



## Shaping Young Minds: An Empirical Study on the Effectiveness of School-Based Traffic Awareness Interventions for Children and Families in India

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**Abstract:** Road traffic accidents constitute a critical public health crisis in India, claiming approximately 168,000 lives annually and injuring over 440,000 individuals. Children, as a vulnerable population, face heightened risks due to developing cognitive abilities and limited risk perception. This empirical study evaluates the effectiveness of a structured, multi-component traffic awareness campaign implemented across ten schools in Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, and Haryana. Using a quasi-experimental design, the study assessed 1,501 students from Classes 4 and 5, combined with parent feedback from 862 respondents. The intervention comprised interactive presentations, dramatized skits, drawing book activities, and pledge-taking sessions conducted over a one-year period (April 2024–May 2025). Pre- and post-campaign assessments were administered using a validated 25-item questionnaire measuring traffic safety knowledge across eight domains. Results demonstrated statistically significant improvements in student quiz scores (pre-test mean: 18.92; post-test mean: 21.75;  $Z = -25.443$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), with a large effect size ( $r = 0.657$ ). Notably, 74.4% of students improved their scores post-intervention, while only 14.7% showed score decline. Parental data revealed significant reverse socialization effects, with 52% of parents reporting that children frequently lectured them about traffic rules while driving. Urban students demonstrated greater absolute improvement (2.93 points) compared to semi-urban counterparts (2.20 points), though both contexts showed substantial learning gains. These findings underscore the efficacy of age-appropriate, participatory learning interventions in promoting traffic safety awareness and the phenomenon of reverse socialization in household-level behavioral change. The study provides evidence-based recommendations for curriculum integration, teacher training, and cross-sector collaboration with traffic authorities.

**Keywords:** Road Safety Education, School-Based Intervention, Behavioural Change, Traffic Awareness Campaign, Child Safety on Road

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Road traffic injuries represent one of the leading causes of death and disability globally, accounting for approximately 1.35 million deaths annually according to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2023). In India, the situation is particularly acute, with road traffic accidents claiming an estimated 168,491 lives in 2022 alone—an alarming figure representing a 9.2% increase compared to 2021. Beyond fatalities, road accidents result in 440,900 injuries annually, creating substantial economic burden on healthcare systems and families (MoRTH, 2022). The socioeconomic costs of road accidents in India are estimated at 3–5% of gross domestic product, rivaling expenditure on education and health sectors combined.

Children represent an especially vulnerable population within these statistics. As pedestrians, cyclists, and passengers, children aged 5–14 years face heightened exposure to traffic hazards. The vulnerability of children to traffic accidents stems from developmental factors: underdeveloped cognitive capacities for hazard perception, limited risk assessment abilities, and lack of formal behavioral training in traffic environments (Towner & Ward, 1998). The WHO (2023) reports that traffic injuries are the leading cause of death among children and young adults aged 5–29 years globally. In the Indian context, children constitute approximately 12–15% of road fatality victims annually, translating to over 20,000 preventable deaths among this age group each year.

While infrastructure improvements and vehicle safety features have contributed to accident reduction in developed nations, behavioral factors remain the primary driver of accidents in India. The Ministry of Road Transport and Highways (MoRTH, 2022) identify human error, rash driving, and inadequate safety practices as responsible for approximately 89–92% of road accidents. Children, particularly those aged 6–10 years, possess developing prefrontal cortex function, limiting their ability to engage in risk assessment, impulse control, and long-term consequence evaluation (Montroy et al., 2016).

Developmental psychology research indicates that interventions targeting children are more effective than adult-focused programs for shaping long-term behavioral habits. Ages 6–10 constitute a critical window for establishing traffic safety norms, as children can comprehend explicit instructions while remaining highly responsive to peer influence and parental modeling, making school-based interventions especially effective (Poulter & McKenna, 2010).

Despite (India's National Road Safety Policy, 2018) and recommendations from the Ministry of Road Transport and Highways, road safety education remains weakly integrated into Indian school curricula. Existing initiatives are largely episodic, led by traffic police or NGOs, and lack systematic evaluation, longitudinal follow-up, and parental engagement. Across major education boards, traffic safety receives minimal curricular attention and is treated as a peripheral topic rather than a core life skill.

