sup> Unfortunately, firm conclusions cannot be made on the basis of these studies for several reasons. Many of the studies used the general population of drivers as the control group. It is not clear whether the BTS itself and its "side effects" (e.g., reduced field of view) or severely impaired visual function or both are responsible for the elevated crash rates. Furthermore, it is likely that drivers using BTS restrict their driving (e.g., avoid night driving), and failure by investigators to account for such self-regulation in etiologic studies may lead to invalid results. As the design of low-vision assistive devices and training programs improve and become more popular, it is unclear whether the above studies will apply to future bioptic drivers.

Although most would agree that severely visually impaired individuals (e.g., those having visual acuity worse than 20/200, or less than a 20° visual field in the better eye) should not drive, controversy re-



mains regarding drivers with moderate visual impairment. It has been recommended that the use of BTS for such drivers should be considered on an individual basis and should not be mandatory for obtaining a driver's license.<sup>13</sup> Other recommendations include a mandated use of BTS in conjunction with strict licensing requirements, including annual vision examinations and special training in the use of BTS.<sup>92</sup> Bioptic telescopic spectacle training programs already exist in a number of states.<sup>5,183</sup> Fonda has argued that low-vision drivers can drive safely without BTS and that such individuals should be issued restricted licenses.<sup>47-51</sup> He argues that the use of BTS while driving may, in fact, increase rather than reduce the risk of crash involvement. According to Fonda, restrictions placed on low-vision drivers should be determined by eye care professionals who should consider a driver's vision, previous driving record, and cognitive capabilities. This approach assumes that ophthalmologists can accurately judge what degree of vision is a threat to safe driving. As this literature review indicates, they may not have valid screening tools for making these recommendations.

### Commercial Driving

In many countries, including the USA, licensing requirements for drivers of commercial vehicles differ from those for private vehicles. In fact, requirements for commercial drivers of heavy vehicles in the USA are governed by federal regulations. The federal regulation states that a person is physically qualified to drive a commercial motor vehicle if that person has distant visual acuity of at least 20/40 (Snellen) in each eye without corrective lenses or visual acuity separately corrected to 20/40 (Snellen) or better with corrective lenses, distant binocular acuity of at least 20/40 (Snellen) in both eyes with or without corrective lenses, field of vision of at least 70° (horizontal) in each eye, and the ability to recognize the colors of traffic signals and devices showing standard red, green, and amber. Monocular individuals are also prohibited from operating a commercial vehicle in the United States. These vision requirements are more restrictive than those for private vehicles in most states. It should be noted that there are many other medical conditions (e.g., insulin-requiring diabetes) that also prevent individuals from commercial driving. In the United States, physicians are reminded that when they perform the Department of Transportation (DOT) medical certification examination, their primary responsibility is to the public, not to the patient.<sup>151</sup> The legal issues surrounding failure to properly apply DOT regulatory criteria are beyond the scope of this article. However, the reader is directed to a recent article by

Pommerenke et al for more information on DOT examinations.<sup>151</sup>

The question of whether monocular drivers should be granted commercial licenses is controversial. The term "monocular" is typically used quite broadly in the research literature on this topic and denotes drivers who have a total absence of function in one eye and, also, those who have visual function in one eye below the minimum level for commercial licensing. Keeney and Garvey argued that monocular drivers should not be licensed to drive commercial vehicles, but at the time of their review, little empiric work had been conducted.<sup>91</sup> Since that time, only a few studies have provided data to examine the question. Laberge-Nadeau et al<sup>102</sup> and Dionne et al<sup>35</sup> reported that commercial motor vehicle drivers with binocular vision problems (operationalized as no or poor stereoacuity) had more severe crashes (as measured by the total number of crash-related victims) than did those with normal stereoacuity, but their crash rate was not higher. Maag et al reported that problems with binocular vision (assessed by stereoacuity) were associated with higher crash rates among taxi drivers.<sup>112</sup> A study in California examined the 2-year crash and conviction rates of 16,465 heavy-vehicle operators, including a subgroup of 1,202 drivers who were visually impaired.<sup>156</sup> Visually impaired drivers (those with 20/40 visual acuity or worse in the worse eye) had significantly more total crashes and convictions than did nonimpaired drivers. Driving exposure did not differ in the two groups.

