

1 Article

## 2 Effect of Road Safety Education on road risky 3 behaviors of Spanish children and adolescents: 4 findings from a national study

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11 **Abstract:** Road Safety Education (RSE) is widely known as a reliable determinant of future results  
12 for what concerns health and welfare, and as an undisputable factor which contributes to the social  
13 behavior of individuals and to their mid and long-term road safety outcomes. However, its  
14 development has been relatively scarce in most countries, fact which has contributed to letting  
15 matters as delicate as traffic crashes produced by road misbehaviors continue to be a prevalent  
16 problem, thus affecting the health of the community. Objective: The aim of this study was to describe  
17 the relationship between demographic and RSE-related variables and the self-reported road risky  
18 behavior of Spanish students. Methods: For this cross-sectional study, a representative sample of  
19 4,062 (51.5 males and 48.5% females) participants attending primary (47.5%), secondary (40.7%) and  
20 high school (11.7%) was gathered through a national survey on RSE and road behaviors. Results: A  
21 set of significant associations between demographic factors, RSE variables and self-reported road  
22 behaviors was found. Furthermore, the SEM modelling allowed us to establish that age, observed  
23 misbehaviors, attitudes towards road safety and risk perception keep a direct link with the road  
24 risky behavior of children and young people. The knowledge of traffic rules was not a significant  
25 predictor of road behavior. Conclusions: The results of this study show that, together with  
26 demographic factors such as age, RSE-related variables have an effect on the road behavior of  
27 children and young people. They also suggest the need of strengthening actions to be implemented  
28 in road safety (Road Safety Education), into scholar and community levels.

29 **Keywords:** Road Safety Education; RSE; Children; Adolescents; Risky Road Behaviors; Road Safety;  
30 Traffic Crashes

31

### 32 1. Introduction

33 Road crashes are recognized as one of the worldwide leading causes of mortality among young  
34 people. They account for approximately 35-40% of the injury-related mortalities among teenagers  
35 and young adults in Western countries, and risky road behaviors are one of their most important  
36 predictors [1,2]. Also, globally speaking, pedestrians constitute the largest category of children  
37 involved in road traffic crashes. In high-income countries, between 5% and 10% of children suffering  
38 road traffic injuries are pedestrians, while in low-income and middle-income countries the  
39 proportion ranges from 30% to 40% [3]. This number is appallingly rising, and children injured or  
40 killed while traveling as passengers in cars are a serious concern for high-income countries; such  
41 cases can account for up to 50% of children's traffic deaths. Moreover, half of the estimated 1.2 million  
42 fatalities worldwide occurring every year involve vulnerable road users (VRUs) who are killed in  
43 road crashes, with children and elderly people being overrepresented among the victims. In parallel,  
44 50 million people are injured and live with long-term adverse health consequences [4,5].

### 1 1.1. Perception of road risk and behavioral education through RSE

2 It is clear that children do not perceive neither traffic signals and norms nor the overall reality  
3 in the same way as adults do. Moreover, the pedestrian safety of children is likely influenced by  
4 individual differences in temperament and personality [6,7]. That is why a child's development must  
5 be considered in order to introduce the best educative interventions, since it has been shown that  
6 Road Safety Education (RSE) tends to be more effective when started at a young age. The  
7 environmental risks, such as the location of schools and recreational or play areas, are also relevant  
8 for the safety of pedestrian children, since they are more likely to be hurt near schools [8]. Thus,  
9 behavioral approaches and traffic safety education without any modification of the traffic  
10 environment might not effectively prevent the occurrence of pedestrian injury in low and middle-  
11 income countries with poor traffic conditions [2,9].

12 Regarding gender differences, it is known that females reported significantly higher perceived  
13 risk towards unsafe driving than males [10,11], and in related works it seems to emerge that people  
14 are more easily sensitized to risk than to safety, and that strengthening risk perception through  
15 systematic interventions (as the ones used in RSE-related paradigms) may result in positive  
16 behavioral changes [12]. For all these reasons, affective and motivational mechanisms -including  
17 attitudes and perceptions- must be taken into account when developing road safety educative  
18 interventions.

### 19 1.2. Road Safety Knowledge and behavioral factors

20 Global road safety knowledge is an independent protective factor for road traffic injuries.  
21 Students with a high level of risky traffic behaviors or with low knowledge of road safety rules are  
22 more likely to suffer road traffic injuries [13].