Existing road safety interventions in India focus predominantly on infrastructure development (zebra crossings, speed breakers, signage) and enforcement mechanisms (traffic police, penalties for violations) (Guria, 2020). Furthermore, existing interventions predominantly target knowledge acquisition without addressing behavioral change mechanisms or household-level influence (Shantajit et al., 2018). Parents, who represent the primary behavioral models for children's traffic practices, remain largely excluded from awareness campaigns (Morrongiello & Dawber, 1999). The concept of "reverse socialization"—wherein children influence parental behavior—has received minimal empirical attention in the Indian traffic safety context despite its potential for household-level behavioral transformation (Ekstrom et al., 1987).

This study fills key gaps in the traffic safety literature by offering large-sample, quasi-experimental evidence on the effectiveness of structured school-based campaigns in India, empirically examining reverse socialization as a household-level mechanism, and assessing differential impacts across urban and semi-urban contexts. These gaps were addressed through a comprehensive, evidence-driven intervention integrating dramatized learning, visual and artistic activities, interactive instruction, and behavioral commitments, evaluated using pre–post assessments, control groups, and parental feedback to capture both student- and household-level outcomes.

## **II. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Road Safety and Child Vulnerability**

Children's susceptibility to traffic accidents reflects fundamental developmental constraints. (Poulter & McKenna, 2010) document that children under age 10 demonstrate significantly limited ability to judge vehicular speed and distance. Developmental neuroscience research reveals that the prefrontal cortex—responsible for executive functions including impulse inhibition, risk assessment, and consequence evaluation—reaches functional maturity only in late adolescence (16–18 years) and continues refining until the mid-20s(Steinberg, 2008). This neurobiological reality means that children cannot reliably evaluate traffic hazards regardless of instructional intensity or motivation.

Compounding neurobiological limitations are perceptual constraints. Young children demonstrate "tunnel vision" in traffic contexts, focusing attention on singular cues (desired destination, peer activity) while filtering out peripheral traffic information. Additionally, children are developmentally egocentric, unable to mentally model others' visual perspectives; hence, a child may assume that because they see a vehicle, the driver necessarily sees them(Meir et al., 2013). These cognitive and perceptual limitations render children passive in traffic environments, requiring external behavioral guidance and habit formation during formative years.

### **2.2 Effectiveness of School-Based Interventions**

Meta-analytic evidence demonstrates that school-based traffic safety programs reduce accident involvement by 6–15% compared to control populations (Orton et al., 2016). (Duperrex et al., 2002)conducted a systematic review of 48 controlled trials of road safety interventions, concluding that multi-component programs combining classroom instruction, behavioral practice, environmental changes, and parental involvement demonstrated consistently positive outcomes. (Towner & Ward, 1998) evaluated UK primary school programs and documented 37–47% reduction in child pedestrian injuries in intervention schools over a five-year follow-up period.

Critical success factors identified across this literature include: (1) age-appropriateness of content and delivery methods; (2) participatory, experiential learning (role-play, simulation, demonstration) rather than passive instruction; (3) repeated, reinforced messaging across multiple contexts; (4) parental engagement and

home-based reinforcement; and (5) integration with broader environmental and enforcement changes (Hoekstra & Wegman, 2011).

Importantly, research distinguishes between knowledge acquisition and behavioral change. While most interventions improve traffic safety knowledge (measured via quizzes and written tests), knowledge alone poorly predicts actual behavior. (Duperrex et al., 2002) found that knowledge-only programs showed minimal impact on real-world accident rates. Conversely, programs incorporating behavioral practice, habit formation, and environmental design demonstrated sustained behavior change. This distinction is critical for interpreting the present study's findings.

### **2.3 Behavioral Change Theories in Traffic Safety**

The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) provides useful framework for traffic safety interventions, positing that behavior is driven by intention, which in turn depends on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Applied to child traffic safety, the model implies that effective interventions should shape positive attitudes toward safe practices through education about consequences, strengthen normative support from peers and parents, and enhance perceived control through skill development and repeated practice.

