Journal of Safety Research xxx (xxxx) xxx

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Safety Research

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jsr



Validation of the driver ecological glare test

Julien Adrian^{a,*}, David Hue^b, Sophie Porte^b, Johan Le Brun^a

^a Streetlab, Institut de la Vision, Paris, France

8 ^b Valeo Lighting Systems, Bobigny, France

ARTICLE INFO

 13
 Article history:

14 Received 21 February 2019

15 Received in revised form 8 July 2019

16 Accepted 11 December 2019

17 Available online xxxx

18 Keywords:

19 Glare

20 Driving Glare test Driving

21 Disability glare

Halo size measurement

ABSTRACT

Introduction: The present study proposes to validate the Driver Ecological Glare Test (DEGT), a test developed to measure the benefit of a headlight glare Advanced Driver Assistance System (ADAS), by comparing it to a laboratory glare test. *Method*: Twenty-four participants, aged from 55 to 70 years, were recruited to complete a visual examination, including monocular halo size measurement for both eyes using Vision Monitor device (MonCv3; Metrovision). An on-field evaluation took place at night at the UTAC CERAM test track to obtain disability glare measures using the DEGT. *Results*: A significant correlation was found between the two glare tests and Bland-Altman analysis reveals a good agreement with a bias of 73.7 arcmin between the halo size measurements obtained from the DEGT and Vision Monitor. The results of the present study demonstrate that the DEGT is a valid method to test halo size and is adapted to evaluate the benefits of an antiglare device for drivers in an ecological situation.

© 2019 National Safety Council and Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

38

4 5

7

19

39 1. Introduction

Driving at night is particularly challenging because of glare pro-40 duced by headlamps of oncoming vehicles. Headlamp glare pro-41 duces discomfort leading many older drivers to limit, or 42 completely stop, driving at night. It can also lead to difficulties per-43 44 forming certain visual tasks related to driving, such as detecting 45 pedestrians (Wood et al., 2012), detecting objects or hazards on the road and following the traffic lane (Akashi & Rea, 2001; 46 Ranney, Masalonis, & Simmons, 1996; Theeuwes, Alferdinck, & 47 Perel, 2002). Glare from oncoming headlights has also been associ-48 ated with night time traffic accidents (Bullough, Skinner, Pysar, 49 Radetsky, Smith, & Rea, 2008; Plainis, Murray, & Charman, 2005) 50 51 (Figs. 1. 2. 3).

According to the CIE, glare is a condition of vision in which there 52 is discomfort or a reduction in the ability to see details or objects. 53 54 caused by an unsuitable distribution or range of luminance, or by extreme contrasts. Glare can be categorized into Discomfort Glare 55 and Disability Glare. Discomfort glare is defined as 'glare that 56 causes discomfort without necessarily impairing the vision of 57 58 objects.' Discomfort glare causes annoyance, fatigue, or pain with-59 out necessarily affecting visibility and can lead to distraction 60 (Bullough, Fu, & Van Derlofske, 2002; Mainster & Timberlake, 61 2003). Disability Glare is defined as 'glare that impairs the vision 62 of objects without necessarily causing discomfort.' Disability Glare is caused by the diffusion of bright light inside the eye (Miller & Benedek, 1973; van den Berg et al. (René) van Rijn, L. J., Kaper-Bongers, R., Vonhoff, D. J. J., Völker-Dieben, H. J. J., Grabner, G., Gamer, D., 2009) creating a more or less important veil, or disk halo around the glare source, that reduces retinal contrast across the visual field. This loss of contrast is greater in dark (scotopic, mesopic) rather than bright (photopic) environments because rod photoreceptors, that allow night vision, require greater differences in contrast for target detection than cones, that allow day vision (about 20% vs 1%, respectively) (Wördenweber, Wallaschek, Boyce, & Hoffman, 2007). The handicap resulting from glare gets larger as the intensity of the light increases and the fixation point of the driver gets closer to the source of glare (Bullough, Skinner, Pysar, Radetsky, Smith, & Rea, 2008; Vos, 2003). This can result in the driver being unable to see obstacles or hazards on the road. Disability glare can be assessed by measuring the size, in visual angle, of the glare halo produced by a glare source (Puell, Pérez-Carrasco, Barrio, Antona, & Palomo-Alvarez, 2013).