23 In previous applications of some RSE interventions, well-structured and systematic programs  
24 have been proven to have an impact on some protective results of socio-cognitive and behavioral  
25 factors, although the results have been showed to be quite dependent on the beneficiaries' profiles  
26 [14]. This shows the importance that programs of comprehensive intervention have (including road  
27 safety knowledge and education, strategies of behavioral change and management of environmental  
28 risk), and therefore they must be rightly and properly planned.

29 Many researches on the safety of pedestrian children discuss the importance of the exposure to  
30 traffic and of the acquisition of skills in real-life traffic environments [15], particularly developing an  
31 awareness of traffic and learning fundamental road safety practices, initially under adult supervision  
32 and finally leading to independent journeys. In addition, although it is recommended to keep  
33 children away from dangerous road traffic scenarios, the evidence has shown that road safety  
34 education must involve their performance in realistic situations as much as possible, in order to  
35 provide them with experiential tools for strengthening ulterior positive road behaviors [16].

### 36 1.3. Attitudes towards road safety and road risky behaviors

37 Recent empirical evidences have shown that road-risky behaviors present relevant  
38 particularities according to demographic variables, such as age or gender [11]; for example, young  
39 males are more prone to present negative attitudes towards traffic rules than females, who are less  
40 involved in alcohol-related and speeding-related crashes than males [17]. However, Cordellieri et al.  
41 [18], showed interesting results regarding gender differences, suggesting that both males and females  
42 do not have the same risk perception regarding potentially hazardous situations on the road; females  
43 showed, overall, a higher road-risk perception rate. Therefore, this difference between risk  
44 perception and concern could explain some differences in the reduction of hazardous behaviors and  
45 in the frequency of road causalities.

46 In parallel, the attitude of drivers translates knowledge into action and it is one of the key factors  
47 contributing to driving behavior [19]. Some other evidence confirms that individuals with a high  
48 propensity for driving behaviors associated with an increased risk of road traffic crashes are more  
49 likely to have negative attitudes towards traffic safety, and therefore attitudes are correlated to

1 reported behaviors [20]. When the behavior is not completely planned, complementary factors such  
2 as self-efficacy are especially important for explaining the observed actions of road users [21].  
3 Furthermore, both attitudes and perceived risk have been shown to reliably predict unsafe driving  
4 behavior and involvement in [22-25].

#### 5 *1.4. Road safety behavior in children and adolescents*

6 According to Gärder [26], the use of engineering combined with education and institutional  
7 enforcement in road behavior programs is the most effective strategy for improving the safety of  
8 pedestrians. Based on previous findings, pedestrian behaviors can be explained through different  
9 theories such as, for instance, the Self-determination theory, which highlights the importance of  
10 intrinsic motivations in behavioral self-regulation [27]. Also, the Protection Motivation Theory,  
11 focusing on risk perception, highlights the importance of perceived severity (i.e., degree of harm that  
12 could possibly be derived from taking the risk) and perceived vulnerability [28].

13 Behavioral intention is a key predictor of behavior [29], and external social norms (i.e.,  
14 descriptive and injunctive norms) as well as internal norms (i.e., personal norms) are important if the  
15 objective is to generate voluntary safe behaviors [30]. Moreover, the motivation behind an intentional  
16 risky driving behavior is determined by the attitude towards that behavior, the subjective norm, and  
17 the perceived control over one's own behavior.

18 Based on the findings from the research of Guggenheim & Taubman-Ben-Ari [31], educational  
19 programs in RSE aimed at adolescents should promote behaviors that take advantage of the  
20 potentially positive influence of friends, in order for young drivers to be encouraged to take more  
21 responsibility when driving with friends. In this sense, a study supports that social norms may  
22 influence the speeding behavior of teenagers, and this relationship may operate through perceived  
23 risk, suggesting an important effect of the influence of friends on teenage drivers [32]. Accordingly,  
24 it is necessary to focus the research on the phenomenon of influence among peers on what concerns  
25 safe behaviors on the road.

26 Finally, the scientific evidence has shown that RSE may have some positive effects if good  
27 practices are adopted, such as the programming of pedagogical objectives, the verification of the  
28 trainers' competences, the adaptation of methods in order to achieve the purposes and the testing of  
29 the effects produced by the impact [1]. Far from being considered just a mere school subject, RSE  
30 must be part of a lifelong learning process.