The Health Belief Model (Glanz et al., 2015) emphasizes that individuals modify behavior when they perceive severe health threats, believe themselves susceptible, recognize action benefits, and perceive minimal barriers. Effective traffic safety campaigns increase perceived severity and susceptibility, establish clear behavioral benefits, and remove practical barriers to behavior adoption.

Social Learning Theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977) highlights the critical role of observational learning and modeling whereby children acquire safety behaviors by modeling parents and teachers. Accordingly, interventions that combine instruction with visible behavioral modeling are more effective than instruction alone, supporting the study's focus on parental behavior and feedback as central to children's internalization of traffic safety norms.

### **2.4 Reverse Socialization and Household-Level Effects**

"Reverse socialization" describes the process wherein children influence parental attitudes and behaviors. While parental socialization of children has been extensively studied, reverse socialization remains relatively understudied, particularly in non-Western contexts. (Ekstrom et al., 1987) provided early evidence of reverse socialization in traffic safety contexts, documenting Swedish adolescents reminding parents to wear seatbelts and stop at red lights. (Price et al., 2025) examined traffic safety programs in Lebanon, finding that educated children were significantly more likely to influence parental behavior compared to control groups, with reverse socialization effects persisting months post-intervention.

(Ben-Bassat & Avnieli, 2016) hypothesize that reverse socialization operates through informational mechanisms (children transmitting newly acquired knowledge), normative mechanisms (children establishing behavioral expectations), and emotional mechanisms (children expressing concern or appreciation for parental compliance). Parental responsiveness to these influences is shaped by factors such as education levels, cultural norms surrounding parental authority and child voice, and baseline openness to behavioral change.

The Indian context is especially relevant for examining reverse socialization. While traditional norms emphasize parental authority, the growing value placed on children's education may facilitate child-to-parent influence. Studying this phenomenon in India therefore offers important theoretical insights and practical guidance for designing effective household-level interventions.

### **2.5 Urban-Semi-Urban Contextual Differences**

Urban and semi-urban contexts differ markedly in traffic infrastructure, vehicle exposure, and school resources. Urban areas typically involve higher traffic density, complex intersections, and frequent pedestrian–vehicle interactions, whereas semi-urban settings often have less formalized traffic systems, limited pedestrian infrastructure, and weaker enforcement (Shantajit et al., 2018). These contextual differences shape both the traffic risks children face and the relevance and effectiveness of specific safety messages

### **2.6 Research Gap and Study Rationale**

This study addresses key gaps in the traffic safety literature by providing large-sample, quasi-experimental evidence on the effectiveness of structured school-based campaigns in India, empirically examining reverse socialization as a mechanism for household-level influence, and comparing outcomes across urban and semi-urban contexts. To address these gaps, the study implemented a comprehensive, evidence-driven intervention integrating dramatized learning, visual and artistic activities, interactive instruction, and behavioral commitments, and evaluated its impact using pre–post comparisons, control groups, and parental feedback to capture both student-level and household-level effects.

### **III. Research Objectives**

**3.1 Primary Research Question:** To what extent does a structured, multi-component traffic awareness campaign improve traffic safety knowledge, awareness, and behavioral practices among Grade 4–5 school children in India?

**3.2 Secondary Research Questions:**

- Does the campaign create measurable changes in observed parental traffic behavior?
- Are there differential effects of the campaign across urban and semi-urban school settings?
- Which specific campaign components (skits, presentations, drawing activities, pledges) demonstrate greatest effectiveness in knowledge retention?
- Does reverse socialization occur, do children actively influence parental traffic behavior post-intervention?

**3.3 Research Objectives:**

1. To measure the effectiveness of traffic awareness intervention on student knowledge of traffic rules, signs, and safe road behavior using validated pre-post assessments.
2. To assess parental perception of behavioral changes in children and document instances of children influencing parental traffic practices.
3. To evaluate urban-semi-urban disparities in campaign effectiveness and identify contextual factors influencing intervention success.
4. To identify high-impact campaign components through parental feedback and engagement metrics.
5. To generate evidence-based recommendations for curriculum integration and policy-level implementation of traffic safety education in Indian schools.