On the other hand, McKnight et al measured the visual and driving performances of 40 monocular and 40 binocular commercial drivers and found no differences with respect to visual search, lane placement, clearance judgment, gap judgment, hazard detection, and information recognition.<sup>123</sup> Monocular drivers were less adept than binocular drivers in sign-reading distance in both daytime and nighttime driving. The authors concluded that monocular drivers have some significant reductions in selected visual capabilities and in certain driving functions compared with binocular drivers. However, differences in the safety for most day-to-day driving functions were not apparent. A problem with this study is that the definitions of monocular versus binocular drivers were not clearly stated. The importance of good vision in both eyes for commercial drivers of heavy trucks may also be called into question by a study of commercial vehicle drivers who received waivers of the federal vision requirements.<sup>43</sup> The severity of the vision impairment and the extent to which it involved both eyes or a single eye was not described in the report. The crash rates of the 2,234 drivers in the waiver program as of 1995, adjusted for self-reported miles traveled, were compared to

the crash rates of heavy trucks provided by the 1994 General Estimates System of the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. The waiver group's crash rate was not higher than the national reference group, nor were their crashes more severe.<sup>43</sup>

### Public Policy

It has long been recognized that visual acuity testing is not a good technique for identifying unsafe, i.e., crash-prone, drivers.<sup>15–17</sup> Possible reasons for visual acuity's lack of association with problem drivers, especially at-risk older drivers, was discussed in the section on visual acuity. If we were to change the policy for vision screening, what should it be changed to? The answer is not readily available, because adequate studies relevant to this issue have not been performed. The proper design for such studies is elusive. First, it is difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of current visual acuity requirements, because if an applicant fails the acuity test, then he or she is (presumably) removed from the road, and there is no further information about his or her driving outcomes (e.g., crashes, violations). Because the criteria for failing visual acuity tests vary among states, crash and violation rates from state to state could be examined according to their visual acuity requirements. However, such studies have a number of serious challenges, such as valid adjustments for climate, road quality, geography, and demographics, and interpretation limitations with respect to individuals. Another approach is to evaluate the association between different visual abilities, including acuity, and prior crash involvement, with the goal of comparing the magnitudes of associations among the various vision tests and crashing. This is a popular study design. A problem is that visual acuity impairment is correlated with other types of vision impairment (e.g., contrast sensitivity, stereoacuity) and, thus, because of the visual acuity criterion for licensing, those at highest risk for crash involvement may already be removed from the road. States in which drivers are not rescreened for visual acuity after their initial license application may provide the most appropriate settings for the comparison of various vision tests as screening tools. These studies should have prospective, population-based designs.

Even if a valid screening tool or battery were developed, the practical issue of implementation would be complex. Changing policy would be expensive, as it would require retraining of personnel and reinstrumentation at every licensing site, as well as a public education campaign. The political process to support and implement a change in policy could take years, and it would need to take place in each state separately.

Research indicates that periodic vision rescreening of drivers may have benefit in terms of saving lives,<sup>105,131,163</sup> although there are still many unanswered questions in this regard. What visual abilities should be rescreened for? Are there measures of visual function that have a stronger relationship to driver safety than does the weakly related visual acuity test? What is the optimal time interval for rescreening? At what age should rescreening requirements be applied? What level of impairment at the previous test should trigger a subsequent rescreening? There are personal freedom issues interwoven into considerations of rescreening. For example, is it fair to target older adults for rescreening simply on the basis of age?

The profession of ophthalmology has had a strong commitment to promoting driver safety, as evidenced by professional policy statements and editorial essays published on this topic over the years.<sup>3,4,15,28,89,94,98,106,160</sup> One issue subject to intense debate is the physician's responsibility with regard to reporting drivers—noncommercial as well as commercial—with serious vision impairments to the licensing authorities. Some states have mandatory reporting laws, whereas others have mechanisms for reporting but do not require reporting. Failure to appropriately perform the DOT examination for commercial drivers can result in physician liability.<sup>151</sup> There is evidence that some physicians do not clearly understand the reporting laws or recommendations in the jurisdiction in which they practice.<sup>152</sup> There have been cases in which a physician has been held legally responsible for a crash incurred by his or her patient because there was evidence that the physician knew about a functional impairment that rendered driving unsafe and did not report it to the authorities. How does this relate to the concept of physician-patient confidentiality, and is the confidential trust violated if the physician reports the patient's medical condition and functional impairment to the licensing authorities without the patient's awareness and consent? This is a growing and complex area of case law.<sup>22,53,154</sup> With respect to examinations that require pupillary dilation, some have raised concerns about whether driving home after dilation is safe, and guidelines are needed in this area.<sup>182</sup>

