PUBLIC INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS
ON RESTRAINT SYSTEM USAGE:
AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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This annotated bibliography on restraint system public information campaigns provides fifty-four citations grouped into three sections: U.S. studies, Canadian studies, and studies from other countries.

While it is impossible to draw any conclusions from this bibliography, a few positive trends may be noted. The greatest of these may be the realization of the need to evaluate public education campaigns. The need for campaigns, because of their expense, is still debated; however, it is generally agreed that well-designed and executed programs do influence people's attitudes.
INTRODUCTION

The order of this bibliography has been established in what is, hopefully, the most useful form. Initially, the literature has been divided into three sections: U.S. studies, Canadian studies, and studies from other countries. Within each section, the literature is divided into three additional parts. The first is general literature about campaigns (that is, not pertaining to a particular program). The second contains literature regarding specific campaigns which have been evaluated. The final part contains citations on specific campaigns which have not been evaluated. Within each part items are in chronological order.

In some cases, annotations have been taken directly from the authors' abstracts, occasionally revised or with additional comments. Generally, however, the comments and opinions are those of the compiler of this bibliography. No effort has been made to assess the quality of the campaign design or evaluation. Those items judged to have been more substantive in discussing campaign elements or evaluation techniques often have longer annotations than do those shorter or less substantive works.

OBSERVATIONS

In the literature on restraint system public information campaigns, several consistent points are made. It is often suggested that the greatest benefit of campaigns is not the increase in seat belt usage, but the change in attitudes about their usefulness. In Ontario, in particular, campaigns leading up to the seat belt usage law certainly facilitated the introduction and acceptance of that law.
In most cases, campaign evaluations are performed over a short period of time at the conclusion of the campaign, with no concern given to long term effects. When long term effects are studied, however, we see a decline in the gains initially made by them. Therefore, a need to study the long term effectiveness of public information programs is mentioned frequently as a necessary element in campaign evaluation planning.

Finally, it is generally agreed that a campaign should not be developed without including plans for its evaluation. All too often a campaign is run without consideration for whether it is reaching the correct target group or is even conveying the right information. Baseline, midpoint, and post-campaign surveys will provide the best assessment of success.

The literature also reveals disagreements. The question of whether the expense of public information programs is justified, noting the limited effectiveness in modifying behavior, is often discussed. The use of "fear" as an appeal continues to be debated, and examples of both success and failure can be seen. And, of course, there are a wide variety of opinions regarding which media to use for different audiences.

While it is impossible to draw any conclusions from an annotated bibliography, a few positive trends are obvious. The greatest of these may be the realization of the need to evaluate public education campaigns. So while the need for campaigns may be debated, most seem to agree on the value of well-designed and executed programs in influencing people's attitudes.

Early article on seat belt usage which mentions the need for public information programs to increase belt usage.


This manual describes how to plan and conduct a seat belt use campaign. Examples of radio spots, print advertisements, and various suggested slogans are given.


This document describes the history of safety belt development and of early public information campaign efforts. The need for continuing promotional effort is stressed.


In the papers contained in this proceedings the importance of public information campaigns is often mentioned, particularly as a factor in increasing public acceptance of usage laws.

This report uses examples of various reports on effectiveness of public information campaigns in looking at usage increases. No new statistics are introduced relating to public information programs, nor are conclusions offered regarding their effectiveness.


Reviewed in brief are several past efforts at increasing seat belt usage by means of public education campaigns. Differences among the various techniques used are mentioned.


The author suggests the implementation of an intensive multi-media public education campaign in one or two target cities. He concludes that such previous efforts along these lines have been inconclusive, perhaps because of the short duration, limited media use, or the fact that there are now more comfortable restraint designs. Better usage data could enable the design of a campaign directed at specific demographics and attitudes of the target city. He also suggests enlisting the aid of television and motion pictures in portraying the use of safety belts.


The article suggests the need for long-range, sustained media efforts that will lead to a real change in the way people drive and in their sense of responsibility. It also suggests that companies issue policy statements to reinforce people's attitudes, and support public service commercials reflecting those statements.