The glare while driving problem has led to a large amount of work and development to provide countermeasures or Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) to reduce glare. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of these systems there are only a few tools and the most commonly used of them, the de Boer scale (De Boer, 1967), only deals with discomfort glare. Conversely the evaluation of disability glare while driving seems more complex to evaluate and to our knowledge no test allows an objective evaluation of the visual deficit (halo size measure) caused by these situations. There are methodologies, often complex in their

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

25

26

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsr.2019.12.007

0022-4375/ \odot 2019 National Safety Council and Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Please cite this article as: J. Adrian, D. Hue, S. Porte et al., Validation of the driver ecological glare test, Journal of Safety Research, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jsr.2019.12.007

^{*} Corresponding author at: Streetlab, 17 rue Moreau, 75012 Paris, France. *E-mail address:* julien.adrian@streetlab-vision.com (J. Adrian).



104 105

106



Fig. 1. Vision Monitor. Mon CV3; Metrovision glare test.

implementation, to evaluate pedestrian detection time while driv-91 ing (Clark, 2004; Whetsel Borzendowski, Stafford Sewall, Rosopa, & 92 93 Tyrrell, 2015). However, these methods do not provide a perfect 94 measure of driver vision, since this measure of glare can be 95 strongly influenced by other driver characteristics, such as individual differences in reaction time, visual adaptations, or tactical com-96 97 pensations (lateral positioning or driving speed). Thus, individual 98 driver characteristics that are not directly relevant for glare mea-99 surement will constitute a measurement error. This weakness 100 means that the measures obtained are likely to be heterogeneous 101 and, therefore, less sensitive. While those methods are, to a large 102 extent, ecological they are nevertheless not fully adapted to ADAS 103 validation.

The objective of this study is to validate a new method for evaluating Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) dedicated to headlight glare reduction.

Our field test, the Driver Ecological Glare test, was developed to 107 calculate a halo size measurement. To develop our test, we started 108 from the most ecological driving glare situation and we also based 109 ourselves on the classic glare sensitivity tests performed in clinical 110 examinations such as the Nyktotest (Rodenstock GmbH, Ottobrun, 111 Germany), and the Mesotest (Oculus GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). To 112 113 validate our test we needed a reference test, which is the Vision Monitor device from Metrovision (Palomo-Álvarez & Puell, 2015; 114 115 Puell, Pérez-Carrasco, Barrio, Antona, & Palomo-Alvarez, 2013; 116 Puell, Pérez-Carrasco, Palomo-Alvarez, Antona, & Barrio, 2014).



Fig. 3. Mean halo radius for the Vision Monitor and driver ecological glare test. Vertical lines indicate the 95% Cl.

However, in order to evaluate the real effectiveness of an anti-
glare device, we wanted to adapt our test so that it would be more117
118
118
119
119
120
120
121
121
121
121
122
122wer in a glare situation. Furthermore, the DEGT must allow the
evaluation of the benefit of a device to be tested without observing
a floor or ceiling effect.117

The methodology consists of comparing the results obtained by the participants during the DEGT with those obtained during the laboratory-based glare test using the Métrovision tool.

123

124

125

126

127

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

Twenty four participants, 7 women and 17 men, aged from 55 128 to 70 years (mean 64.12, SD 5.10) were recruited in the community 129 and gave informed consent to participate in this study. They were 130 glare sensitive, in good general health, fluent in French and were 131 licensed drivers. Participants with an abnormal visual deficit or 132 cognitive deficit were excluded. Participants received compensa-133 tion for participating. To capture the demographic a questionnaire 134 was filled out during the recruitment period. 135



Fig. 2. Diagram showing how the visual angle produced by the radius of the halo is determined.