A related issue is whether an ophthalmologist, with the clinical and diagnostic tools presently available, has the appropriate means to make sound recommendations to patients about the appropriateness of their driving. As our literature survey has indicated, visual acuity is at best weakly related to crash involvement, and what type and severity of visual field impairment makes driving dangerous is arguable. There is a serious need for research to develop a battery of tests with proved sensitivity and

specificity for identifying high-risk drivers, so that ophthalmologists can provide guidance to their patients, and also to medical advisory boards working with licensing offices.<sup>61</sup> Physicians can refer visually impaired drivers to driver reeducation programs that are designed to reinforce safe driving practices and caution on the road, especially for older drivers. Although these programs effectively enhance knowledge about how to be a safe driver, they as yet have no proved safety benefit.<sup>77,124</sup>

## Research Challenges

### TAKING DRIVING EXPOSURE INTO ACCOUNT

It has long been recognized by the insurance industry that driving exposure—how much, where, and under what circumstances someone drives—is linked to crash risk. Drivers with vision impairments and eye conditions often reduce their time on the road and avoid night driving and other challenging driving situations, and this composes an important element in the evaluation of whether vision impairment elevates crash risk. However, many studies have failed to adjust for driving exposure when evaluating the role of vision impairment in driving, and this calls into question the validity of conclusions. Driving exposure information can be obtained in an interview, and valid and reliable methods of asking about when and where one drives have been developed.<sup>128,145</sup> For example, a recent study by the Federal Highway Administration found that self-reported travel distance validly reflected actual travel distance as measured by a global positioning satellite system.<sup>128</sup>

### CLASSIFYING AND DEFINING OUTCOMES

Previous research has used an array of sources to identify poor driving, including crashes, violations, performance in on-road tests, performance in driving simulators, and self-reported driving habits, including driving cessation. It has never been established that risk factors for one type of “adverse” driving outcome automatically apply to other adverse outcomes, thus making comparison across studies difficult. Studies focusing on crashes as the outcome of interest have relied on a variety of crash definitions and sources, including state records, self-reports, and injurious, fatal, and at-fault crashes. Particular caution should be used when relying on self-reported crashes as the outcome of interest. This is because concordance between self-reported crashes and actual state records is only moderate, and risk factor analyses for self-reported crashes do not provide results equivalent to those of analyses relying on state records.<sup>116,122</sup>

Driving performance studies using simulators typically quantitate a variety of driving maneuvers and

component behaviors, such as reaction time and lane deviation. The issue of simulator validity is central; to what extent does poor driving performance in the simulator reflect poor on-road performance? Simulator studies must grapple with this issue if results are intended to be generalizable to actual driving.

Measuring actual on-road performance has grown in popularity. Several studies have used observers who apply rating scales to specific components of the subject’s driving. The issue of interrater reliability and examiner bias if the examiner is aware of the subject’s vision impairment are obvious concerns. These issues taken together require that researchers carefully consider the strengths and limitations of their outcome measures, and be cautious about generalizing results.

### EFFECT OF AGE

Vision impairment is more prevalent in older adults,<sup>84,175</sup> and given that crash rates increase with age,<sup>129</sup> it is possible that observed associations between visual function and driving performance are confounded by age.

### DEFINITION AND EFFECTS OF OCULAR DISEASE

Interpreting and comparing results across studies are complicated by inconsistencies in the ways in which ocular disease is measured. At least one study has demonstrated poor agreement between clinical and self-reported eye disease diagnoses.<sup>108</sup> However, the lack of perfect agreement between physician diagnosis and self-report is not a fatal flaw. For it to impact a study’s results, subjects who invalidly report the presence or absence of an eye condition or who are misdiagnosed must also have an increased or decreased risk of crash involvement. Nevertheless, given that any degree of misclassification will impact measures of association, the use of valid definitions of eye disease is critical in studies on the role of eye disease in driver safety.