Pamphlets using two different themes were distributed to staff at 5 IBM offices in the Chicago area. The first approach involved the identification of seat belts with race car drivers; the second approach relied on anxiety and fear. Employees were also offered a discount on purchase of seat belts. Results showed the race driver approach most effective, the scare approach least effective.


A seat belt campaign using all media was designed to increase the percentage of seat-belt users among automobile drivers. The campaign was based on three surveys--attitudinal and behavioral surveys of adult populations and a small-scale interview survey of elementary school children who reported parental seat belt usage habits. Scant evidence in support of an increase in seat-belt usage was found, yet the data clearly show that the mass media messages were comprehended by a large segment of the adult population.


A broadcast media campaign was developed in the spring of 1971. Materials, selected in part on the basis of reviews by expert and lay panels, were distributed to selected radio and TV stations for subsequent broadcast as public service announcements. Observations of seat belt usage were made in two California communities prior to the campaign, during the campaign, and immediately after the campaign. Community attitudes towards safety belts were determined through telephone interviews. On the basis of over 22,000 vehicle observations and 2,000 telephone interviews, it was concluded that the PSA's had little significant effect on safety belt usage or related attitudes.

This article examines the cable television campaign developed by the Insurance Institute for Highway Safety. It concludes that nine months of hard-hitting television commercials (one of which won an advertising award for excellence) made not a bit of difference to the use of seat belts afterwards by the viewers exposed to this bombardment of propaganda.


Elementary school children were exposed to a program whose purpose was to acquaint them with the need to wear seat belts. The program appeared to produce a significant increase in the use of seat belts among 6 to 11 year old children. There was a strong relationship for all groups between the use of seat belts and the display of bumper stickers, although it is not known whether children who wore seat belts were more likely to request that their parents display the stickers on the cars, or whether the decision to display them actually served to reinforce compliance with the program. It is important to note that the level of self-reported seat belt use was considerably higher than observed usage. It is possible that much of the discrepancy between observed and self-reported increases represents an increase in intention to wear belts rather than an undetected change in actual behavior. Also the levels of observed seat belt use obtained during the 8-week measurement period may not reflect long-term effects.


Television messages, based on a preliminary study, were developed and shown on cable television for 9 consecutive months. Seat belt usage of drivers in control and experimental groups was observed before and during the campaign. Results showed that the apparent failure of the campaign does not mean that it is impossible to create a successful campaign, but that such success has yet to be proven.
Pediatric automotive restraints, pediatricians, and the Academy.

Two groups of pediatricians were exposed to promotional material encouraging them to teach parents about child restraint system usage. One group was mailed a pamphlet; the other group received a brief oral presentation by a pharmaceutical representative. Survey response data showed that 61% of the mail group and 49% of the interview group claimed that their teaching on this subject increased since original contact.


There has been little critical evaluation of which methods achieve desired results in health education. Using purchase of infant auto restraint devices as an objective, we assessed the effectiveness of three educational approaches. Only 37% of control families had purchased an acceptable car seat, compared to 54% of those who received literature and had been shown a descriptive film, and 60% of those who were given literature, shown the film, and been provided with a demonstration of the seat. Purchase of car seats was positively correlated with social class and knowledge of auto safety, but not with a history of auto accidents. Utilization of auto restraint devices is an example of how social learning theory can be applied in health education.


In April, 1977, a campaign designed to increase public understanding and awareness of the value of safety belts and to provide more positive attitudes toward safety belt usage was initiated in Grand Rapids, Michigan. Pre-, mid-, and post-campaign telephone surveys were conducted in both Grand Rapids and the control city, Milwaukee. Results indicate that the advertising has continued to create more favorable attitudes toward safety belts and belt usage.

Several techniques used in public information campaigns--among them fear and realism--are discussed. Various campaigns, including one on seat belt usage, are used as examples.


This report deals with the development of radio/TV materials for a seat belt usage campaign. The first step was a review of previously issued spots on the subject prior to developing new materials. Evaluation of the materials--including pretesting by lay and expert panels--is described. Based on these findings, spots were selected for release in 2 experimental communities. Results of that campaign are not given.