31 Curiously, according to Thompson [33], the major challenges in educative interventions do not  
32 consist of focusing the attention on the merely observed behavior but, rather, of fostering good  
33 practices such as the use of interactive learning methods, the enhancement of positive attitudes  
34 towards road safety, the development of better social competences, the integration of volunteer  
35 trainers into programs, and the direction of efforts towards the use of realistic training scenarios. Of  
36 course, this implies a major integration of the educational system and all its involved stakeholders  
37 [34].

#### 38 *1.5. Study Framework*

39 The most relevant theoretical bases of this study are the relationships between road safety  
40 education and its later outcomes in terms of traffic safety. Both factors are complex and difficult to  
41 assess, keeping in mind the large number of variables they involve. However, recent scientific  
42 evidence has demonstrated an existing relation between road safety education and different key  
43 variables, such as attitudes towards road safety, risk perception, observed and reported behaviors on  
44 the road, subjective well-being and health outcomes. According to this approach, road safety and  
45 health should be treated from a comprehensive perspective, i.e. considering people's biological,  
46 psychological, and social aspects, or involving some key stakeholders such as parents, members of  
47 the educational system and other institutions. Moreover, it is important to understand the factors  
48 associated with the learning of road safety, in order to prevent future risky behaviors, traffic crashes  
49 and, also important, to promote awareness and risk perception among children. Therefore, this article  
50 was framed within a large-scale project of research on road safety, developed by the University

1 Research Institute on Traffic and Road Safety (INTRAS). This global research on road safety  
2 education and environmental issues of children used a questionnaire composed of a set of items  
3 divided into different sections. The questionnaire was used to collect socio-demographic and  
4 psychosocial data from participants and their parents. The study described in this article is based on  
5 some items of the section "*Road safety education in children and young people*".

### 6 *1.6. Objectives and hypotheses*

7 This study had two main objectives: first, to describe the relationship between age, observed  
8 road behaviors of parents and peers, road safety education-related variables, and the participants'  
9 self-reported risky behaviors. And second, to assess the effect of these variables on the participants'  
10 road behavior, through a path analysis.

11 Regarding our hypotheses, the expected results of this study -according to each objective- were:  
12 first, that age, observed road behaviors and RSE-related variables would present significant  
13 associations. And second, that age, observed behavior and RSE variables would have an effect on the  
14 explanation of the participants' self-reported risky behaviors on the road.

## 15 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 16 *2.1. Sample*

17 For this cross-sectional study, a total sample of  $n=4,062$  Spanish students (2,092 males, being  
18 51.5% of the sample, and 1,970 females, representing 48.5% of the sample) was used, all coming from  
19 different provinces of Spain. The mean age of the full sample was  $\bar{x}=12.46$  ( $SD=3.01$ ) years. 47.5%  
20 of participants were primary school students ( $\bar{x}=10.04$ ;  $SD=1.57$  years of age); 40.7% were in secondary  
21 school ( $\bar{x}=13.91$ ;  $SD=1.48$  years of age), and 11.7% of them were attending high school or professional  
22 training degrees ( $\bar{x}=17.19$ ;  $SD=2.39$  years of age).

### 23 *2.2. Study Design and Procedure*

24 Participants were invited to participate in the study through the distribution of a national survey  
25 on Road Safety Education, in which children answered a set of questions on this topic in the  
26 classroom. The global response rate (activated and totally answered questionnaires) was  
27 approximately 97%, from a total of 4,200 students initially asked to participate. The sample size was  
28 established according to the calculation of statistical representativeness, carried out using Raosoft®  
29 sample size calculator, based on the total population and on the estimated sample needed to fulfill  
30 the basic parameters.

31 Considering that the sample was obtained from schools which had previously agreed to  
32 cooperate with the research project, and that surveys were applied in the classroom, for this study  
33 we employed a convenience (non-probabilistic) sampling, grounded on the accessibility to the  
34 population and on their willingness to participate (or not) in the study. The survey was always  
35 conducted guaranteeing the anonymity of its participants, and emphasizing the existing laws on data  
36 protection and the fact that the information would only be used for statistical and research purposes,  
37 especially considering that most of participants were under aged, reason why a previous permission  
38 signed by the school institutions and by the associations of parents had to be elaborated and agreed  
39 upon. All participants were initially told about the importance of answering honestly to all the  
40 questions, as well as about the non-existence of wrong or right answers.