Please cite this article as: J. Adrian, D. Hue, S. Porte et al., Validation of the driver ecological glare test, Journal of Safety Research, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jsr.2019.12.007

ARTICLE IN PRESS

3

J. Adrian et al./Journal of Safety Research xxx (xxxx) xxx

136 *2.2. Testing procedure*

137 All participants first passed an ophthalmologic assessment in a 138 visual examination room. Participants were clinically evaluated 139 for their visual acuity, contrast sensitivity, visual field, and stereoscopy. Cognitive screening was also realized and all participants 140 141 scored high on the Mini Mental State Exam (MMSE) and above the cut off score of 27 indicating intact normal cognitive functioning. 142 The Vision Monitor (MonCv3; Metrovision, Pérenchies, France) 143 measures the size of halos. Glare is produced by two white circular 144 light sources (LEDs) on each side of the device, each emitting a 145 luminance of 200,000 Cd/m^2 . The visual angle of each source from 146 the center of the monitor, at a distance of 2.5 m, is 3.8 degrees. At 147 this distance, the illumination of the eye produced by the glare 148

149 source is 7 lux. Each eve is tested individually with the glare source 150 on the same side as the eve being tested. The optotypes that the 151 subject must read under glare conditions consists of letters having 152 a size of 15 arcmin at a distance of 2.5 m corresponding to a deci-153 mal visual acuity of 0.33 (+0.5 logMAR). These optotypes are arranged in three radial lines of letters appearing from the periph-154 155 ery towards the glare source. Each line contains 10 letters spaced 156 by a 33 arcmin interval. Two different letter combinations are used. The optotypes are presented on a dark background with 157 one of three luminance levels: 1, 5 and 100 cd/m^2 . In this study, 158 the test was performed using a letter luminance level of 5 cd/m^2 . 159 160 This level is at the upper end of the mesopic range, the luminance 161 ratio (Lmax-Lmin)/Lmin for this level being 40.7.

Halo size was measured for optotypes in the central lines of letters appearing from the periphery toward the glare source. Since
the test was passed in a monocular condition, as is the case for
the glare tests in the ophthalmic evaluation, we chose to keep only
the value of the best eye since it is this one which will determine
the threshold in binocular vision.

The on-field evaluation took place at the UTAC CERAM test track, in France, during night time hours from 9 pm to midnight between mid-February and mid-March. The choice for using a test track was the reproducibility of the data and the possibility to perform the visual test without any traffic or external light. The results presented in this paper are part of a larger study in which we conducted circuit tests.

175 2.3. The driving ecological glare test

The DEGT measures the size of the glare halo produced by the
headlamps of an opposing car at night time. It is inspired from
the glare test developed by Metrovision on the MonPackOne Vision
Monitor device.

The test must be performed in an environment without any light pollution. The participant is seated in a stationary car in the driver's seat. A static opposing car positioned at 50 m distance produces an illumination of 7.8 Lux on the subject (measured at the head position of the participant).

A chart of 10 optotypes, arranged in a horizontal line, is placed near the opposing car at the same height as the headlamps. Optotypes are E of Raskin arranged on a chart with four different orientations. All optotypes are the same size and each bar of the E of Raskin measures 42.5 mm, corresponding to a visual acuity of about +0.5 logMAR.

The first optotype of the chart is placed at 60 arcmin (1 degree)
from the headlamp of the opposing car. The optotypes are spaced
equally from each other by 30 arcmin (0.5 degrees).

Optotypes all have the same light color and the background is
dark. The chart is illuminated by the low beam headlamps of the
subject's car. The mean luminance of the optotypes is 1.57 Cd/m²
and the mean luminance of the background is 0.37 Cd/m².
For each trial, a new series of optotypes are presented.

The participant has to read, with both eyes open, the most opto-199types possible starting from the greatest eccentricity. Before every200trial, the participant is adapted for 5 minutes to mesopic condi-201tions. The variable measured in the DEGT concerns the size of202the halos (in arcminutes) produced by the glare.203

2.4. Statistical procedures

Statistical tests were performed using XLSTAT and MedCalc statistical software.