## **IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1. Research Design**

This study employed a quasi-experimental pre–post design with experimental and control groups to evaluate the campaign’s impact. Quantitative methods were used to assess changes in knowledge through quiz-based measures and statistical comparisons, while qualitative inputs—including parental feedback and observational reports—captured behavioral and household-level changes. The quasi-experimental approach was adopted due to the impracticality of random assignments in school settings; however, selecting control schools from the same geographic region helped mitigate temporal and contextual confounding, enabling meaningful comparative analysis.

### **4.2. Data and Sampling**

**Purposive School Selection:** Using purposive sampling, 10 schools were selected across three Indian states (Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana) based on accessibility, administrative willingness to participate, diversity in school type (public/private), and representation of urban and semi-urban contexts. Urban schools (n=7) were located in metropolitan areas with established transportation infrastructure; semi-urban schools (n=3) served tier-2 towns with limited public transit systems.

**Student Sample:** All students enrolled in Classes 4 and 5 in participating schools were invited to participate in campaign activities and assessments. Pre-campaign quiz participation totaled 1,672 students; post-campaign quiz participation totaled 1,684 students. Using matched-pairs analysis (students responding to both pre- and post-campaign assessments), the analytical sample comprised 1,501 students which included 1,293 urban students and 208 semi-urban students.

**Parental Sample:** A structured questionnaire was distributed to parents via school WhatsApp groups and direct distribution through students. Experimental group parents (n=505) were parents of children participating in the campaign. Control group parents (n=357) were parents of children from non-participating schools. Total parental sample: 862 respondents (response rate approximately 68%).

### **4.2. Instrumentation and Measurement**

**Student Quiz Development:** A 25-item questionnaire was developed assessing traffic safety knowledge across eight domains: (1) traffic signs and symbols (3 items); (2) pedestrian safety (3 items); (3) seatbelt and helmet use (3 items); (4) emergency response (3 items); (5) road-crossing behavior (3 items); (6) school transportation safety (3 items); (7) cyclist behavior (2 items); and (8) avoiding distractions (2 items).

**Validity and Reliability Testing:** Pilot testing with 369 students guided item refinement for clarity and age appropriateness. The questionnaire demonstrated acceptable internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.814

(pre-test) and 0.775 (post-test). Exploratory Factor Analysis supported the eight-factor structure, with adequate sampling adequacy ( $KMO = 0.82$  pre-test; 0.79 post-test) and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ( $p < 0.001$ ). The model explained 57.09% (pre-test) and 57.45% (post-test) of total variance, indicating satisfactory construct validity.

**Parental Feedback Survey:** A 10-item Likert-scale questionnaire (3-point: Always=3, Sometimes=2, Never=1) assessed parental observations of child behavioral changes, instances of children correcting parental safety practices (reverse socialization indicators), and household reinforcement of traffic safety discussions.

#### 4.3. Research Hypotheses

##### Hypothesis 1 (Student Awareness):

- $H_0$ : There is no significant difference in mean traffic safety quiz scores pre- and post-campaign.
- $H_1$ : There is a significant difference in mean traffic safety quiz scores pre- and post-campaign.

##### Hypothesis 2 (Parental Behavior):

- $H_0$ : There is no significant difference in traffic safety awareness and observable behavior between parents of intervention participants (experimental group) and parents of non-participants (control group).
- $H_1$ : There is a significant difference in traffic safety awareness and observable behavior between experimental and control group parents.

#### 4.4. Campaign Implementation and Phases

The Traffic Awareness Campaign was implemented across four distinct phases between April and May 2025:

**Phase 1 (Pre-Campaign Assessment):** Students completed baseline quizzes assessing prior traffic safety knowledge. Approximately 1,672 students participated.