The National Safety Council billed this campaign as a "totally emotional appeal" to get people to fasten their safety belts. Research showed that while past campaigns may have communicated the importance of seat belts, they did nothing to increase actual use. Research also indicated that driver motivation was the key element. The campaign, therefore, was designed to appeal to the strongest positive emotion--love. No indication of potential campaign evaluation is mentioned, nor are any results given.

The purpose of Project Childsafe was to encourage parents to use proper child restraints and to warn consumers that not all restraints are crash-tested and safe. The program consisted of a 10-minute slide/sound series with accompanying posters and brochures. The program will be made available largely to women's groups and will be shown in hospitals to expectant mothers.


Various measures to improve vehicle occupant protection are currently being proposed, including mandatory safety belt use laws and passive restraint standards. This paper suggests an alternative approach, utilizing an educational program in high school driver education classes. Increased usage rates by driver education students and improved cost-benefit values for driver education courses are suggested as potential outcomes. Objectives and a content outline for a model safety belt program are defined, as are characteristics of "target" audiences. The paper concludes that it is possible for a properly-designed and implemented safety belt instructional program to result in cost-effective increases in safety belt usage. A theory on why the campaign conducted by the Insurance Institute for Highway Safety may have failed to have had an impact is also presented.

This document includes a brief review of several seat belt campaigns, drawing the conclusion that such campaigns may change attitudes, but have not been shown to change behavior substantially. The need for campaigns to encourage acceptance of belt use laws is also mentioned.


This paper discussed techniques used in various public information campaigns covering a wide range of topics involving driver behavior.


Several campaigns are described in this major report. One of them is that of the Alberta Safety Council in 1969 on seat belt usage. The campaign involved radio, TV, and print media. Data were collected on before, during, and after wear-rates by means of interviews. The campaign failed to have a demonstrable effect.

Two separate surveys of restraint system usage were taken, the second after a public education campaign. Survey results show that the effect of the promotional campaign on seat belt usage was relatively slight, and most definitely shortlived. The results do not appear to warrant a campaign of this type when costs/benefits are considered. The results from the type of campaign forming part of this study should not be interpreted to justify the elimination of publicity on seat belt usage. Any general safety campaign should include reference to benefits of seat belt usage. It appears that the best media for this type of advertising, if continued, are billboards, highway signs, and radio, where the person is exposed to the message while in the vehicle.

In seeking a more effective public information approach, a prototype seat belt educational program for school children was developed and its effect on seat belt use was tested. The prototype program consisted of a lengthy, varied session in which the children actively participated. Immediately after the program, parent's seat belt use was observed in two different locations. Parents of treated children used their belts at substantially higher rates than other parents. The true time course of the effect can be only very roughly estimated from the present study, which shows the effect to be no longer detectable six months after treatment.


Soon after the announcement of Ontario's intention to mandate seat belt usage, it was decided to introduce an extensive public information program to try to convince the public to buckle up voluntarily. This education program commenced in March 1975 and continued through the summer and fall. A wide range of media were used. In order to determine the effectiveness of that approach, roadside surveys of belt use and telephone surveys to measure knowledge of and attitudes toward belt use were carried out. While some changes in knowledge and attitudes from March to October 1975 were shown, belt use remained virtually unchanged at 17%.

The Ontario seat belt information program in 1975 was intended to develop a basis of correct information about seat belts within the general public and to change attitudes and behavior toward seat belts. Early evaluation of the program's impact showed that, while the program's penetration was measurable, it had not yet achieved measurable progress towards most of its goals after half a year's operation. Clearly more time is needed if such a program is to markedly influence the popular wisdom on seat belts. Attitudes toward seat belt legislation seemed to shift rapidly during the program, but it is not clear that the shift was caused by the program. The later effects of the program are obscured by the introduction of belt use legislation.


One year before mandatory seat belt usage went into effect, only about eight percent of Ontario drivers were of the opinion that a seat belt law would save no lives. Thus, it may be argued that mass education informing the public of the effectiveness of seat belts in preventing injury does not contain information the public does not already have and is not directed at the pre-eminent decision-making processes of individual drivers. It would seem desirable to design mass education programs aimed at cognitive and attitudinal components that are, in fact, crucial in drivers' decision making. It is recommended that seat belt observation and attitude studies be conducted at regular intervals. This information is necessary as a data base for the design of public education, as well as for the factual evaluation of their effects.