Researchers often categorize measures of visual function (often called setting “cutpoints”) in an attempt to define impaired versus nonimpaired drivers. These categorizations are often dissimilar across studies, hindering comparisons of study results. Even more problematic is that the categories appear to be arbitrarily chosen or are dictated by conventions from the literature and/or clinic, which also seem to have no stated rationale. Researchers should provide firm reasons for defining impairment levels. Furthermore, they should consider multiple categories to allow for issues of dose-response patterns (e.g., the greater the impairment, the greater the risk of crash involvement) to be evaluated. When categories are not used, visual function data are often analyzed in their raw form; these distributions

are rarely normal. However, in many studies on vision impairment and driving, statistical analysis techniques for normally distributed data (e.g., analysis of variance) are frequently applied to the data. This is particularly problematic when automobile crash rates or counts that are also not normally distributed are compared. Finally, few studies have attempted to identify the independent association between vision impairment and driving performance. Many factors may confound or modify such associations and should be accounted for when conducting analyses. In addition, when several types of visual function are analyzed within the same study, issues of collinearity need to be carefully considered.

Future research must move beyond small-scale studies presenting results for a limited number of vision or ocular measures. Such studies only provide restricted conclusions with respect to vision and driving because they fail to fully characterize eye health and visual function. Therefore, for example, a study demonstrating a positive association between glaucoma and crash involvement is incomplete unless one can determine the role of visual function, particularly visual fields, as well as other factors (e.g., glaucoma medications). This additional information would aid physicians in assessing glaucoma patients with respect to driving competence by means of measures other than diagnosis of the disease itself. It should be noted that such studies require the appropriate application of multivariable data analysis techniques as well as a large sample size to increase the precision of the study results.

#### **DEVELOPMENT OF TESTS TO IDENTIFY UNSAFE DRIVERS**

There is growing consensus among the public, government officials, physicians, and researchers that the vision tests and instruments used at driver licensing sites do not effectively identify unsafe drivers, and there is also a great deal of consensus that ophthalmologists and other physicians do not have the appropriate tools to identify problem drivers in the clinical setting. These issues have been discussed widely and frequently in the print and broadcast media, indicating their public urgency. Not only does research have the challenge of developing tests of high sensitivity and specificity for identifying unsafe drivers, but these tests must also be cost-effective and acceptable to the public.

#### **Summary**

Vision is inarguably a fundamental component of safe motor vehicle operation. Certain eye conditions and diseases, such as cataract and glaucoma, may elevate crash risk, although the literature in this area is

sparse and, thus, conclusions are preliminary. Although demonstrating that certain eye diseases increase crash risk is noteworthy, the ultimate question is what visual functional impairments stemming from these conditions engender driving problems. Several studies have converged on the finding that drivers with eye conditions and diseases tend to reduce their driving exposure and modify their driving habits. To what extent this reduced exposure and changed driving pattern “protects” them from crash involvement remains to be determined.

There is remarkable agreement among studies that visual acuity is only weakly associated with crash involvement and unsafe driving performance. There are undoubtedly a number of reasons for this weak link. Current practices of visual acuity screening at driver licensing sites should not be viewed as an effective means of identifying those with vision impairments that elevate crash risk. There is stronger evidence of the critical role of peripheral vision for safe driving, although previous studies have used assorted definitions of visual field impairment, making straightforward conclusions difficult. Color vision deficiency by itself is not a threat to good driving performance. Other aspects of visual sensory impairment have high face validity to the driving task (contrast sensitivity, motion perception, eye movements, binocular vision disorders) but have not been sufficiently examined to permit firm conclusions about their roles. Visual attention skills and visual processing speed as assessed by the useful field of view paradigm show great promise as ways to identify high-risk older drivers.

A chronic problem in much of the literature on this topic is the failure to take driving exposure into account when associations between vision impairment, eye disease, and crash risk are evaluated. The failure to do so may mask associations and/or lead to erroneous conclusions. Studies focused on a history of crash involvement as the outcome measure are instructive in the early stages of investigation. Ultimately, though, prospective designs must be implemented in order to understand causes. Three areas in serious need of well-designed studies are the safety of low-vision drivers using bioptic telescopes, the impact of monocular vision impairment or blindness on driver safety, and the effectiveness of vision rescreening after initial licensure.

The role of the ophthalmologist in driver safety has been widely discussed over the years, but it needs to be clarified. Most importantly, if ophthalmologists are expected to provide guidance about driving fitness to visually impaired patients, families, and licensing agencies, they will require valid and reliable assessment tools on which to base recommendations.

### Method of Literature Search

Literature for this review was based on a MEDLINE search using the terms *vision*, *ocular*, *vision impairment*, *driving*, *accident*, and *crash*, for the period 1966 to the present. Additionally, references contained within those articles and not listed in MEDLINE were gathered. Articles and reports from the authors' reprint collections were also included. Published abstracts that were not accompanied by full-length articles were not included.

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