**Phase 2 (Campaign Implementation):** The intervention was delivered over 4–6 weeks per school and comprised multiple engaging components. These included 45-minute interactive presentations using audiovisual materials to teach traffic rules, pedestrian safety, and emergency protocols; dramatized skits illustrating common road-risk scenarios and their consequences; and age-appropriate drawing workbooks in which students identified traffic signs and safe versus unsafe behaviors, completed by approximately 3,225 students. The program also incorporated a formal safety pledge ceremony and a lottery-based reward system (certificates and small incentives) to encourage sustained participation and engagement.

**Phase 3 (Post-Campaign Assessment):** Students repeated the 25-item quiz approximately 4–6 weeks post-intervention completion. Approximately 1,684 students participated. Parent surveys were distributed and collected.

#### 4.5. Statistical Analysis

Preliminary analyses assessed data normality using Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests, which indicated significant departures from normality ( $p < 0.001$ ), justifying the use of non-parametric methods. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, median, and interquartile range) were computed for student and parental responses. Primary analyses employed the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test to compare matched pre–post student awareness scores ( $n = 1,501$ ), with effect sizes calculated as ( $r = (Z/\sqrt{N})$ ). Parental behavioral awareness between experimental and control groups was examined using the Mann–Whitney U test, while urban and semi-urban differences were assessed through stratified Wilcoxon tests. All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 25 and Microsoft Excel Office 365. Significance was established at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

## V. RESULTS

### 5.1. Student Knowledge Outcomes

#### Overall Effectiveness

The primary finding demonstrates statistically significant improvement in student traffic safety knowledge post-intervention. Pre-campaign quiz scores ( $n=1,501$ ) yielded a mean of 18.92 ( $SD=4.101$ ), indicating baseline knowledge level approximately 75.7% of maximum possible. Post-campaign quiz scores yielded a mean of 21.75 ( $SD=2.845$ ), representing approximately 87% of maximum possible—an absolute improvement of 2.83 points.

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test comparing pre- and post-campaign scores yielded  $Z = -25.443$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , indicating highly significant improvement. The calculated effect size  $r = 0.657$  substantially exceeds Cohen's threshold for "large" effects ( $r \geq 0.5$ ), demonstrating that the campaign's impact was not merely statistically significant but educationally meaningful.

Distributional analysis reveals that 1,118 students (74.4%) improved post-campaign scores, 163 students (10.9%) maintained identical scores, and 220 students (14.7%) demonstrated score decline. The substantial proportion of students with improved scores and minimal regression provides robust evidence of campaign effectiveness across the student population rather than isolated subgroups.

### **Urban-Semi-Urban Comparative Analysis**

**Urban Cohort (n=1,293):** Pre-campaign mean = 19.03 (SD=4.055); post-campaign mean = 21.96 (SD=2.578); Mean improvement = 2.93 points (15.4% relative improvement). Lower post-test standard deviation indicates greater consistency in post-campaign learning outcomes, suggesting effective message penetration and retention.

**Semi-Urban Cohort (n=208):** Pre-campaign mean = 18.26 (SD=4.327); post-campaign mean = 20.46 (SD=3.902); Mean improvement = 2.20 points (12.0% relative improvement). Higher post-test standard deviation suggests more variable learning outcomes, potentially reflecting disparities in school resources, teacher training, or student attention capacity.

Mann-Whitney U Test comparing urban and semi-urban improvement scores ( $\Delta$  = post-score minus pre-score) yielded  $U = 112,847$ ,  $Z = -2.184$ ,  $p = 0.029$ , indicating that urban students achieved statistically significantly greater absolute improvement than semi-urban counterparts. However, both cohorts demonstrated substantial, clinically meaningful gains. Notably, the urban-semi-urban baseline knowledge gap (19.03 vs. 18.26) narrowed slightly post-intervention, suggesting the campaign may have partially compensated for resource disparities in semi-urban contexts.

### **5.2. Parental Outcomes and Reverse Socialization**

#### **Experimental-Control Group Comparison**

Parental survey data (n=862: experimental n=505, control n=357) provided evidence regarding behavioral change at the household level and the phenomenon of reverse socialization.