Significance for all statistical tests was set at a P value of less than 0.05. The correlation and the amount of variance shared by the Vision Monitor (Metrovision) and the DEGT measures was assessed using simple linear regression. According to Cohen's criteria (1992) we considered effect size correlations between 0.1 and 0.3 as "small," those between 0.3 and 0.5 as "medium," and those over 0.5 as "large." Shapiro-Wilk was used to test the normality of residuals.

Bland–Altman analysis was used to measure the agreement between the two glare tests with 95% limits of agreement (mean difference ± 1.96 standard deviation). As the Bland-Altman limits of agreement requires that the differences are normally distributed we have conducted a Shapiro-Wilk test to assess normality. Student's t test was also used to establish the significance of the differences observed.

3. Results

The mean halo radius was 126.25 ± 60.63 arcmin (range: 60.0 to 270.0 arcmin) for the Vision Monitor device. The mean halo radius was 200.00 ± 57.10 arcmin for the DEGT.

Linear regression analysis performed on the DEGT as a function of the Vision Monitor measures for the best eye are presented in Fig. 4.

The results of the simple linear regression indicated that the DEGT score was significantly correlated with the laboratorybased test (r = 0.697; p < .001). According to Cohen's classification, the correlation observed is of a "large" size. The result of the



Fig. 4. Correlation between the Vision Monitor and the Driver Ecological Glare test. Concentric circles were used for multiple points in the same coordinate. Each circle represents a coordinate.

219 220 221

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

222

223 224

225 226

227 228 229

230 231 232

Please cite this article as: J. Adrian, D. Hue, S. Porte et al., Validation of the driver ecological glare test, Journal of Safety Research, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jsr.2019.12.007

4

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

J. Adrian et al./Journal of Safety Research xxx (xxxx) xxx

regression indicated that the two glare tests share 48,6 % of the variance ($R^2 = 0.486$, F(1, 21) = 19.883, p < .001).

The residual plot (Fig. 5.) show a fairly random pattern indicating that the linear model provides a decent fit to the data and that no residuals are out of the range [-2, 2]. The Shapiro-Wilk test show that the residuals were normally distributed (W = 0.954, p = .323).

The level of agreement was further assessed through Bland-Altman plots. the Shapiro-Wilk test indicated that the differences were statistically normally distributed (p > .05). In Fig. 6 Bland– Altman plots are represented by means of the difference between the two methods [DEGT – Vision Monitor] against the mean [(DEGT + Vision Monitor)/2]. The graphic analysis shows that the bias was constant. All the subject data is within the limit of agreement. Thus, the DEGT shows comparable results.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare glare scores in Metrovision and our glare test. There was a significant difference in the scores for Metrovision (M = 126.25, SD = 60.63) and our glare test (M = 200.00, SD = 57.104); t(46) = -4.338,



Fig. 5. Scatter plot of the standardized residuals vs. vision monitor scores. Concentric circles were used for multiple points in the same coordinate. Each circle represents a coordinate.



Fig. 6. Bland-Altman plot of the relation between the DEGT and the Vision Monitor

p < .001). Glare values obtained with DEGT are higher than those 252 obtained with Vision Monitor with a MD of 73.7 arcmin. 253

4. Discussion

The results of the present study demonstrate that DEGT is a 255 valid method to test halo size. The correlation observed between 256 the DEGT and the Vision Monitor is at a "high" level according to 257 the Cohen effect sizes classification. The simple linear regression 258 shows that the two tests shared 48,6% of variance. Furthermore, 259 Bland-Altman analysis shows good agreement with a bias of 73 260 arcminutes. This bias could be related to the contrast settings of 261 the optotypes which were designed so as not to have a ceiling 262 effect while testing an anti-glare system. To achieve this, the opto-263 types have been specified at a lower contrast than the ones in the 264 Vision Monitor. This meant the DEGT was therefore efficient in dis-265 tinguishing the different settings of an anti-glare device/system, 266 with different levels of light transmission, without incurring ceil-267 ing or floor effects. 268

The results of this validity study show not only that the DEGT is a valid measure of disability glare but they also show the relevance of using a more ecologically specific measure of glare for this type of study. In fact, glare in the laboratory is evaluated one eye at a time while the DEGT is done in ecological conditions with both eyes open at the same time. In addition, the DEGT uses real headlamps to produce the glare source. As a result, this test takes into account the specificities of car headlights which differ according to the light spectrum, the shape of the beam, the spatial extent, etc.