### 41 *2.3. Instruments*

42 For this study, a paper-based questionnaire composed of four sections was elaborated: first, a  
43 short summary of demographic data (i.e. age, gender, city/region of residence, current educational  
44 level) was completed, in order for the researchers to characterize participants.

1 A second section was used to assess the participation of students in Road Safety Education  
2 activities, and all their related factors, such as the type of interventions, their duration/intensity, the  
3 value attributed to them and the scenarios employed for these interventions.

4 A third section was designed to assess the participants' perception of several factors related to  
5 road safety education, using the following sections:

6 Firstly, for assessing the knowledge of traffic rules and the ability to identify traffic signals, a 12-  
7 item scale (6 for each factor) was used; it presents a series of statements to be answered as false/true  
8 in order to determine the participants' knowledge of basic traffic norms and signals (example item:  
9 rear seat passengers in a vehicle are NOT required to wear a seatbelt). Attitudes towards road safety  
10 were assessed using a 6-item scale that presents a series of statements related to safe/unsafe attitudes  
11 of participants as road users (example item: even if using the seatbelt were not mandatory, I would  
12 still use this safety element). Thirdly, risk perception was measured using a 12-item scale that  
13 presents some potentially risky road situations, and asks the respondent to state the degree of risk  
14 implied in these situations, using a Likert scale and answering the question "how much risk do you  
15 perceive in the following situations?" ranging from 0=None to 2=Very High Risk (example item: using  
16 the cellphone while walking).

17 Finally, the fourth section was composed of two sets of items: for the first, about self-reported  
18 risky behaviors, a 6-item questionnaire was used for asking whether the participants usually  
19 performed (or did not perform) some risky behaviors (example item: if I am about to cross the road  
20 and the pedestrian traffic light has started to blink, I cross running, as it will almost immediately  
21 change to red). As for the second, a 12-item frequency scale (ranging from 0=Never to 2=Too Often)  
22 was used to ask them how often they observed risky road behaviors in their parents and peers (6  
23 items for parents and 6 for peers) (example item: how often do your parents drive after drinking  
24 alcohol?).

25 The average time needed for filling out the survey in a pilot application (data not included in  
26 the final sample) with  $n=50$  Spanish children and young students was  $\bar{x}=13.5$  minutes.

#### 27 2.4. Statistical Analysis (Data Processing)

28 In addition to the descriptive analyses, a bivariate correlation (Pearson) analysis was performed  
29 to establish potential relationships among the study variables in the case of this sample of Spanish  
30 students. Furthermore, the associations between demographic data (age), RSE-related variables,  
31 observed road behaviors and self-reported road risky behaviors were tested using path analysis  
32 (Structural Equation Modelling -SEM- with maximum likelihood estimations), with the following  
33 significance parameters:  $p < .05$ ,  $p < .01$  and  $p < .001$ . All statistical analyses were performed using  
34 ©IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), version 24.0 (2016), and ©IBM SPSS AMOS,  
35 version 22.0, specifically used for conducting structural analyses.

#### 36 2.5. Ethics

37 In order for this study to be conducted, the *Research Ethics Committee for Social Science in Health*  
38 of the University Research Institute on Traffic and Road Safety at the University of Valencia was  
39 consulted, certifying that the research subject to analysis responded to the general ethical principles,  
40 currently relevant to research in Social Sciences, and issued a favorable opinion to be carried out in  
41 Spain. Furthermore, an informed consent statement containing ethical principles and data treatment  
42 details was used, and it was signed by participants before answering the questionnaire.

### 43 3. Results

#### 44 3.1. Descriptive findings

45 The bivariate correlation analysis (see Table 1), allowed us to establish significant measures of  
46 association among study variables related to the Road Safety Education of Spanish students. Firstly,  
47 age was negatively and significantly associated with positive attitudes towards road safety and risk  
48 perception (the higher the age, the lower the risk perception, and the less favorable attitudes

1 observed). On the other hand, age was positively associated with the knowledge of both traffic signals  
2 and written traffic norms.