**Overall Parental Awareness:** Experimental group parents reported mean awareness score of 2.709 (SD=0.276) on a 3-point scale, compared to control group mean of 2.505 (SD=0.432). Mann-Whitney U Test Yielded  $U = 66,233.5$ ,  $Z = -6.720$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , with effect size  $r = 0.229$  (small to medium effect). While statistically significant, the practical difference represents 0.204 points on a 3-point scale (approximately 6.8% difference), suggesting moderate yet meaningful parental behavior differentiation.

**Reverse Socialization Evidence:** Parental reports revealed strong evidence of reverse socialization in the experimental group. Nearly all parents observed child-initiated traffic safety communication, with 52% reporting frequent and 45% occasional instances of children lecturing parents about traffic rules, compared to minimal reporting in the control group. Similarly, 94% of experimental group parents noted frequent or occasional child questioning about traffic rules, indicating active cognitive engagement. Qualitative feedback further showed children correcting parental behaviors related to helmet use, seatbelts, and traffic signals, illustrating how children internalized safety norms and influenced household behavior.

### **5.3. Campaign Component Effectiveness**

Parental feedback highlighted strong component-level effectiveness throughout the campaign. High enjoyment was reported for skits (91%), interactive presentations (89%), and drawing book activities (94%), with parents emphasizing the role of dramatization and visual engagement in improving attention and recall. The drawing book emerged as particularly effective, with all parents rating it as helpful (79% "very helpful," 21% "somewhat helpful"). Overall, 99% of parents perceived improvements in their child's traffic safety understanding, indicating exceptionally high satisfaction and perceived program impact.

## **VI. DISCUSSION**

### **6.1. Interpretation of Primary Findings**

The study's central finding of significant improvement in student traffic safety knowledge is consistent with prior school-based intervention literature, with a large effect size ( $r = 0.657$ ) indicating substantial impact beyond random variation. Although this explains about 43% of outcome variance, remaining differences likely reflect individual, school-level, and implementation-related factors. The 2.83-point gain on a 25-point scale, while modest in absolute terms, is meaningful given high baseline knowledge levels, suggesting possible ceiling effects. Importantly, improvements were widespread across students, better captured by effect size than raw scores, and accompanied by reduced post-intervention variability, indicating knowledge consolidation and educational relevance.

### **6.2. Urban-Semi-Urban Disparities: Mechanisms and Implications**

The urban student improvement (2.93 vs. 2.20 points) raises important questions regarding intervention adaptation across context and reflects contextual differences in infrastructure, prior exposure, pedagogy, and socioeconomic background. Urban schools benefited from better multimedia facilities, more extensive teacher training, and students' greater familiarity with complex traffic environments, all of which may have enhanced engagement and retention. Semi-urban settings faced resource and environmental constraints, potentially limiting delivery effectiveness. Nevertheless, semi-urban students still achieved meaningful gains (12% relative improvement), and baseline disparities did not widen, indicating the intervention's broad effectiveness. These

findings underscore the need for context-sensitive adaptations—such as simplified materials and enhanced teacher support—to reduce urban–semi-urban differentials in future implementations.

### **6.3. Reverse Socialization Phenomenon: Theoretical and Practical Significance**

The strong evidence of reverse socialization—manifested through frequent child-led instruction and questioning—constitutes a key theoretical and practical contribution. Drawing on Social Learning Theory and upward influence dynamics, this process operated through informational channels (children transmitting traffic safety knowledge), normative mechanisms (establishing expectations and reminders for parental compliance), and emotional pathways (children expressed concern motivating parental behavior change). Its prominence in the Indian context reflects growing parental receptivity to school-based knowledge and children’s educational authority. Practically, child-mediated interventions offer a cost-effective means of influencing household behavior, overcoming common barriers associated with direct parent-focused campaigns.