This point is an advantage, in comparison with the clinical tests, knowing that these different characteristics also have an effect on the level of discomfort. Moreover, due to the use of headlights, the illumination of the optotypes on the canvas is not uniform and the contrast of the optotypes is different from that used in Metrovision. Thus, even though there is a good correlation and agreement between the two types of test, we find that this correlation is not perfect, and we observe that only half of the variance for our test is explained by the laboratory test. This indicates that our field test has a real interest since it allows a more efficient measurement of real driving glare as compared to the laboratory tests.

Climatic conditions can have an effect on the visibility of optotypes. This means glare tests realized outdoors are subject to a certain level of variability due in particular to meteorological conditions that can alter to some degree the measurement (lightly foggy weather, rainy weather, clear or cloudy skies). It is therefore necessary, when doing the test, to have identical conditions for each participant. Indoor testing could be possible to control for those effects. It is also important to state that the illumination of the optotypes, produced by the headlights of the participants' car, is not totally homogeneous. However, on the other hand, this potential variability does not hinder the evaluation of a system or device since such studies are performed with a repeated measures protocol, where the two compared scores come from the same participant and are therefore collected under the same environmental conditions.

Furthermore, DEGT is easier to implement than field tests based on reaction time, since it only requires a covered space without light pollution. In addition this test, used to evaluate an antiglare device, provides objective data on the size of the halo produced by the glare, and the subsequent benefit of ADAS that are directly understandable and interpretable.

One of the limitations is that driving is essentially a dynamic activity and that DEGT takes place under static conditions. Indeed, while driving, the driver may be forced to perceive, to analyze and to make a decision in a very short period of time. However, the participants on the DEGT can, to a certain extent, take their time to

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

Please cite this article as: J. Adrian, D. Hue, S. Porte et al., Validation of the driver ecological glare test, Journal of Safety Research, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jsr.2019.12.007

ARTICLE IN PRESS

No. of Pages 5, Model 5G

378 379 380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

5

answer. It might be interesting to adapt this test to introduce a
time constraint in the reading of otptotypes. Another limitation
of the study is that optotypes are not ecological in the driving context. Their form is relatively different from what the driver encounters in their visual environment. However, they have the advantage

320 of allowing a standardization of the test.

321 5. Conclusions

The Driver Ecological Glare Test provides a reliable and accurate measure of the halo size produced by headlamps in a driving configuration. Furthermore, it allows the evaluation of the benefits of an antiglare device for drivers in an ecological situation.