3 Regarding some important correlations found directly among RSE-related variables, it was  
4 found that: positive attitudes towards road safety were significantly associated with the amount of  
5 misbehaviors on the road observed in parents and peers [-], the identification of traffic signals [+], the  
6 risk perception [+], and the risky behaviors on the road [-]. Furthermore, risk perception was  
7 significantly associated with the amount of road misbehaviors observed [-], and with the knowledge  
8 of traffic norms [+]. Finally, risky behaviors on the road were positively [+] correlated to age and to  
9 observed road misbehaviors (in both parents and peers), and negatively [-] correlated to road safety  
10 attitudes, as shown in Table 1.

11 **Table 1.** Bivariate correlations among study variables.

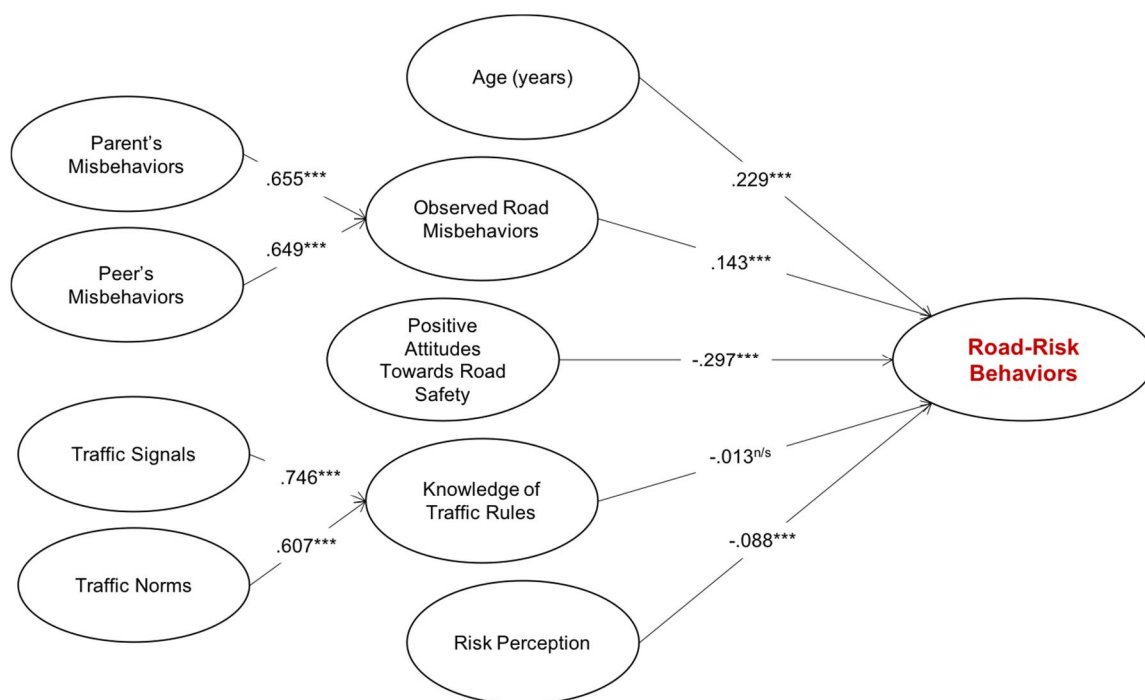
Study Variable	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age (years)	.090**	.316**	-.071**	.041*	.120**	-.087**	.286**
2 Observed Road Misbehaviors (Parents)	1	.176**	-.256**	-0.025	-.119**	-.179**	.203**
3 Observed Road Misbehaviors (Peers)		1	-.195**	.065**	0.026	-.109**	.250**
4 Positive Attitudes Towards Road Safety			1	0.025	.165**	.357**	-.344**
5 Knowledge of Traffic Signals				1	.083**	0.008	0.011
6 Knowledge of Traffic Norms					1	.139**	-0.057
7 Risk Perception						1	-0.217
8 Road Risk Behaviors							1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed). \* . Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### 12 3.2. Explaining road risky behaviors: SEM modelling

13 Based on the theoretical roots presented in the introduction, the effect of variables related to  
14 Road Safety Education on self-reported risky road behaviors of Spanish students was examined using  
15 a SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) approach. Using the SPSS AMOS path analyses, the  
16 hypothesized structural model was adjusted in order to fit the data considering the parameters of the  
17 full sample of  $n=4062$  participants.

