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¹ Evaluating an intervention to improve belt fit for adult occupants:

² Promoting positive beliefs☆

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Seat belt use provides significant public health benefit, however, most public awareness campaigns 18 have generally focused on seat belt use rather than encouraging adults to improve seat belt fit with belt place- 19 ment. This study provides an evaluation of a video-based intervention to improve adult belt fit assessing whether 20 a video-based intervention can target beliefs and knowledge of seat belt placement and be perceived as relevant 21 by the target audience. Method: An intervention group of 29 adults (15 women and 14 men) and a comparison 22 group of 99 adults (41 women and 47 men) participated. Results: The intervention group had significantly 23 more favorable beliefs around belt fit than the comparison group related to Health Belief Model constructs of 24 higher self-efficacy, greater benefits, and fewer barriers. The intervention group was also significantly better at 25 accurately drawing belt fit than the comparison group. The video intervention was described as relevant, inter- 26 esting, and the intervention group favored the provision of a diverse sample of models in the intervention. Con- 27 clusions: Overall, the study provides insight into relevant target beliefs for an intervention focused on belt fit and 28 suggests that a brief video-based intervention in the style of a public service announcement may be effective in 29 promoting positive beliefs and knowledge around belt fit. Future efforts should confirm these findings with a 30 larger sample size spanning multiple geographic and demographic areas. *Practical applications*: These findings 31 can help better inform intervention initiatives to improve occupant belt fit. 32

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Q6 1. Introduction

Seat belts were estimated to save as many as 13,941 lives among 44 passenger vehicle occupants in 2015 (National Center for Statistics 45 and Analysis, 2016). With use, a lap/shoulder seat belt reduces injury 46 47 risk among front-seat passenger car occupants by 45% and the risk of a moderate-to-critical injury by 50% (Dunn, Holliday, & Vegega, 2016). 48 Primary seat belt laws, high visibility enforcement, and fines have led 49 to increased seat belt use in recent years (Nichols, 2010), with rates of 50 51 observed use across the United States at 88.5% in 2015 (Chen & Webb, 2016). Despite the demonstrated effectiveness of seat belts, very few 52 studies consider the "goodness" of seat belt fit. 53

54 Belt fit has an influence on occupant kinematics and injury risk in 55 crashes. Suboptimal belt fit potentially diminishes the effectiveness of 56 the belt restraint. In a frontal crash, the optimal performance of the 57 belt system includes rapid loading of the lap portion by the bony pelvis 58 and the loading of the shoulder belt to the bony landmarks at the

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sternum and clavicle. Placing the lap belt high or forward introduces 59 slack by routing the belt further away from the underlying skeletal 60 structures. Yet, Fong, Keay, Coxon, Clarke, and Brown (2016) character- 61 ized belt fit in participants' own vehicles and found only 35% achieved 62 overall good fit (both lap and shoulder belt). Odds of poor belt fit 63 were associated with greater body mass index (BMI) and being female. 64 Such findings suggest a need for an effective intervention to raise 65 awareness and motivate improved seat belt fit to promote maximal pro- 66 tection in the event of a crash that is relevant for individuals of varying 67 demographics, body size, and shape. Also, laboratory data from repeated 68 trials has suggested that some drivers might be able to place the belt 69 lower, in a more optimal position (Reed, Ebert, & Hallman, 2013). Fur- 70 ther, Poplin et al. (2015) recommend countermeasures to prevent 71 hollow-organ abdominal injuries that focus on improved seat belt 72 placement. 73

The use of Public Service Announcements (PSAs) that include com- 74 bined video and audio messaging is a common and effective method 75 to promote traffic safety behaviors (Delhomme et al., 2009). A meta- 76 analysis of 228 studies conducted in 14 countries identified overall ef- 77 fectiveness of traffic safety campaigns including campaigns to increase 78 seat belt use, reduce overall road crashes, and increase comprehension 79 of risk (Phillips, Ulleberg, & Vaa, 2011). Review and meta-analysis stud- Q7 ies have identified a number of planning steps that increase the 81

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82 likelihood such efforts are effective, including development using be-83 havior change theories (Delhomme et al., 2009). The purpose of such theories is to provide a conceptual framework of the determinants of a 84 85 health behavior. A behavioral theory is successful if it informs the design of and effective programs that engages the public with content that is 86 87 meaningful and relevant (Coatsworth, Szapocznik, Kurtines, & 88 Santisban, 1997; McCord & Tremblay, 1992). A theoretical construct 89 that combines quantitative and qualitative understanding of how indi-90 viduals may modify behavior gives campaign designers insight into 91 the perceptions and perspectives of target audiences (Buckley & 92 Sheehan, 2004).

The current study describes the development and testing of an inter-93 vention designed using a theory-based approach to health-behavior 94 95 messaging. The intervention was a short video (with audio) that could 96 be suitable for a PSA. Delhomme et al. (2009) highlight that theories 97 that predict behavior and include elements from the Health Belief Model (HBM) are often used in traffic safety research and campaigns. 98 99 The underlying concept of the HBM is that health behavior is determined by personal beliefs or perceptions including: recognition of 100 harm (i.e., perceived susceptibility to, and perceived severity of, an inju-101 ry due to poor belt fit) and that changing behavior reduces exposure to 102 the harm with such reduction outweighing associated costs 103 104 (e.g., inconvenience). The theory suggests that individual perception (susceptibility, severity), modifying factors (environmental factors that 105 exacerbate threat), self-efficacy, and cues to action prompt behavior or 106 likelihood of action. The likelihood of action is affected by the individual's 107 perceptions of *benefits* and *barriers* to behavior (improved belt fit). 108