To advise citizens of the new safety belt use law, an intensive educational campaign in the news media was developed. While the news media gave dissenters ample opportunity to air their views, they backed the law 100 per cent. Newspapers published educational material on the value of belts; they ran editorials; they published reports, with photographs, of serious accidents in which people were saved from severe injury by seat belts. Support from the media certainly aided in public acceptance of the new legislation.

The author details the public information program which pre-dated introduction of the Ontario seat belt usage law. The major aim of the program were to increase public understanding of the value of seat belts, to produce positive seat belt attitudes, and to increase seat belt use. All forms of media were used and 2 films were produced for showing to organizations throughout Ontario. Local action programs were encouraged. For use in public schools, a teaching package consisting of a film and other audio-visual aids, plus a series of children's television spots was developed. While the actual increase in belt use was not shown, the author feels that the campaign did facilitate acceptance of the law.


Educational television, radio, and newspaper materials were exposed on a nationwide basis in a dual wave campaign in December, 1975 and April 1976. Results indicate that the campaign successfully transmitted its messages and also induced some positive attitudinal effects. Television was most effective; radio least effective.
Evaluation of safety campaigns in terms of behavioural change.

This report describes the process called effect measurement which is used to determine the extent to which campaign objectives have been achieved. The measurements, in themselves, do not allow the claim that the campaign has brought about a change in the use of seat belts. The measurements are, however, supplemented by attitude measurements on a representative sample of road users. The report concludes that if one can observe parallel changes at attitude and behavioral levels, then a change in behavior is more likely to be due to the campaigns.


Although for several years road safety campaigns have been conducted with the object of reducing the number of accidents, little attention has been given as to whether these campaigns really achieved that purpose. We now know that each road safety campaign should be accompanied by a measure of its efficiency. This report has determined the conditions to be met in order to carry out such a study. A safety belt campaign was chosen as an example. The object was to build a sociological model in the form of hypotheses permitting the analysis of the efficiency of a campaign and, if this model should prove correct, to forecast its efficiency with simple methods.


This group of papers includes 6 discussing seat belt campaigns. Authors are G. Wilde (on effectiveness of various safety campaigns), J. Nijstad (on an inexpensive way of costing and assessing road safety campaigns), A. Mackie (studying different appeals to motivate the audience), J. Morris (a case study of a British campaign), J. L'Hoste (on the influence of posters on driver behavior), and G. Fleischer (studying the effectiveness of a radio and TV campaign on safety belt usage.) Most of these papers are covered by more extensive documents; abstracts are found separately.
Measures necessary for planning, execution, and control of effective publicity campaigns, and the efficiency of various media are described.


The use of public information campaigns in modifying driver behavior—particularly self-protection—is encouraged. No specific suggestions are given.


The author suggests the need for an alliance of information campaigns and the implementation of methods of control or enforcement.


A section of this study summarizes past experience with seat belt campaigns in various countries. Effectiveness of types of campaign materials—posters, television or radio spots, etc. -- is studied. It is suggested that campaigns be run for a longer period of time and that they be carefully evaluated.

A general review of various campaigns is given. Issues for future study in the area of public information are outlined.


This report examines the effect of motivating appeals as used in road safety propaganda, and compares them with a plain factual technique. Much of the work is concerned with use of horror in propaganda but seven other appeals are also dealt with. The study makes use of subjective assessment and objective measurements of changes in behavior. In subjective tests some of the emotional appeals received higher ratings than the factual technique, but they did not cause any greater change in behavior. The studies were, however, carried out with "captive" audiences and there was no need to attract their attention. On the basis of the limited knowledge available it appears that the most effective appeal for road safety propaganda is likely to be basically factual with some content of serious emotion such as horror or family responsibility, preferably presented in a novel way to aid memorability.