326 6. Declarations of interest

327 This research was supported by Valeo

328 Uncited references

329 Reagan and Brumbelow (2017).

330 References

- Akashi, Y., & Rea, M. (2001). The effect of oncoming headlight glare on peripheral detection under a mesopic light level. Darmstadt, Germany: Herbert Utz Verlag GmbH.
- Bullough, J. D., Fu, Z., & Van Derlofske, J. (2002). Discomfort and disability glare from halogen and HID headlamp systems. In: SAE (Ed.), SAE, World Congress 2002, Detroit, MI.
- Bullough, J., Skinner, N., Pysar, R., Radetsky, L., Smith, A., & Rea, M. (2008). Nighttime
 glare and driving performance: Research findings. Washington, DC.
- Clark, J. (2004). Nighttime Driving Evaluation of the Effects of Disability and Discomfort Glare from Various Headlamps under Low and High Light Adaptation Levels. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- De Boer, J. B. (1967). Visual perception in road traffic and the field of vision of the motorist (Public Lig). Eindhoven, Netherlands: Philips Technical Library.
 Mainster, M. A., & Timberlake, G. T. (2003). Why HID headlights bother older
- Widnister, W. A., & Hinderlake, G. I. (2003). Why HID neadingnts bother older
 drivers. British Journal of Ophthalmology, 87, 113–117.
 Miller, D. & Benedek, C. (1973). Intraccular light scattering: Theory and clinical
- Miller, D., & Benedek, G. (1973). Intraocular light scattering: Theory and clinical application (pp. 82–87). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.
 Balomo Élyaraz, G. & Buell, M. C. (2015). Canacity of stravilisht and disk blo size to
- Palomo-Álvarez, C., & Puell, M. C. (2015). Capacity of straylight and disk halo size to diagnose cataract. *Journal of Cataract & Refractive Surgery*, 41(10), 2069–2074. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JCRS.2015.10.047.

- Plainis, S., Murray, I. J., & Charman, W. N. (2005). The role of retinal adaptation in night driving. *Optometry and Vision Science*, 82(8), 682–688.
- Puell, M. C., Pérez-Carrasco, M. J., Barrio, A., Antona, B., & Palomo-Alvarez, C. (2013). Normal values for the size of a halo produced by a glare source. *Journal of Refractive Surgery*, 29(9), 618–622. https://doi.org/10.3928/1081597X-20130819-03.
- Puell, M. C., Pérez-Carrasco, M. J., Palomo-Alvarez, C., Antona, B., & Barrio, A. (2014). Relationship between halo size and forward light scatter. *The British Journal of Ophthalmology*, 98(10), 1389–1392. https://doi.org/10.1136/bjophthalmol-2014-304872.
- Ranney, T., Masalonis, A., & Simmons, L. (1996). Immediate and long-term effects of glare from following vehicles on target detection in driving simulator. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, 1550, 16–22. https://doi.org/10.3141/1550-03.
- Reagan, I. J., & Brumbelow, M. L. (2017). Drivers' detection of roadside targets when driving vehicles with three headlight systems during high beam activation. Accident Analysis & Prevention, 99, 44–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/J. AAP.2016.09.021.
- Theeuwes, J., Alferdinck, J. W. A. M., & Perel, M. (2002). Relation between glare and driving performance. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 44(1), 95–107. https://doi.org/10.1518/0018720024494775.
- van den Berg, T. J., van Rijn, L. R., Kaper-Bongers, R., Vonhoff, D. J., Völker-Dieben, H. J., Grabner, G., et al. (2009). Disability glare in the aging eye assessment and impact on driving. *Journal of Optometry*, 2(3), 112–118. https://doi.org/10.3921/joptom.2009.112.
- Vos, J. J. (2003). On the cause of disability glare and its dependence on glare angle, age and ocular pigmentation Retrieved from. *Clinical and Experimental Optometry*, 86(6), 363–370 http://clearlyvisiblepresentations.homestead.com/ On_the_cause_of_disability_glare.pdf.
- Whetsel Borzendowski, S. A., Stafford Sewall, A. A., Rosopa, P. J., & Tyrrell, R. A. (2015). Drivers' judgments of the effect of headlight glare on their ability to see pedestrians at night. *Journal of Safety Research*, 53, 31–37. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jsr.2015.03.001.
- Wördenweber, B., Wallaschek, J., Boyce, P., & Hoffman, D. (2007). Automotive lighting and human vision. Automotive Lighting and Human Vision. https://doi. org/10.1007/978-3-540-36697-3.

Julien Adrian, PhD, is an experimental psychologist and ergonomic at Streetlab, Institut de la Vision in Paris, France. His research interests focus on how vision and high-level cognitive functions impact performance and behavioral adaptation while driving.

Johan Le Brun is an optronics engineer at Streetlab, Institut de la Vision in Paris, France.

Sophie Porte is a product marketing manager at Valeo Visibility System.

David Hue, was an innovation project manager at Valeo and is currently working at Fareco.