18 A baseline (a priori) model did not fit the data well ( $\chi^2_{(20)}= 1226.50$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; NFI = 0.725; CFI =  
19 0.724; RMSEA = 0.108), and needed to be adjusted. Therefore, several modifications were made.  
20 Firstly, non-significant and very low paths were set to zero. Secondly, a very large Modification Index  
21 that pointed out a relevant relationship between the independent variables and risky behaviors. With  
22 these modifications, that made the model even more parsimonious, the model fit resulted adequate.  
23 The resulting Structural Equation Model, more parsimonious and reporting better fit coefficients  
24 ( $\chi^2_{(18)}= 10.213$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; NFI = 0.979; CFI = 0.984; RMSEA = 0.039) is presented in Figure 1.  
25



1

2 **Figure 1.** Path structural model showing standardized path coefficients for self-rated Risky Behaviors  
 3 on the Road: \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

4 In short, the standardized path coefficients (see Table 2 and values next to solid lines in Fig. 1)  
 5 of the model show positive associations between age ( $\beta=.229^{***}$ ), observed road misbehaviors  
 6 ( $\beta=.143^{**}$ ), and risky behaviors on the road (dependent variable). On the other hand, negative  
 7 relationships were found between risk perception ( $\beta=-.088^{***}$ ), positive attitudes towards road safety  
 8 ( $\beta=-.297^{***}$ ), and risky behaviors. Nevertheless, the self-reported level of knowledge of traffic rules  
 9 computed through the knowledge of traffic signals and written norms does not present an explaining  
 10 role in the self-reported road behavior of participants ( $\beta=-.013^{N/S}$ ).

11 **Table 2.** Frequency and percentage of each gender and each age group with or without anxiety  
 12 symptoms.

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Estimate <sup>1</sup>	S.E. <sup>2</sup>	Std.		
				Estimate <sup>3</sup>	C.R. <sup>4</sup>	P
Risky Road Behaviors	<--- Age	.100	0.009	.229	-11.074	***
Risky Road Behaviors	<--- Risk Perception	-.045	0.011	-.088	-4.159	***
Risky Road Behaviors	<--- Observed Risky Behaviors	.114	0.017	.143	6.656	***
Risky Road Behaviors	<--- Knowledge of Traffic Rules	-.012	0.020	-.013	-.580	.562
Risky Road Behaviors	<--- Positive Attitudes towards Road Safety	-.286	0.020	-.297	-14.336	***

<sup>1</sup>SPC = Estimated Path Coefficients (can be interpreted as linear regression weights). <sup>2</sup>S.E. = Standard Error. <sup>3</sup>Standardized Path Coefficients. <sup>4</sup>C.R. = Critical Ratio. \*\*\* Significant at level 0.001; \*\* Significant at level 0.01; \* Significant at level 0.05.

#### 13 4. Discussion

14 This study had two main objectives: first, to describe the relationship between age, road  
 15 behaviors observed in the social environment and variables related to road safety education in

1 Spanish young people and children, as well as their risky road behaviors. And second, to assess the  
2 effect of these variables on the participants' self-reported risky behavior on the road, using a path  
3 analysis. One key aspect of this research is our approach, in which we considered the safety of  
4 pedestrian children and young people not only as a whole, but as a set of components which mutually  
5 influence each other and, as the results confirm, can influence the road risky behavior of participants.

6 Regarding the first objective of the study, we found a set of significant associations between  
7 demographic factors, road behaviors and issues related to road safety education. Bearing in mind the  
8 age range of the sample (and that some of these elements work differentially for adult road users),  
9 we will discuss the results within the frame of the evidence related to this age groups. First, a relevant  
10 set of positive associations between knowledge of traffic rules, positive attitudes towards road safety  
11 and risk perception suggests the need of strengthening these elements in road safety education  
12 interventions, especially when considering their proven association to further risky/safe road  
13 behaviors [19]. Furthermore, the observed road behaviors had a correlation with the self-reported  
14 risky behaviors of participants, in accordance with some studies supporting the influence of observed  
15 road behavior on the one performed by children and young road users [32,35,36]. However, we must  
16 face the rise of two difficult issues regarding this point: first, that we used a self-report measure for  
17 risky road behaviors (see *Limitations*), and second, that the observed behaviors constitute an aspect  
18 that is complementary to RSE in the acquisition of safe road habits, but at the same time it does not  
19 fulfill the need of exerting major efforts for improving safe attitudes and risk perception of road users,  
20 considering that those factors also have an effect on the own road behavior [33,34]. Finally, it is also  
21 worth discussing the non-significant bivariate association between knowledge of traffic rules and  
22 signals, road risk perception and self-reported behaviors on the road: this supports the idea that,  
23 although rule knowledge and risky road behavior do not present a direct link, when modelled  
24 together with other variables related to road safety education (i.e. age and observed behavior) they  
25 make it possible to explain the behavioral outcomes of children and young people. This is an essential  
26 part of the second objective of the study.