One chapter of this document reiterates the model for campaign development described in the 1971 OECD report. It also considers six points in campaign design: target groups; contents of the message; appeal of the message; source of the message; communication media; intensity, phasing, and duration. Another chapter discusses several past seat belt usage campaigns and draws the conclusion that it seems possible to obtain slight improvement in seat belt use by means of publicity by concentrating on small groups. This idea is not described in detail.
Other Studies -- Campaigns, evaluated


One of the aims of this 1970 campaign was to increase the use of safety belts. Observations were carried out before and after the campaign. The number of drivers and front seat passengers in private cars using/not using safety belts respectively was recorded. It was not recorded whether the cars were equipped with safety belts or not. It was found that the use of safety belts in rural traffic had increased after the campaign in only a few cases. Otherwise the frequency of safety belt utilization had not changed appreciably. Similarly the use of safety belts in urban traffic had not changed appreciably after the campaign. As a conclusion it may be stated that the campaign had no measurable effect on the use of safety belts in private cars.


Among the many campaigns on numerous subjects covered by the article is the first national campaign on seat belts, launched in 1964. According to this evaluation, the campaign caused both sales and wearing rate to increase significantly.


This television and print campaign lasted 6 weeks during the summer fall of 1971, in an isolated area of Great Britain. Campaign evaluation included pre and post campaign interview and pre, mid, and post campaign observations. Observation showed a marked increase (pre-campaign 14%; post-campaign 29%) in seat belt wearing among drivers and a comparable increase among front seat passengers.

Seat belt information was designed on the basis of a model of seat belt use. Workers in a large steel company, having been observed as consistent non-users, took part in the information testing. The belt information groups (N=85) had more favorable posttest beliefs than the control groups. The belief effects were paralleled by behavior effects. The strongest effects were obtained for the unpretested belt information group where almost 45% of the subjects were observed as users, i.e. had a belt on at least once during the fourteen week post-treatment period. The usage effects decreased over time, but seemed to increase again after the belief follow-up. The results were taken as tentative support of the proposed model.


This campaign, run in early 1973, used print, radio, and television, as well as special television interviews, movie shorts, and press releases. Interviews were conducted on seat belt usage habits before, during, and after the campaign. Results showed an increase in belt usage by drivers from 9.4% before the campaign to 14.2% one month after the campaign. However those who never wear seat belts remained relatively constant. There was no change in people's opinions on seat belt protection.


A controlled campaign on seat belt usage was focused on a brochure and questionnaire mailed to inhabitants of one town. Observations were made before, during, and after the campaign. Seat belt usage doubled during the campaign, then fell again upon its termination.

This paper reviews a program of research studies designed to evaluate the effectiveness of publicity campaigns aimed at promoting road safety in general and the use of seat belts in particular. A series of controlled-area experiments in the use of media advertising, which aimed to indicate the optimum weight and pattern of advertising in order to achieve maximum returns in relation to expenditure, are described. They were continuously monitored by surveys and other research studies, the results of which indicated a direct and positive relationship between the deployment of advertising and the resulting extent of seat belt wearing. Data have also been utilised to examine underlying attitudes toward seat belts and their use on the part of motorists, and some evaluation has been made of the relative success of alternative themes used in the advertising.


At the end of 1970, Victoria introduced a law making seat belt usage mandatory. This article examines the effect of a newspaper safety campaign being run during that period. By looking at data gathered in 1971 (during the campaign), the authors conclude that the newspaper campaign had no effect on fatalities.


One of the campaigns described in this paper was released in 1970 and utilized a combination of print advertisements and direct mail to encourage safety belt usage. A "fear" approach (photograph of a badly injured face) was used along with a strongly-worded message. Ads were carried by major national newspapers. Results showed that the majority interviewed looked at the ad and appreciated that belts should always be worn; 10% - 14% would not read the ad because of the photo. Use of seat belts after the campaign, among Ansvar insurance personal injury claimants, increased from a reported 26% to 36%.

To encourage installation and use of seat belts, the National Society for Road Safety conducted an educational campaign in the spring of 1959 using radio, television, print, and speaker presentations. Evidence showed the radio appeals to have been most effective; however, no statistical data on installation, use, or accident rates are given.


Some of the credit for an increase in seat belt usage by 1973 is given to a large national advertising campaign on the subject. The campaign itself is not described.