109 There is a lack of data about beliefs and motivations that affect seat belt fit (Fong et al., 2016). Although the HBM has not previously been 110 applied to promoting seat belt fit, the HBM constructs have been applied 111 to understanding and evaluating other transportation safety behaviors, 112 113 including the use of a seat belt (compared with no use). While focusing 114 on alternative theoretical frameworks, other studies have shown change in HBM constructs including self-efficacy and consideration of 115 costs and/or benefits (akin to benefits and barriers) that promoted 116 seat belt use (Brijs, Daniels, Brijs, & Wets, 2011; Nathanail & Adamos, 117 08 2013). Further research has shown barriers to seat belt use (e.g., being "user-friendly") and benefits (e.g., they decrease injury in the event of 119 crashes) are associated with use (Fernandes, Hatfield, & Job, 2010; 120 Simsekoğlu & Lajunen, 2008). The salience of risk of injury from failure 121 to wear seat belts has also been associated with increased use 122 123 (Weinstein, Grubb, & Vautier, 1986). The study seeks to understand beliefs associated with seat belt fit as operationalized from the HBM as 124 125 well as understanding design features such that they are relevant to 126 the target audience. In order to meet this aim, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed to focus on understanding 127 128 issues associated with design and to inform future intervention development. 129

The aim of the current study is to provide a preliminary investigation 130 into the design and effectiveness of a PSA to promote improved seat belt 131 fit. The study includes an intervention group who received a video-132 133 based intervention developed to target HBM constructs and principles 134 of belt fit, as well as a comparison group who did not receive the inter-135 vention. The intervention was evaluated by examining differences in re-136 ported HBM constructs, as well as knowledge demonstrations of seat belt fit between the intervention and comparison groups. Further 137 138 knowledge outcomes and perceptions of the value of a video-based intervention were explored qualitatively. 139

140 2. Materials and methods

The protocol was approved by the university's Institute Review
Board and all participants provided informed consent prior to participation. All participants were licensed, adult drivers who owned a vehicle.
The sampling and recruitment differed between the intervention and
comparison group and the approaches are described below. Regardless

of group, all participants undertook a pen-and-paper survey of demo- 146 graphics, a survey of the Health Belief Model (HBM) constructs, and a 147 knowledge demonstration. 148

2.1. Intervention group149

Intervention participants were recruited through local advertise- 150 ments, including community noticeboards, and university study 151 websites. Intervention participants were stratified based on gender, 152 body mass index classification (obese and normal weight participants), 153 and age (participants over and under age 65 years). All intervention par- 154 ticipants completed the protocol in January 2016 and were compensat- 155 ed for their participation. To avoid drawing attention to the seat belt 156 before the baseline measurement, participants were told only than 157 they were volunteering for a study evaluating vehicle components, spe- 158 cifically safety devices in the vehicle (e.g., air bags). Standard anthropo- 159 metric measures were taken on each participant to characterize overall 160 body size and shape. Participants viewed the intervention on a hand- 161 held tablet as part of a quantitative belt-fit study (Jones et al., 162 submitted for publication). Belt fit was measured before and after the 163 intervention in participants' vehicles and in a laboratory mockup. Im- 164 mediately after viewing the video intervention, participants were also 165 instructed to self-report their thoughts and considerations while they 166 donned a seat belt in the laboratory setting. Specifically, they were 167 also asked to verbally describe the points of placement of their belt as 168 they donned the belt. Participants then undertook the pen-and-paper 169 survey of HBM constructs, knowledge demonstration, and perceptions 170 of the intervention. The intervention group included 29 adult drivers 171 (15 women and 14 men); 15 were obese (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²) and 14 172 were 65 years or older (mean age = 62 (SD = 14)). 173

2.2. Comparison group

Participants in the comparison group were recruited from flyers and 175 surveys placed in the waiting room of offices and at a stall that was part 176 of an exhibition for university facilities that could be used for automated 177 vehicle testing. Beside the flyers were consent forms and surveys which 178 enabled participants to complete the survey immediately. They were 179 not compensated for their time. Comparison group participants complete the pen-and-paper survey of HBM constructs and knowledge 181 demonstration between January and April of 2016. The comparison 182 group comprised 99 adult drivers (41 women and 47 men); 13 were 183 obese (BMI > 30 kg/m²) and 23 were 65 years or older (mean age = 184 44 (SD = 21)), based on self-report.

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2.2.1. Intervention

An inter-disciplinary team of experts, including automotive safety 187 experts, injury biomechanics researchers, behavior psychologists, and 188 communication and video production specialists were consulted to de-189 velop short video that presented the most important aspects of good 190 belt fit. The objective of the video was to increase knowledge about 191 the benefits of seat belts and how to wear them correctly and provide 192 the motivation to wear their belt optimally (as operationalized from 193 HBM constructs). The three key belt fit concepts conveyed in the 194 video were: 195

- 1) Lap belt low on hips, touching the thighs.196
- 2) Shoulder belt crossing middle of collarbone.3) Belt snug, as close to bones as possible.198

Fig. 1 shows stills of the video that illustrate these concepts.

Multiple revisions of the script for the video-based intervention 200 were undertaken and reviewed by the experts. A pilot test was conduct-201 ed to assess terminology for the anatomical reference of the belt posi-202 tion, to consider the video tutorial script, and consider proposed 203 graphics. A convenience sample of 24 community participants provided 204

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