27 Subsequently, and as for the Structural Equation Model, obtained with good fit and significant  
28 paths in accordance with the theory, we will discuss the model's principal components and we will  
29 explain the paths basing our reasoning on the study variables: the first variable included in the path  
30 model was age. In this regard, former studies have already confirmed that age is usually related to a  
31 decreasing trend in the performance of risky behaviors, when groups of young and adult road users  
32 are analyzed together [34,36,37]. Nevertheless, it is necessary to highlight that in our research the  
33 oldest age of the participants corresponded -overall- to teenagers, in which we observed a rebound  
34 of the hazardous behavior; so, in our case, risky behaviors are more common among adolescent and  
35 young pedestrians [38]. Following the same line, there are no protective factors against the  
36 commission of risky traffic behaviors related to the older population of our study, quite the contrary.

37 Overall, the findings of our research show that the road misbehaviors observed by participants  
38 (i.e. Spanish children and young students) influenced their hazardous behaviors. Some previous  
39 analyses have reached the conclusion that individual road behaviors need to be addressed involving,  
40 apart from children, some key stakeholders, such as their parents and teachers [39] because parents  
41 may influence their children's road behavior in different ways. Following this line, as an example,  
42 cautious drivers are more likely to have prudent children [40], fact that could highlight the  
43 importance of the imitation of positive attitudes in safety behaviors. Still on the subject, according to  
44 Taubman-Ben-Ari et al. [35], the risky behaviors performed by parents are usually repeated by their  
45 children. Beyond this fact, it seems clear that psychological factors such as risk perception, the  
46 behavior of parents and their attitudes towards traffic safety may affect children's road safety  
47 outcomes [41].

48 Other major variable influencing road behavior is the promotion of knowledge and  
49 understanding of traffic rules and situations, which is one of the pillars of RSE [1,34]. As it was  
50 expected, in our study those children who displayed a lack of knowledge of traffic signals and norms  
51 tended to take higher risks in their road behaviors. However, it is also remarkable what other studies



1 have proven, which is the fact that an increase in the knowledge of road safety does not necessarily  
2 translate into improved behavior in real traffic situations [42].

3 Following this point, the literature has progressively shown that attitudes are strong predictors  
4 of pedestrian behaviors as well [37], and that performing hazardous behaviors is negatively  
5 correlated with positive attitudes towards road safety [34]. Thus, when we analyze the relationship  
6 between these two variables, it seems that positive attitudes towards road safety decrease risky  
7 behavior, and the results of our study reinforce this statement.

8 Although several studies on the link between safe behavior and attitudes towards traffic safety  
9 issues have been conducted, especially among young drivers [43,44], there are no standard  
10 similarities nor general possible predictions for the attitudes of young pedestrians; and,  
11 consequently, this highlights the importance of identifying children who are particularly prone to  
12 adopting risky and potentially harmful road behaviors [45]. Besides, attitudes and cultures are related  
13 to the risky behaviors of pedestrians. Such is the case of the vertical collectivism approach – which  
14 defines the self in relation to others, with an emphasis on conforming to authority and hierarchy-  
15 which was found to be associated with safe pedestrian attitudes among young people [46]. First and  
16 foremost, it is essential to explore the implication of the associations of cultural factors in traffic safety  
17 educational programs.