### **6.4. Campaign Component Effectiveness and Pedagogical Implications**

Parental reports highlight the pedagogical effectiveness of active and multimodal components. High enjoyment of dramatized skits and visual presentations indicates that socially embedded, emotionally engaging scenarios enhance attention and retention among younger children. Drawing activities further strengthened learning by engaging multiple cognitive systems and fostering personalization, as reflected in universal parental approval. Interactive elements within presentations promoted engagement through real-time participation, while public pledge-taking likely reinforced behavioral intentions via commitment and accountability mechanisms. Overall, these findings align with pedagogical evidence favoring active, emotionally resonant, and multimodal instruction for cultivating safety-related habits in elementary-age learners.

### **6.5. Limitations and Boundary Conditions**

While the findings are robust, several methodological limitations warrant caution. The quasi-experimental design and school self-selection may introduce unobserved confounding, while the short follow-up period limits inference on the durability of knowledge gains. Outcomes focused on knowledge rather than observed traffic behavior, and reliance on parental self-reports raises potential social desirability bias. Additionally, limited demographic data restricts analysis of moderating factors, and the sample’s concentration in three northern states constrains national generalizability. Future research should incorporate randomized designs where feasible, longer follow-up, behavioral observations, richer demographic controls, and broader geographic coverage.

### **6.6. Theoretical Integration and Implications**

The findings are consistent with key behavior change theories while offering novel empirical insights. Consistent with Social Learning Theory, dramatized modeling facilitated observational learning and enabled reverse socialization, wherein children transmitted safety norms to parents. The intervention also activated all components of the Theory of Planned Behavior by shaping attitudes, strengthening subjective norms through peer and child-to-parent influence, and enhancing perceived behavioral control via skills practice and pledges. In line with the Health Belief Model, it increased perceived severity, susceptibility, and benefits while reducing perceived barriers. Notably, the study provides rare empirical evidence on reverse socialization as an effective and underutilized mechanism, documenting widespread child-initiated safety communication across experimental households.

### **6.7. Policy and Practice Implications**

The results point to clear directions for scaling traffic safety education. Traffic safety should be institutionalized within the school curriculum for Classes 4–5, supported by structured teacher training focused on interactive and dramatized pedagogy, along with standardized resource packages. Programs should intentionally incorporate parental engagement through child-led, take-home activities that leverage reverse socialization. Context-specific adaptations are needed to reduce urban–semi-urban disparities, particularly through simplified materials and enhanced teacher support in resource-limited settings. Effective scale-up also requires cross-sector coordination among education, transport, and health authorities, and should be accompanied by long-term evaluations using behavioral and incident-based outcomes to assess sustainability.

## **VII. CONCLUSION**

This empirical study provides robust evidence that structured, multi-component traffic awareness campaigns significantly improve traffic safety knowledge among Indian primary school children. Across a sample of 1,501 students from diverse urban and semi-urban school settings, the campaign achieved large effect size improvements ( $r=0.657$ ) in quiz-based traffic safety knowledge, with 74.4% of students showing improved post-

intervention scores. Importantly, benefits extended beyond individual children to household level, with evidence of substantial reverse socialization wherein 52% of parents reported children frequently lectured them about traffic rules, and 97% of families reported increased child-initiated traffic safety communication.

The campaign's effectiveness reflects principles from developmental psychology, with dramatized, interactive, and art-based components proving more engaging than traditional instruction. Although urban students exhibited larger absolute gains, meaningful improvements among semi-urban students confirm the intervention's relevance across resource-diverse settings. The study also makes a key theoretical contribution by empirically demonstrating reverse socialization as a powerful yet underutilized mechanism for household-level behavior change, highlighting the potential of school-based programs to drive cost-effective family-level safety improvements.

Practically, the findings support scaling traffic safety education through curriculum integration, targeted teacher training, structured parental engagement, and cross-sector coordination. Given India's rapid motorization and urbanization, sustained investment in early childhood traffic safety education offers a cost-effective preventive strategy with potential to reduce traffic-related injuries and fatalities. Future research should emphasize long-term follow-up, behavioral observation, accident-based outcomes, and systematic testing of context-specific adaptations, while further theorizing and empirically examining reverse socialization across broader behavioral health domains.

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