18 Regarding this, the results found in a study which addressed a similar research topic showed  
19 that the average score in self-reported road risky behaviors was significantly higher in the case of  
20 participants with less risk perception [11,34]. This outcome is consistent with the negative and  
21 significant association between these two variables, that we found in our study. Furthermore, safe  
22 pedestrian behavior requires multiple aspects of the cognitive function, which needs efficient, rapid,  
23 and precise decision making. For instance, regarding the specific case of acute sleep deprivation, it  
24 has been demonstrated that a poor or insufficient sleep affects, in young individuals, multiple aspects  
25 of pedestrian safety, eventually leading to the impairment of risk perception [47]. In this regard, other  
26 findings show that when young people are simultaneously using their cellphones and crossing the  
27 street, this influences their pedestrian behavior, which generally becomes considerably riskier [48].  
28 These new patterns of street crossing combined with cellphone use are endangering the road  
29 behavior of children and adolescents, with non-desirable distractions that compromise an accurate  
30 risk perception and represent, of course, the need of involving new potentially positive and  
31 hazardous elements present in the road environment; this issue should also become an active element  
32 in the design and application of road safety education strategies, considering key elements such as  
33 age, road safety skills and needs of children and young people, and the proven influence of RSE on  
34 their future behavioral outcomes as road users.

## 35 5. Conclusions

36 The structural (SEM) model shows that (following a theoretical perspective), the variables  
37 approached by road safety have a statistically explained influence on high-risky behaviors of young  
38 people and children. It also suggests the necessity of producing more strengthening actions to be  
39 implemented in road safety (*Road Safety Education*), taking into account all the above-mentioned  
40 elements.

41 In other words, the results shown in this study allow us to conclude that, together with  
42 demographic factors such as age, RSE-related variables have an effect on the road behavior of  
43 children and young people. In this sense, behaviorally-based emphasis on interventions related to  
44 road safety education may improve the children's future road behavioral outcomes and, thus, their  
45 pedestrian safety.

## 46 6. Limitations of the Study

47 Although the size of the sample was considerably large, and the main statistical parameters  
48 needed were overall accurately and satisfactorily tested, some factors related to the design, data  
49 collection and scope of the results should be listed as potential sources of bias in this study. First of  
50 all, this study followed a self-report method, thus enhancing the potential occurrence of common

1 method biases, as well as potential biases in the responses provided by participants [49]. In short, and  
2 specifically if we bear in mind the age groups addressed by this research, a bias of social desirability  
3 and acquiescence could be elicited, together with potential bias that may involve young people and  
4 children participating in self-report studies within the academic context, as already listed in some  
5 previous empirical studies [50,51]. In this sense, even just the fact that the research was conducted in  
6 the classroom may have involved a certain predisposition of the participants to provide “positive” or  
7 “desirable” answers, in order to please the researchers, even though the “non-existence of wrong or  
8 right responses” had been emphasized during the introductory phase of the questionnaire.

9 Furthermore, there are some sources of bias related to the complexity of the questions and to the  
10 tasks proposed to our participants: although the questionnaire was initially tested through a pilot,  
11 showing positive results in terms of comprehensibility and clarity, which were appropriate for the  
12 age range involved in the study (from primary to high school), some basic processes are still more  
13 comprehensible for older students, such as in the case of reading/writing tasks and some terminology  
14 that, although simple, could be better understood by the older groups of students involved in the  
15 study. Also regarding the sample distribution, although every school cycle had a considerably large  
16 number of participants, the smallest group (*high school*) was composed of 475 individuals, a relatively  
17 small number compared to the other two; in this sense, some further statistical comparisons or in-  
18 depth analyses could be limited by the disproportionality among the study’s sub-groups.

19 Finally, it is worthy suggesting that RSE-related factors could be also strengthened outside the  
20 school system. Other scenarios, such as the mass-media and institutional campaigns, also offer  
21 behavioral improvements for different road users, including the young population. For instance, the  
22 evidence has shown that road safety campaigns coincide with a 10% reduction of crashes, especially  
23 those which involve personal communication, billboards and/or social media-related strategies to  
24 deliver their message [52,53]. Also, a deep exploration of different factors, both at an individual level  
25 and within the social context, through qualitative data collection, could be particularly useful and  
26 important, since it could facilitate the study of the subjects’ perceptions and opinions on road safety-  
27 issues, factor that may maximize the development of more inclusive and effective policies in this  
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38 Cristina Esteban contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools; Francisco Alonso and Cristina Esteban wrote and  
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